JOB SATISFACTION, LABOR TURNOVER:
IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FOODSERVICE INDUSTRY

by

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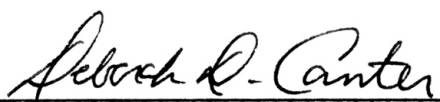requirements for the degree

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INTRODUCTION

Employee attrition is a serious problem facing businesses today.
During the next five years, approximately 350 of every 1000 people
employed will change jobs, despite management's efforts to minimize
turnover (1). These figures are especially meaningful when viewed in
the context of today's economy. High turnover is costly, reduces
productivity, lowers morale among remaining employees and consumes
valuable time.

The turnover rate for the foodservice industry has been high
when compared to other industries. Knowledge concerning the reasons
given by employees for leaving and for remaining in foodservice
non-management positions would be of benefit to management. If known,
training programs might be better designed, management style and
working conditions improved and employee satisfaction increased.
Spears and Vaden (2) assessed the job satisfaction in the foodservice
industry as follows: "Low job satisfaction and high employee turnover
have characterized the foodservice industry." Poor working conditions,
boredom, limited job opportunities, no recognition for performance,
low wages, and poor fringe benefits are among factors believed to
contribute to the problem of low job satisfaction and low productivity
in the industry (3).

Numerous studies have been conducted to determine reasons for
labor turnover in industrial operations, but relatively few have been
conducted in the foodservice industry. In 1970, Fisher and Gauniers
(4) researched and found the reasons for turnover in foodservice to be

similar to those which had been reported in other industries such as
personal factors and organizational factors. Magill (5) researched
employee turnover in commercial restaurants. His findings revealed
poor working conditions and low wages as the most common reasons for
employee turnover. Dane (6) conducted research in hospital dietary
departments to determine reasons for turnover costs. All of these
studies were completed prior to 1972.

According to several authors (1, 7-9), one of the most serious
and persistent problems confronting the personnel manager is that of
selecting employees who will render a long period of service to the
organization. The foodservice industry suffers high turnover due to
questionable management techniques, relatively low wages and benefits,
absence of uniform standards, substandard training and a lack of
opportunities for advancement.

The foodservice industry is the fourth largest industry in the
United States in terms of sales-dollars and is first among the
country's service industries in terms of number of persons served
(4). Given the magnitude of the foodservice industry and the velocity
with which changes have occurred, additional research is needed to
determine more specific reasons for labor turnover. In order for
management to develop programs and techniques for reducing turnover,
a thorough knowledge concerning the reasons for turnover is necessary.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this investigation is to review and discuss
factors influencing a worker's decision to remain with or be separated
from a foodservice operation.

Specific objectives for this study are:

1. To review the literature on employee satisfaction, motivation
   and labor turnover.

2. To identify factors which contribute to job satisfaction for
   foodservice employees.

3. To propose methods to aid foodservice managers in assessing
   causes of turnover and low satisfaction among workers.

Definition of Terms

Definitions of the terms and elements used in determining the
various rates of turnover are as follows:

Labor turnover: The movement of workers in and out of an
   industry; the number of accessions and separations in a given
   period of time.

Non-terminated: An employee determined to be on the payroll at
   both the beginning and end of the study or an employee hired
   during the period of study and determined to be on the payroll
   at the end of study.

Terminated: An employee on the payroll at the beginning of the
   study or subsequently hired during the period who left
   employment for any reason during the period of the study.

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Labor turnover rate: The ratio of non-terminated employees to terminated employees.

Flexibility: Willing or disposed to yield. Susceptible of modification or adaptation, i.e., a flexible time schedule.

Job design: Illustrated in the use of time and motion study to improve productivity.

Job enlargement: An approach to job design in which the job is extended in complexity horizontally.

Job enrichment: A concept that encompasses vertical job loading.

Quality circles: Groups of workers meeting to discuss ways to improve productivity.

Dysfunctional turnover: The individual wants to leave the organization, but the organization prefers to retain the individual.

Functional turnover: The individual wants to leave the organization, but the organization is unconcerned. This form of turnover is decidedly beneficial to the organization.

Expectancy: Refers to the likelihood that a particular act will be followed by a particular outcome.

Valence: Refers to the preference a person has for a particular outcome.

Accessions: The hiring of new or rehiring of former employees.

Separations: The terminations of employment, subdivided as follows: quit, lay-off, discharge, death or retirement.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Business and Social Labor Turnover

Perspectives in turnover research

Considerable research has been published in various professions and industries examining employee satisfaction in job situations and problems related to turnover. The majority of these studies have been conducted in non-foodservice industries. Industrial-organizational psychologists have studied individual determinants of turnover such as job dissatisfaction (10). Economists have focused on the relationship between wages and turnover rates by types of industry (11-12). Sociologists have compared variables such as occupational group, work group size, and communication patterns (13). Human resource planners have looked at turnover rates by occupational category, length of service, and equal employment opportunity (EEO) group (14).

Some studies of turnover are retrospective; that is, they seek the causes of turnover after it has occurred (7-9, 15). For example, exit interviews may be used to determine reasons for an employee's leaving. Exit interviews can be useful sources of diagnostic information (15). The measurement of change and its relationship to turnover are also concerns. Surprisingly few studies have attempted to focus on the dynamic nature of the turnover process via longitudinal analyses (16).

Research on the determinants of turnover

In this century there has been a steadily increasing flow of research on turnover. Steers and Mowday (17) reported over 1000 studies of turnover in this century. In the last quarter of this century, additional research and conceptual developments stimulated several additional reviews, such as Goodman, Salipante and Paransky (18) on hardcore unemployment and retention, and Pettman (19) on factors influencing turnover. More extensive reviews were published by Price (20) in 1977, by Muchinsky and Tuttle (21) in 1979 and Hinrichs (22) in 1980. These reviews are characterized by their recognition of the multiple determinants of turnover and the need for integrative conceptual models for better understanding of the turnover process.

Several conclusions have been drawn from these and other multivariate studies reviewed by Mobley et al. (23) in 1979. First, while job satisfaction is an important contributor to turnover, it is not inclusive of the effects of other relevant demographic, attitudinal, or cognitive variables. To predict and understand turnover, one must move beyond the simple satisfaction-turnover relationship. Second, behavioral intentions to quit or stay appear to be potent variables both conceptually and empirically. In 1980, Hinrichs reviewed absenteeism and turnover more extensively (22). The fact that intentions and turnover are far from perfectly correlated suggests the need for better measurement and continued search for other variables and processes (24).

Trends of research

The bulk of the research on turnover has focused on the negative aspect of turnover; however, recent research has appeared on the positive organizational effects of employee turnover. This aspect of turnover may have been ignored because it is less obvious, quantifiable and takes longer to become evident than negative cost.

Dalton and Todor (25) insist that responsible levels of employee turnover may not only infuse new life into the organization, but also earn it some hard-dollar benefits. Dalton and Todor characterized such benefits as very lucrative--a veritable windfall for the organization. The "windfall" created by turnover is derived from these three fundamental facts: 1) new hires require lower salaries and employee benefits than do senior employees, 2) unvested pension contributions covering those who leave may be recovered, and 3) a return can be realized on the capital recovered as a result of the above and other savings.

Turnover may be a positive phenomenon for the organization for a variety of reasons: organizational, individual, sociological, and social psychological. Job expectancy was found to be an important factor in turnover in a study by Scalt (26). Prospective employees were found to have prejudiced ideas of the roles they would have in their jobs. If these ideas were not met, the result was frustration, disillusionment and frequently early termination. Employers should have a clear perspective of job roles and present this clearly to their employees, saving training time and money as well as avoiding employee demoralization.

During the past few years, the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover has been widely studied in nonselling occupations, as can be seen in the literature reviews of Steers and Mowday (17), Mobley et al. (23), and Bluedorn (27). Findings of generally negative correlations between job satisfaction and turnover have repeatedly been reported. Several authors, namely Price (20) 1977, Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth (28) 1978, Dalton and Todor (25) 1979, and Bluedorn (27) 1982, have developed withdrawal models depicting a turnover process. Although these studies have contributed to the development of a comprehensive field concerning turnover, there is another review of the research that merits study. This research is referred to as meta-analysis. There are several reasons that warrant using this method (26).

First, a meta-analysis allows one to summarize large amounts of research more easily than a traditional review. Second, once a meta-analysis has been conducted to examine a finding, it is then possible to explore some of the factors moderating that finding. Third, although previous reviews have agreed on many factors concerning turnover, they have disagreed on other conclusions. In summary, a meta-analysis would be useful in resolving many of these disagreements. The meta-analysis would also provide a systemic problem-solving approach to employee turnover. With more and better research, employee turnover may become better understood, making that research more valuable (26).

Relationship of Job Satisfaction and Labor Turnover

Turnover rate has been reported as an indicator of satisfaction. Harwood and Brown (9) investigated kinds and numbers of indoctrination, orientation methods, and the composition and intensity of the training programs used in hospital foodservices and the relationship to job satisfaction and turnover. Hospitals with more indoctrination and orientation had significantly lower turnover rates. However, the relationship between indoctrination, orientation to satisfaction was not significant. There was a negative correlation between turnover rate and size of workforce. Puls et al. (31) found that employee orientation programs increase satisfaction and appear to decrease turnover rate among nonmanagement full-time hospital dietary workers. Walton (32) cited absenteeism, tardiness, turnover, inattention on the job, pilferage, sabotage, deliberate wastes, assaults, and bomb threats as evidence of alienation in blue and white collar workers. Glueck (30) stated that job satisfaction was important for employers to consider for two reasons: (a) humanitarian and (b) the real costs of turnover, absenteeism, and accidents.

Griffith et al. (33) found that the type and amount of training was effective in reducing turnover in hospital foodservices. Poor salary, poor benefits, and poor working conditions were not causative but may have been contributing factors to turnover. Landy and Trumbo (34) suggested job satisfaction could be thought of as a feeling or emotion which accompanies thoughts or actions related to the work role. If the work role is accompanied by a feeling of tension, the tendency

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will be to avoid the work; if the work is accompanied by feeling of pleasure, the tendency will be to approach it.

The issue of job satisfaction came into the picture from concerns with productivity. The concept of specialization was introduced as a measure to improve productivity. However, workers still became dissatisfied due to psychological reasons. Job satisfaction is such a complex phenomenon that generalization is deemed impossible. Factors that affect job satisfaction have different effects on different individuals or on the same individuals in different situations. Various terminologies arise in the discussion of job satisfaction. It is important to distinguish between job satisfaction, morale and motivation. Motivation is that which causes people to behave in a certain way. Morale pertains to group well-being, whereas job satisfaction refers to individual emotional relations to a particular job. Therefore, job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (35). As difficult as it is to define job satisfaction, it is also difficult to measure or quantify. No matter how inconsistent and complex the study of job satisfaction is, there will always be increasing interest in the field in order to prevent employee turnover.

Management responses

Present day organizations recognize the importance of job satisfaction. Innovative ideas such as flextime, job sharing, quality circles, employer-sponsored child care and job matching are gaining popularity in contributing to satisfaction among employees, increasing

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productivity and preventing labor turnover. The study conducted by Hick and Klimoski on the impact of flextime did not support the traditional flextime consequences for satisfaction in the work itself. However, employees on flextime schedules verbalized improvements in such areas as amount of inter-role conflict, a greater feeling of being in control in the work setting, and more opportunity for leisure (36).

Quality circles, an example of participative management, is a by-word at more innovative organizations. While foodservice has been slower to adopt the technique, more and more foodservice directors are trying quality circles in the work setting (37). Another important concept is job matching and the use of preferred skill. According to Coil, "The most satisfied and productive employees are those who are carefully and appropriately matched to their jobs. An appropriate and productive match means that the primary task of a job enables the employee to use his or her strongest and preferred skill" (38).

Preferred skills are those that come naturally to a person and are the reason for his or her most successful accomplishments. We should keep individuals in positions where they can use their preferred skills to avoid dissatisfaction and labor turnover (39). Employees should not be chosen on the basis of how well they mirror values of those who select them, but through their skills and how those fit the job. In the end, people who use their preferred skills will be the most productive (40).

Theories of Motivation

The studies to this point have not noted reasons for separation to a great extent as per the motivational theories developed since the mid-fifties. Industrial organizations often produce material goods in mass, but offer few opportunities for the satisfaction of the ego needs of the employee. Good wages, good working conditions, and fringe benefits do not appear to increase employee productivity. Organizations need to provide for the employees' higher level needs (35).

Theories on job satisfaction fall into two categories: content theories which answer the question "what factors influence job satisfaction," and process theories, which answer the question "how do variables such as expectations, needs and values interact with the characteristic of the job to produce job satisfaction." Maslow's need hierarchy and Herzberg's two-factor theory are content theories. Expectancy/valence and reinforcement theories are examples of process theories (41).

Maslow's need hierarchy theory

Maslow postulated the needs hierarchy on the basis of his observation that individuals are motivated to satisfy needs and these needs come in hierarchial order: 1) psychological, 2) safety, 3) belongingness, 4) esteem, and 5) self-actualization. These needs are classified into lower order and higher order, the first three being the lower order needs and the fourth and fifth the higher order needs. Maslow argues that the lower order needs have to be met before the higher order needs can be fulfilled (42). Maslow's needs

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hierarchy theory is an appealing concept. However, there is very little evidence that people's needs are fulfilled in hierarchial progression (43).

According to Maslow, management must know the types of needs workers have and the corresponding factors that can be used to satisfy those needs on the job (Figure 1). Further, management must realize that once a need is satisfied it ceases to motivate a person and other needs "take over." Finally, management must be aware that a person normally satisfies needs step by step, starting with the basic physiological or survival needs and moving up to the psychological needs of esteem and self-actualization (44). The need hierarchy may be viewed as a kind of step ladder people climb on their way to total fulfillment as human beings (45).

> The first rung on the ladder represents the physiological needs. These are very urgent needs that must be satisfied before any higher-rung needs can come into play. There are very few physiological needs, but they must be satisfied if the individual is to survive. Examples of these needs are air, water, food, and--in certain climates--clothing and shelter. In contemporary North America, most people have been successful in satisfying their survival needs; but for the millions of people throughout the world who haven't, life is little more than a grim day-by-day struggle for survival.

> The second rung on the ladder represents the safety needs. Once people have won the day-to-day struggle to stay alive, they start looking for longer-term solutions to the survival problem. People with safety needs are motivated to seek security, to protect themselves against misfortune and put distance between themselves and the daily scramble for survival.

> The third rung on the ladder represents the social needs. Here the individual is concerned with affiliation, being around other people and being accepted by them. People with social needs want to belong. They desire social relationships and the chance to interact with others.
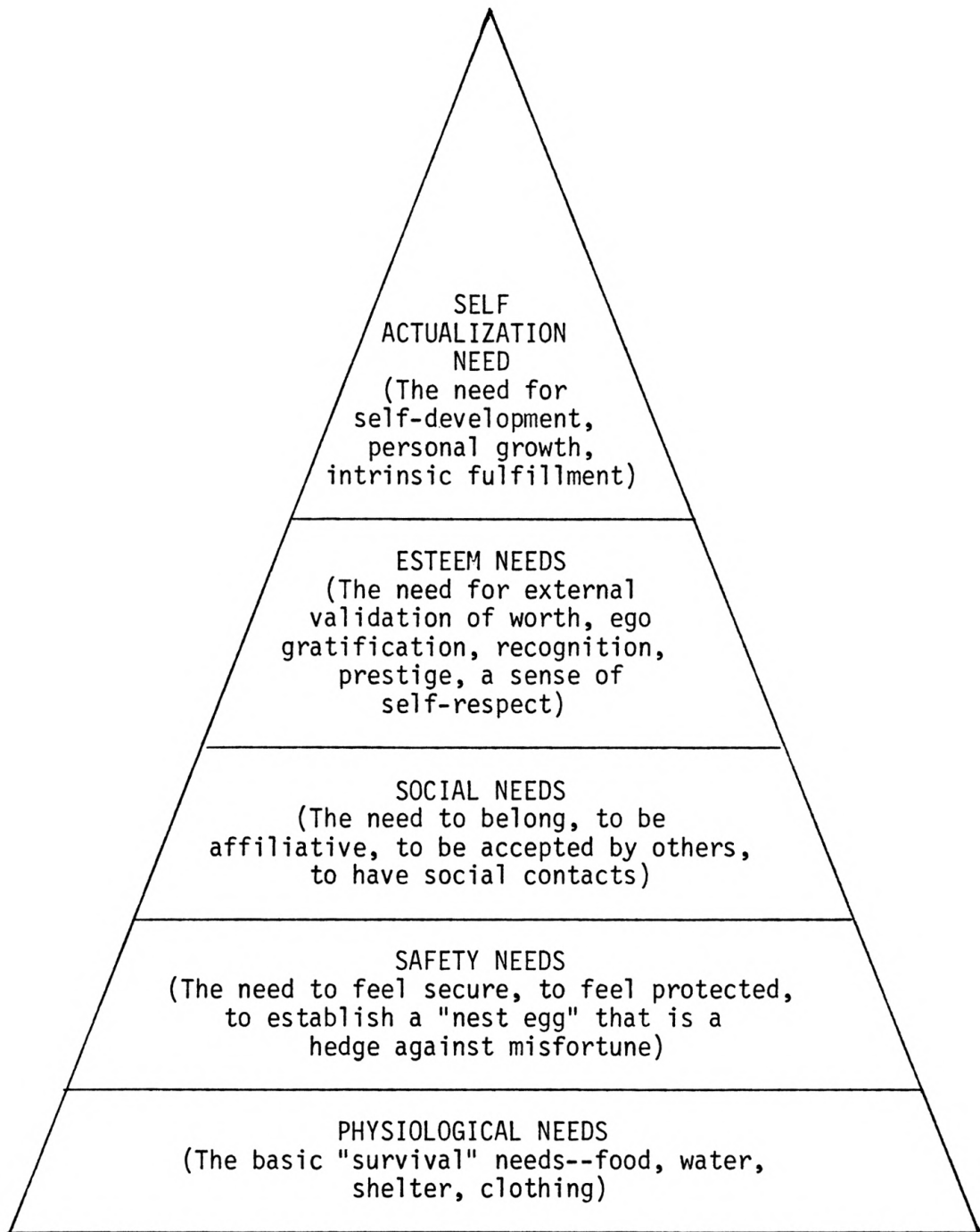
Figure 1. Maslow's hierarchy of human needs.

The pyramid from top to bottom contains:

SELF
ACTUALIZATION
NEED
(The need for
self-development,
personal growth,
intrinsic fulfillment)

ESTEEM NEEDS
(The need for external
validation of worth, ego
gratification, recognition,
prestige, a sense of
self-respect)

SOCIAL NEEDS
(The need to belong, to be
affiliative, to be accepted by others,
to have social contacts)

SAFETY NEEDS
(The need to feel secure, to feel protected,
to establish a "nest egg" that is a
hedge against misfortune)

PHYSIOLOGICAL NEEDS
(The basic "survival" needs--food, water,
shelter, clothing)

The fourth rung on the ladder represents esteem needs. People with esteem needs seek external validation of their worth; that is, they want others to recognize their competence and accomplishments. Individuals with these "ego" needs are concerned with prestige, status, and a sense of self-respect that comes with recognized achievement.

The fifth rung on the ladder, self-actualization, represents the highest level of human development. People with self-actualization needs are motivated to seek internal validation of their worth; that is, their values are defined in terms of personal beliefs and philosophies. People who attempt to self-actualize are striving to become all they are capable of becoming--in short, to reach their full potential as human beings. It is in this stage that individuals grapple with the age-old questions: Who am I? Where am I? Where am I going? Self-actualization is the pursuit of self-fulfillment, the quest for personal growth and the development of the total self.

Maslow's hierarchy of need is quoted rather extensively. While it provides a good starting point for gaining initial insight into the process of motivation, research dealing with the theory is rather sparse. Maslow himself expressed reservations concerning its widespread applicability and made a bid for more extensive research in a variety of settings. Researchers have tried to obtain statistical validity of Maslow's need hierarchy through factor analysis. Using a group of accountants and engineers as their sample, Mitchell and Moudgill found good statistical evidence that Maslow's categories do in fact exist. But their research supports a stronger distinction between lower order and higher order needs than it does a five-way classification.

According to the researchers, lower order and higher order needs are not mutually exclusive (44). It becomes evident that a person's position on the Maslow hierarchy will determine, in large part, what that person wants out of life in general and from the workplace in

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particular (Figure 2). For example, a person on the "first rung" of
the Maslow hierarchy will be more satisfied receiving a living wage
than recognition as "employee of the month." And, as we know, a
satisfied employee is a more productive employee.

What a Person Wants out of Life	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	What a Person Wants out of a Job
Freedom Personal growth (self-development) Achieve full human potential	Self-actualization needs	Creative and challenging work Responsibility for decision making Flexibility and freedom
Status Prestige Recognition for achievement	Esteem needs	Promotion Praise (recognition) by supervisor Merit pay increase
Social relationships Acceptance by others Affiliation	Social needs	Compatible work group Social activities at work Friendship at work
Security Safety "Nest egg"	Safety needs	Safe and healthy working conditions Job security Reasonable wages and fringe benefits
Food Water Clothing and shelter	Physiological needs	Meals Shelter from the elements Subsistence wages

Figure 2. What people want out of life and work at various levels of
Maslow's need hierarchy.

Herzberg's dual-factor theory

Herzberg surmised that two sets of factors are related to
attitudes towards work. One group of factors primarily determined
motivation, while the other group related to job dissatisfaction.

Motivators were achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, and advancement. Dissatisfiers were company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations, and work conditions, labeled as hygiene or maintenance factors.

Armstrong (46) compared job satisfaction of engineers and assemblers. Although the engineers had more job satisfaction than did the assemblers, both occupational groups received more satisfaction from job content (motivators) than from job context (maintenance) factors. Starcevich (47) studied three levels of managers and found that all three groups regarded job content factors important to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

A study by Wernmont (48) supported Herzberg's two factor theory. Interviews revealed that a lack of extrinsic factors produced overall dissatisfaction with work (Figure 3).

The traditional concept is that if the existence of something brings about satisfaction, its absence will cause dissatisfaction. Herzberg contends this is not so. Motivators are factors, that, if present, lead to satisfaction but whose absence does not lead to dissatisfaction. Example of these are recognition, achievement and the intrinsic worth of work itself, which correspond to Maslow's higher order needs. Hygiene factors are those which, if absent, lead to dissatisfaction but whose presence does not lead to job satisfaction. Pay, security and physical working conditions are examples of hygiene factors, which correspond to Maslow's lower order needs.

Porter and Lawler's (49) Performance $\longrightarrow$ Satisfaction instrumentality offered a circular, systemic explanation for job satisfaction

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FEEDBACK LOOP

Domain of: External (situational) variable		Person A		Domain of: Output Variables

Extrinsic factors
Company policies — Feelings about:
Working conditions
Technical competence of supervisor — Extrinsic Factors
Interpersonal relations
Salary

Other Factors
Supervisor's behavior and style — Other Factors
Design or nature of the job
Promotion
Placement

Result in:

Domain of: Internal (Intermediate or intervening variables

Intrinsic Factors
Feelings of:
Recognition
Advancement
Achievement
Responsibility
Liking work itself

Other Factors
Feelings of:
Fairness
Security

The collective term for these ="overall job satis.-dissatis."

Result in:

Level 1	Level 2
Absenteeism	Sales
Turnover	Profits
Effort	
Motivations	
Productivity	
Mental Health	

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FEEDBACK LOOP

Figure 3. A job satisfaction system.

(Figure 4). Satisfaction is a "derivative" variable inasmuch as
satisfaction is derived from perceptions an individual has of equitable
rewards in relation to actual rewards. To the extent the perceived
equitable reward exceeds the actual reward, both intrinsic and
extrinsic, the individual is dissatisfied. If the actual reward
exceeds perceived equitable reward, the individual is satisfied.

Scanlan (50) reported an overview of satisfaction, productivity,
and motivation. He presented six factors that contribute to satis-
faction: a) participative supervision, b) opportunity to interact with
peers; c) varied duties; d) high pay; e) promotional opportunities, and
f) control over work methods and pace. According to Dreher (51), pay
satisfaction is a function of obtained pay in relation to the individ-
ual's perceived inputs and outputs and to the salary of other people
holding similar jobs. He found that pay equity was related to pay
satisfaction.

Vroom's expectancy theory

Several expectancy approaches to motivation have been advanced in
the last several years. Two of the most prominent ones were developed
by Vroom (1964) and Porter and Lawler (1968). Expectancy theory
attempts to explain behavior in terms of an individual's goals, choices,
and expectations of achieving these goals. This theory assumes people
can determine the preferred outcomes and make realistic estimates of
their chances of attaining them (2). Vroom has outlined a conceptual
model of motivation that includes many of the concepts. The three

The individual's
abilities and traits

The level of reward
the individual feels
he should receive

The attractiveness
of the outcome
or reward

Intrinsic rewards
(feeling of
accomplishment, etc.)

Effort, or how hard
the person will try
to attain this
outcome or reward

Performance or
accomplishment
on the job

Satisfaction, or the
degree to which the
rewards meet the
individual's expectations

The individual's
perception of the
likelihood that the
reward depends
upon effort

Extrinsic rewards
increase in pay, etc.)

The type of effort
the person believes
is essential to
effective job
performance

Figure 4.   Porter and Lawler's motivation model.

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dimensions to his model can be expressed by the following formula (52):
Force (of motivation) = Valence * Expectancy.

The directional concept that describes how valences and expectancies combine in determining choice is known in Vroom's model of force. Vroom defines force as an algebraic sum of the products of the valences of all outcomes and the strength of expectancies that the act will be followed by the attainment of these outcomes. It should be noted that the concept of force as it is explained by Vroom is synonymous with the word "motivation" as it is used by other authors (Figure 5).

Force	=	Σ	Valence	×	Expectancy
motivation to enter training program for foreman	=	Σ	preference for training	×	confidence training will lead to promotion

Figure 5. Vroom's motivational equation.

Job expectancy was found to be an important factor in turnover in a study by Scott (53). Prospective employees were found to have preconceived ideas of the roles they would have in their jobs. If these ideas were not met, the result was frustration, disillusionment, and frequently early termination. This evidence indicated that a realistic description of what was expected in the work situation must be given to the prospective employee, thus saving training time and money as well as avoiding employee demoralization.

There are three assumptions in this theory: 1) an effort-performance expectancy, 2) a performance-outcome expectancy, 3) valence. "The effort-performance expectancy refers to the individual's perception of the chances that increased effort will lead to good job performance. The performance-outcome expectancy refers to the individual's perception of the chances that good performance will lead to certain outcomes or rewards. Valence refers to the value or attractiveness of a given outcome reward to the individual" (42).

Skinner's reinforcement theory

Reinforcement theory is based on the research of B.F. Skinner who concluded that a person's behavior or motivation is a function of the consequences of that behavior. When desired behavior is positively reinforced, it tends to be repeated; if not reinforced, it is less likely to continue to occur. Reinforcement theory has led to an approach to management known as behavior modification, or performance feedback and positive reinforcement (48). An important assumption is that people like to succeed which is in and of itself reinforcing.

Reinforcement or behavior modification theory asserts that if a manager wants to modify a subordinate's behavior, he/she must ensure that appropriate consequences occur as a result of that behavior (42). For example, if a particular activity such as a worker arriving on time for work is positively reinforced, or rewarded, the probability increases that the worker will begin arriving on time with greater frequency. In addition, if the worker experiences some undesirable outcome related to arriving late for work, such as a verbal reprimand,

the worker begins coming to work on time. According to behavior
modification theory, positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement
are both feedback which increase the likelihood that behavior will
continue.

Reinforcement programs have been applied both successfully and
unsuccessfully in a number of different organizations (54). The
reinforcement efforts of the Emerey Air Freight Company concluded that
the establishment and use of an effective feedback system is critical
to the success of a reinforcement program (55). Feedback should be
aimed at keeping employees informed of the relationship between various
behaviors and the consequences associated with them. Other factors
that successful reinforcement programs include are: 1) giving different
levels of rewards to different workers depending on the quality of
their performance, 2) tactfully telling workers when they are doing
wrong, 3) punishing workers privately so as not to embarrass them in
front of others, and 4) always giving rewards and punishments when
earned to emphasize that management is serious about behavior modifica-
tion efforts (56).

Elton Mayo's team discovered the importance of paying attention to
the worker, and the subsequent increase in employee output and
satisfaction. This discovery remains relevant today. Paying attention
to the worker is basic to determining worker needs and practicing
effective behavior modification. There are a number of different
rewards that can be used in satisfying employees' needs and encourag-
ing their productivity (Table 1) (45).

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Table 1. Fourteen rewards.

various rewards
1. Praise
a. job-relevant
b. non-job-relevant
2. Public recognition
3. Job security
4. Money
5. Fringe benefits
6. Employee development programs
a. job enrichment
b. personality/leadership development
c. mental and physical health
7. Employee involvement in decision making
8. Leisure time
9. Feedback
10. Social participation
11. Company spirit (pride)
12. Opportunity to achieve and advance in the organization
13. Degrees of freedom at work
14. Pleasant forms of moderate distraction

According to Skinner, people behave in a certain way because they have learned at some previous time that certain behaviors are associated with positive outcomes and that others are associated with negative outcomes. Further, people prefer pleasant outcomes and are likely to avoid behaviors with unpleasant consequences. For example, foodservice workers may be likely to follow the rules and policies of the organization because they have learned during previous experiences at home, at school, or elsewhere that disobedience leads to punishment (2).

Other theories and models

With the aim to better understand job satisfaction, theories and models have been developed and much research has been conducted. Ackerman and Grunwald suggested an investment model of motivation wherein the employee is the investor and the manager is the investment adviser for the employee. This model is easier for a manager to deal with than satisfiers and dissatisfiers. It is not reasonable to expect all managers to respond to each individual employee's needs (57).

Grant developed the Effort Net Return (ENR) model of modification which claims that "An employee will seek to exert an amount of effort that maximizes satisfaction." This model works as the "law of diminishing returns." An employee may not produce at potential because doing so means effort expenditure. Increase in effort could mean increased cost of production caused by stress, fatigue, boredom, etc. associated with the increase (58).

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Economically, the organization is faced with the problems of retaining high performers to prevent high rate of turnover. Ginsberg suggested that an individual should be constantly put on the "learning curve" to be productive and suggested seven factors for its attainment including breadth and depth information, type of task, and new knowledge acquired through education, training, seminars and conferences (59).

More applicable to foodservice systems is a model conceptualized by Hopkins et al. regarding job performance and job satisfaction which revealed higher performers had higher job satisfaction and higher organizational identity (2). Since higher performers are assumed to produce more, there is great attention given to this segment of the workforce.

One major concept in the effective ethical use of behavior control on the job is the creation of the ++ (plus-plus) relationship (45). The ++ (also called win-win) relationship refers to the establishment of a work environment whereby the needs of management and labor are both fulfilled: specifically, it is an environment where productivity (management goal) and satisfaction of personal needs (employee goal) coexist (Figure 6).

Management should strive to create the ++ (win-win) relationship, leading to the greatest worker productivity and satisfaction. The +- (win-lose) and -+ (lose-win) relationships can occur for short periods of time, but they create imbalances between the needs of management and labor, usually resulting in the development of a -- condition. This lose-lose relationship occurs, sadly, all too often

Condition	Management	Labor	Result
"Plus-Plus" High job productivity High need satisfaction	+	+	"Win-Win"
"Plus-Minus" Low job productivity Low need satisfaction	+	-	"Win-Lose"
"Minus-Plus" Low job productivity High need satisfaction	-	+	"Lose-Win"
"Minus-Minus" Low job productivity Low need satisfaction	-	-	"Lose-Lose"

Figure 6. Four possible relationships that occur in the workplace.

in the present-day workplace. It should be eliminated if business is
to survive.

The bottom line is clear: humanism and productivity are not
incompatible. Industry can no longer afford to squander its human
resources. It must learn to improve the morale and productivity of
the workers to effectively compete from a position of strength in the
new world economy (45).

Foodservice Labor Turnover

General concerns

Labor shortage. The U.S. is beginning to run out of workers.
That may sound strange at a time when the nation's unemployment rate

hovers at a lofty seven percent. Nonetheless, population statistics show that the labor supply pipeline is now receiving fewer and fewer young people, a trend that will last another decade. Personnel managers need to be aware of this and begin now to prepare for the coming labor shortage (60).

The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), a division of the Department of Labor, expects the civilian labor force to reach 129 million in 1995, up almost 12 percent from 115.5 million in 1985. However, these figures reflect a sharp slowdown in growth that began in the late 1970s. In the 1990-95 period, the labor force will be increasing by only 1.3 million persons per year. That compares to a peak gain of 3.2 million in 1977-78 (5).

The growth trend will be dominated by the movement of the massive baby-boom generation into the prime working ages of 25 to 54. Between 1985 and 1995, this age bracket alone will swell by 19 million to nearly 97 million people. Conversely, the ranks of those aged 16 to 24 will shrink nearly 20.2 million by 1995, a sharp reversal for the 16 to 24 group, which had increased by 4.9 percent a year during 1970-75. Put most graphically, those born in 1957, the highwater mark for births, will be 38 years old in 1995 (61).

Several other interesting trends show up in the BLS projections. Women will account for about 60 percent of the total growth in the labor supply to 1995. This reflects both growth in the female population and their increased rate of participation in the work force. The older work force, aged 55 and over, is due to contract substantially, a trend begun in the 1980s. The projection incorporates

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some growth in the underlying population of those 55 and above. However, the participation of this segment in the labor pool has been dropping.

Implications are momentous. There will be a need to adopt entirely new attitudes about work and working conditions. New laws and institutional arrangements will be necessary to ensure the vitality of our economy. New technology and management techniques will be needed to stretch the labor resources available (62).

In adopting new ideas within our organizations, a better under-standing of how to keep our present employees must be developed. Job satisfaction must be improved for the employee who wants to pursue a life-long career.

Foodservice studies. Schwab and Cummings (29) stated that the hypothesized connection between employee satisfaction and job performance has served to generate research and theoretical interest in job satisfaction. From an extensive review of literature, they summarized the major points of view concerning this relationship to be: (a) satisfaction leads to performance, (b) satisfaction-performance is moderated by a number of variables, and (c) performance leads to satisfaction. Schwab and Cummings concluded that satisfaction and performance, studied alone or together, are associated with a large number of covariates. They suggested that even recent theoretical work has not accounted for a sufficient number of variables which may influence the strength and direction of the relationship between satisfaction and performance.

Burley (63) suggested that the consequences of the industrializa-
tion of foodservice needs further study. He contended that in order to
increase productivity, the industry must concern itself with better
working conditions, enlightened cooperative management practices, joint
labor-management productivity committees, improved industrial rela-
tions, adequate compensation to compete with other industries, and a
redefinition of service without sacrificing the intangible aspects of
fulfilling human needs.

Hopkins (64) compared job satisfaction of school foodservice
workers with the satisfaction of hospital workers in Martin and Vaden's
(15) study. Overall the school personnel were more satisfied with
their jobs. Compared with national findings of job satisfaction,
school foodservice workers were satisfied with supervision, promotion,
and co-workers but less satisfied with pay and the work itself.

Martin and Vaden's (15) study of female, nonsupervisory food-
service workers in large urban hospitals showed that employees with
less than six months and those with more than three years tenure were
more job satisfied than the six month to three year group. Comparing
their findings with those of Swartz and Vaden (66), they found that
employees from large institutions tended to place higher value on
material objects and believed it was more important to see the results
of one's own work and to develop a person's own special abilities.

Calbeck et al. (67) investigated job satisfaction among hospital
dietitians and found dietitians were more satisfied than workers on
four of five work components: the work itself, supervision, pay, and

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co-workers. Overall satisfaction with the work was also higher among this group of professionals.

Calculation of turnover

Conceptually, turnover refers to situations in which employees terminate their employment. The first step in calculating turnover costs is to obtain accurate and reliable turnover statistics. Generally, most companies maintain the basic raw data necessary to systematically compile turnover statistics (68). Nonetheless, turnover has been measured in at least four ways:

- Number of terminators divided by the labor force times 100;

- Number of hires divided by the labor force times 100;

- Number of terminators plus the number of hired employees divided by twice the labor force times 100;

- Number of terminators minus the departures of temporary employees divided by the labor force times 100.

Turnover rate. Various formulas are presented in the literature designed to calculate turnover rates. Those cited include the "British wastage rate" (24) determined as follows:

$$W = L/N * 100$$

W = Wastage
L = The number of leavers in a three month period
N = The number of survivors from the previous three month period

The U.S. Department of Labor suggests the following formula for computing turnover rates:

$$Rate = \frac{(F+L)/2}{S} * 100$$

F = The number of employees on the first day of the period
L = The number of employees on the last day of the period
S = The number of separations during the period

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As defined by the United States Department of Labor, labor turn-
over is the percentage of the total employees hired in a month; or the
percentage of total employees leaving in a month. Whichever percentage
is smaller is the net turnover rate. To determine the net turnover
rate, the following data must be secured:

- The number of employees at the beginning of the month.
- The number of employees at the end of the month.
- The number of total separations.
- The number of accessions.

The average number of employees is determined by summing the number of
employees at the beginning and end of the month, divided by two. The
percentage of employees leaving in a month is found by dividing the
total separations by the average number of employees; likewise, the
percentage of employees hired is the number of accessions divided by
the average number of employees. If a ten percent monthly rate were
projected, then an annual turnover rate of 120 percent would occur.

A labor turnover rate is considered to be one of the best
measures of a personnel program. A high rate of labor turnover has
been found in the foodservice industry. Hospital foodservice depart-
ments have reported annual separation rates between 61 and 133 percent
(7). Labor costs constitute 60 to 70 percent of a hospital's budget;
thus management has the responsibility to acquire, organize and
develop a stable, loyal work force (6). Both indirect and direct
costs of labor turnover are high. Indirect costs of labor turnover may
be high in terms of loss of goodwill, the level of productivity of
individuals and lowered employee morale, and decreased quality of

product. Indirect costs are more difficult to measure because there
are additional costs in lead time and management time. There is also
the cost of lost productivity reflecting a lag between termination and
replacement of an employee as well as a possible difference in skill
level.

A major problem in many hospitals is the excessive labor turnover
among nonprofessional dietetic personnel. Studies have shown that the
direct costs of labor turnover are high. Direct costs of labor turn-
over include the time, effort and salaries expended in recruiting,
interviewing, reference checking, processing and training new
employees. Gray and Donaldson (7) found that the total direct cost of
labor turnover for one kitchen service employee ranged from $113 to
$165 in 1965. In 1967, replacement of the lowest paid foodservice
employee was estimated conservatively to cost an employer $300 (8).
These costs would be considered proportionately higher at present
salary rates.

Measurement of turnover costs

Turnover costs can be measured as the number of turnovers times
the cost per turnover. While the measurement of turnover is not
difficult to calculate, it does require the systematic collection of
data in a form that management frequently does not have (6). To gain
such data requires the development of procedures to systematically
collect the data and put it in aggregate form so that it can be under-
stood and interpreted. These cost measurements provide a benchmark
for monitoring and measuring the success of a project and processing

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whether or not the intervention has been beneficial. Perhaps more important to the firm is the turnover cost per employment position (68). If turnover in a position is high and if several people occupy it during the year, then the total wage and turnover costs for that position can be extremely large. Although the following data is not foodservice related, it illustrates the magnitude of the problems (Table 2) (68).

Although direct costs can be significant and are discussed at length in the literature, indirect costs can insidiously affect business results. In support of this contention, a 1981 survey of the high-tech industry revealed a ratio of 35 percent for direct costs to 65 percent for indirect costs (69).

Turnover costs represent a very large proportion of total labor costs. Generally turnover costs can be divided into two major categories: direct costs and indirect costs (70). Direct costs reflect recruitment expenses such as advertising, agency, and search fees; travel and relocation expenses; and a recruiter's salary and expenses. Direct costs are relatively easy to measure and are reasonably well-documented in most companies. On the other hand, indirect costs are somewhat more subjective and more difficult to measure. There are additional costs in lead time and management time committed to the hiring process, the pre-hire cost of training and development and the cost of a new employee reaching a desired learning curve or productivity level in production area of foodservice. Finally, there is the cost of lost productivity, reflecting a lag

Table 2. Recent data on labor turnover costs in Canadian companies

study	source	number of workers	total annual turnover cost	components of turnover costs	cost per turnover	turnover cost per employment position
67 Canadian mining companies	MacMillan et al., 1974	29,533 salaried and hourly paid	$11.9 million	separation, hiring, training and breaking-in costs	$1,012	$402
Canadian mining industry	Mining Association of Canada, 1974	120,000 salaried and hourly paid	$48 million	hiring and training	$1,100	$400
International Nickel Co., Thompson, Manitoba	Boydell, 1975	1,300 hourly paid workers	$4.9 million	hiring, training, lost productivity, extra employment, increased maintenance	$3,732	$3,769
Cominco Ltd., Trail, B.C.	Fricker, 1975	2,700 hourly paid workers	$2,133,781	hiring and training costs	$1,963	$790
Galand Ore Co., Atikokan, Ontario	McIntosh, 1975	--	$391,035	separation, hiring and training costs	$2,384	n.a.
Lumber Manufacturers, Pemberton, B.C.	Wedley, 1975	145 hourly paid workers	$341,000	estimate	$1,000	$2,350
two lumber manufacturing plants, Vancouver area	Wedley and Fulton, 1975	1,232 hourly paid	$983,000	estimate	$1,000	$798
national consumer finance firm	Cawsey, Lord and Kudar, 1976	839 account representatives and managers	$1.3 million	selection, training and severance	$1,491 to $4,707	$1,549
two Canadian shoe manufacturers	Portis, 1976	Pierce-rate workers	$400,000	training costs	$400 to $500	n.a.

between termination and replacement of an employee in foodservice organization.

Zimmerman grouped turnover costs into six categories (70):

• Cost incurred when an individual leaves the organization;

• Cost of advertising the position and recruiting and selecting someone for it;

• Cost of new employee orientation and training;

• Cost of equipment under-utilization due to employee absence;

• Cost of lost production due to lack of training.

As mentioned earlier, some of these costs are difficult or even impossible to measure. In particular, the costs of under-utilization of equipment, lost production and lost productivity are difficult to calculate. A more detailed look at Zimmerman's first three costs is given (Table 3) (68). Here the costs are divided into four different categories. For the firm attempting to identify the relevant cost components, each of these individual costs needs to be examined. Some are reasonably easy to cost identify on an aggregate basis, such as interviewing cost per turnover when a full-time interviewer is used.

Causes of turnover

Although there can be many causes of turnover, one can generally find two primary factors: factors not related to the work situation such as personal or family reasons and factors related to the work situation such as work condition (3). Major causes of turnover are listed. Within these two categories, selected factors will be discussed (Table 4).

Table 3. Relevant turnover cost components

recruitment	selection and placement	on-the-job activities	separation
1) Advertising	1) Letter of application	1) Putting person on the job	1) Exit interview
2) College recruiting	2) Application blanks	2) Safety or working equipment	2) Severance pay
3) Employment agency fees	3) Interviewing • Personnel department • Line managers	3) Indoctrination and on-the-job training	3) Extra Social Security
4) Literature • Brochures • Pamphlets	4) Medical examinations	4) Formal training programs • Waste of materials	4) Extra U.I.C. (unemployment)
5) Employee prizes and awards	5) Reference checking	5) Break-in • Increased production • Increased supervision • Increased maintenance • Increased accidents	5) Reduced productivity • Increased waste of materials • Increased maintenance • Loss in productivity of exiting employee • Loss in productivity of colleagues • Increased accidents
6) Public relations activities	6) Psychological testing		
	7) Applicant's travel expenses • Actual travel • Reservations • Conducted tours		
	8) Personnel department overhead		

Table 4. Major factors associated with employee turnover

Personal Factors (not related to work situation per se)

1. Opportunity explosion

2. Impatience

3. Boredom

4. Job jumping for status purposes

5. Money

6. Personal insecurity

7. Age

8. Spouse transferred

9. Illness

Organizational Factors (related to work situation)

1. Inadequate recruitment

2. Inadequate control

3. Lack of motivation

4. Confused organization structure

5. Poor training

6. Lack of opportunity for advancement

7. Poor teamwork

8. Lack of succession planning and management development

9. Inappropriate management philosophy

10. Unclear aims

11. Unfair rewards

Personal factors. There are many factors that could trigger an employee's intention to leave the organization. The most common personal factors affecting turnover are: the opportunity explosion, impatience and boredom, job jumping, money, personal insecurity, and age. In the foodservice industry, the most common reason for turnover is a combination of labor-intensive work and low pay.

In the early days of the United States, the average citizen could probably enumerate the kinds of jobs available. Today, nobody could identify the more than 35,000 job classifications listed in the U.S. Department of Labor's "Dictionary of Occupational Titles" (71). This expansion of available jobs provided a much broader opportunity structure for those seeking employment. Greater opportunity for employment and job changes can be related to turnover rates.

Impatience is the second major cause of employee turnover. It is important to give ambitious employees somewhere to go within the company. If this is not done, capable and/or assertive employees may seek employment elsewhere. This is a problem both for large and small companies. Another major cause of turnover in foodservice is boredom. Boredom results when a job lacks challenge or meaningful activity. Boredom is a personal reaction to the structure of work. When it occurs, an employee may respond by quitting or taking another job.

The assumption is made that "job jumping" is a matter of money when it is actually a matter of status. Salary alone used to be a fairly reliable status symbol, but is no longer a sole criterion. Studies over the past ten years show that the pay gap between middle and upper management is narrowing rapidly (72). Job hunters may not

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always be looking for better pay, bigger titles, or broader authority. Instead they may be after "a piece of the action," and some assurance that what they are doing is really important to the organization (73). If this is not provided within the work setting, the employee will often leave. When money is the key factor in a job change, and not just a convenient excuse, it's usually a matter of necessity.

Historically, wages have been a sore point for foodservice employees. For the most part employees have been underpaid and over-worked. Most of the foodservice industry's young employees are only paid minimum wages and given little or no other benefits and/or incentives. Therefore it is no great wonder why they are eager to leave when given the appropriate opportunity (75).

Another patent reason for job turnover is personal insecurity. Ever since Frank and Lillian Gilbreth introduced time and motion studies back in 1911, factory workers have feared the person with a notebook and stopwatch who goes around improving efficiency. In the early 1960s the efficiency expert invaded the office, calling himself a management consultant and bringing with him a powerful new management tool, the computer, and the systems approach (24). Its general effect not only augments efficiency, but also speeds up the process of change in organizations (33). Often the most conscientious employees are the most frightened of change. They have toiled hardest to make the old system work smoothly; so the new system comes as a shock. They feel personally threatened which may lead to turnover.

Age is also a major cause of turnover, although not always for obvious reasons. While most job changes occur before 40, some occur

after that age. For younger people, the inevitable process of trial and error which helps the person find a new life experience (some speak of a midlife crisis) may lead employees to seek new settings. Another factor contributing to turnovers includes the transferral of a spouse to a new job or new location and may be reason for an employee leaving a position. Illness also can be a factor in job turnover.

Organizational factors. Organizational factors play a major role in the cause for turnover in the organization. The most common organizational factors affecting turnover are: inadequate recruitment, inadequate control, lack of motivation, confused organization, poor training, lack of opportunity for advancement, poor teamwork, lack of succession planning and management development, inappropriate manage-ment philosophy, unclear aims, unfair rewards.

Inadequate recruitment can be a major cause of turnover in the organization (72). The ultimate goal of the selection process is to match the right person to the right job. The costs to industry of hiring the wrong person are high. A variety of procedures can be used to assess the skills, knowledge, temperament, and motivations of the applicant in an attempt to prevent costly mis-hires. Inadequate recruitment can mean that the organization does not do a good job of matching the requirements of the job with the skills of the potential employee or that not enough organizational resources are committed to the recruitment process.

Inadequate control and confused organization structure are similar in nature and are often responsible for turnover. Inadequate control occurs when lines of authority and scope of control are not

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clearly defined within the organizational structure, resulting in confusion and low morale among employees (16). Confused organizational structure such as the inadequate role delineation, lack of clear job descriptions, conflicting goals of supervision, unclear chain of command, poor communication in an organization may lead to role conflict and confusion for employees since they do not know who is the boss.

Lack of opportunity for advancement may cause employees to become disheartened. The organization may attract good people but then fail to adequately train those people to do their jobs. Both of these factors can cause turnover either independently or dependently. Teamwork must also be supported by the company (21). If a company is to be successful, it must be able to develop coordination among various departments and units. When employees do not have a sense of teamwork, they may become quite unhappy and leave the job.

Management's philosophy and bureaucracy also affect turnover. Every organization must develop its goals. It is management's responsibility to see that these goals are achieved (73). When the management style and philosophy is inconsistent with or inappropriate for its goals, problems will arise. For example, while a university must be fiscally responsible and accountable, its basic educational goals make a management philosophy which is quite appropriate for running business inappropriate for achieving university goals. Where goals or aims of the organization are unclear, much confusion about organizational direction can occur (73). A lack of direction can produce turnover since employees need a sense of meaning in order to

contribute to the organization. Additionally, an employee's ability to act creatively may often be impaired by a top-heavy bureaucracy. Departmental managers may be asked to institute certain procedures which they know will not be effective. When alternative suggestions are offered, these ideas frequently get lost in bureaucratic channels, inevitably leading to friction.

Inequitable distribution of rewards can create conflict in an organization and such conflict can be a key factor in turnover. Howell and Stewart (74) obtained data from a survey of former employees who had voluntarily quit their jobs at two different hospitals. The study endeavored to discern the reasons why hospital employees relinquish their jobs. A summary of the responses given by the respondents were identified (Table 5) (20).

The National Restaurant Association conducted a survey of all types of people and found that 75 to 85 percent of them had once worked in the foodservice industry, an incredible statistic. Considering the size of the industry and the number of entry-level, part-time, temporary, summer and vacation jobs, and the teenagers, college students, moonlighters, temporaries, and fill-in workers who are working in these jobs at any given time, it is a believable statistic. Foodservice is an industry largely staffed by part-time, short-term employees. They are "only working here until"--until they get out of high school, until they get enough money for college, until they get married, until they get pregnant, until they move, etc. Furthermore, if asked, 75% would say that their work is unrewarding and meaningless and that they would rather be someplace else (75).

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Table 5. Summary of write-in responses regarding reasons for quitting for hospitals A and B

reasons for termination	percentage*		
	nonprofessional	professional	average
factors not related to work situation			
spouse transferred	17.4	17.3	17.4
pregnancy	9.5	9.3	9.4
return to school	14.2	4.0	8.7
family and personal problems	9.6	6.6	8.0
total	50.6	37.2	43.0
factors related to work situation			
salary	19.0	14.5	16.7
supervision	7.9	13.3	10.9
hours	6.3	10.5	8.7
lack of opportunity for advancement	4.7	10.6	8.0
working conditions	0.0	9.3	5.1
other	11.5	4.6	7.1
total	49.4	62.4	56.5
grand total	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Percentages are expressed in relation to all responses. Where more than one reason was given for quitting, each was tabulated separately.

Most turnover comes in the first seven days of employment. If workers stay seven days, they may stay 30 days, and if they stay that long, there's a chance they will stay longer. People who leave during the first seven days often do so because no one told them what to do and how to do it. Yet employers commonly cite high turnover as the reason they do not spend the time and money needed to train new personnel. It is a "which comes first, the chicken or the egg" situation, a vicious cycle. A study of hotel and restaurant personnel

in the New Orleans area by E.C. Nebel (76) found that 35 percent of the hourly workers surveyed had had two hours or less in which to learn the job they were currently doing. Most had had little or no formal training, but learned by watching someone else do the job for a short time or by working the job under close supervision for a few hours.

Controlling of turnover

Effective management can help control turnover in foodservice organizations (24). In this context, control means: (a) encouraging turnover where it will have net positive consequences; (b) seeking to minimize turnover where it will have negative consequences. Management responses to turnover must be based on diagnosis and evaluation of the causes and consequences of turnover in the context of the foodservice organization. The processes by which individuals choose and are chosen for job offer a number of important opportunities for more effective turnover management in foodservice organizations.

The organizational entry process is one of matching the individual and organization (77). This matching is based on individual abilities, relative to job requirements, and individual values, preferences and expectations relative to organizational norms, policies, practices, rewards and conditions. If this matching process is to be effective, both the individual and the organization must be actively involved, so that new employees have accurate information and realistic expectations. Realistic recruitment and selection can enhance the matching process, increase satisfaction and reduce voluntary turnover.

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Unfortunately, turnover average, although useful as an indicator, can become a form of concealment when not examined carefully. In this regard, "Megatrends" author John Naisbitt described "sunrise/sunset economics" in which both economic prosperity and depression occur simultaneously (62). When the two phenomena were averaged, they equalled only a recession. The result obviously fell short of describing the serious impact of the situation on some areas.

Likewise, there is a sunrise/sunset effect of turnover. Extreme conditions, both favorable and unfavorable, can occur in different areas of the same organization, but when they are averaged together, reality can be obscured. Therefore, managers must determine which parts of the organization have the highest turnover rates and are therefore priorities for improvement (70).

It is important to take into account the employee point of view. By being sensitive to employee needs and dissatisfactions, managers are often in a position to make adjustments which can then help to reduce turnover in foodservice industry. Given the multiple causes and consequences of turnover, no single policy, practice or procedure will be sufficient or always appropriate. Effective management of turnover requires examination of the entire human resource management process, including recruitment, selection, early socialization, job design, compensation, supervision, career planning, working conditions and schedules. What is required is regular and systematic diagnosis of turnover, specification and implementation of multiple strategies, and evaluation of the utility or the cost-benefit of turnover and turnover management strategies (16).

The manager must be able to diagnose the nature and probable determinants of turnover in his/her organization (25). He/she must be able to assess the probable individual and organizational consequences of various types of turnover, design and implement policies, practices and programs for effectively dealing with turnover. Also he/she must be able to evaluate the effectiveness of changes, and anticipate further changes required to effectively manage turnover in a dynamic world (Table 6) (25).

Table 6. A management perspective of the turnover process
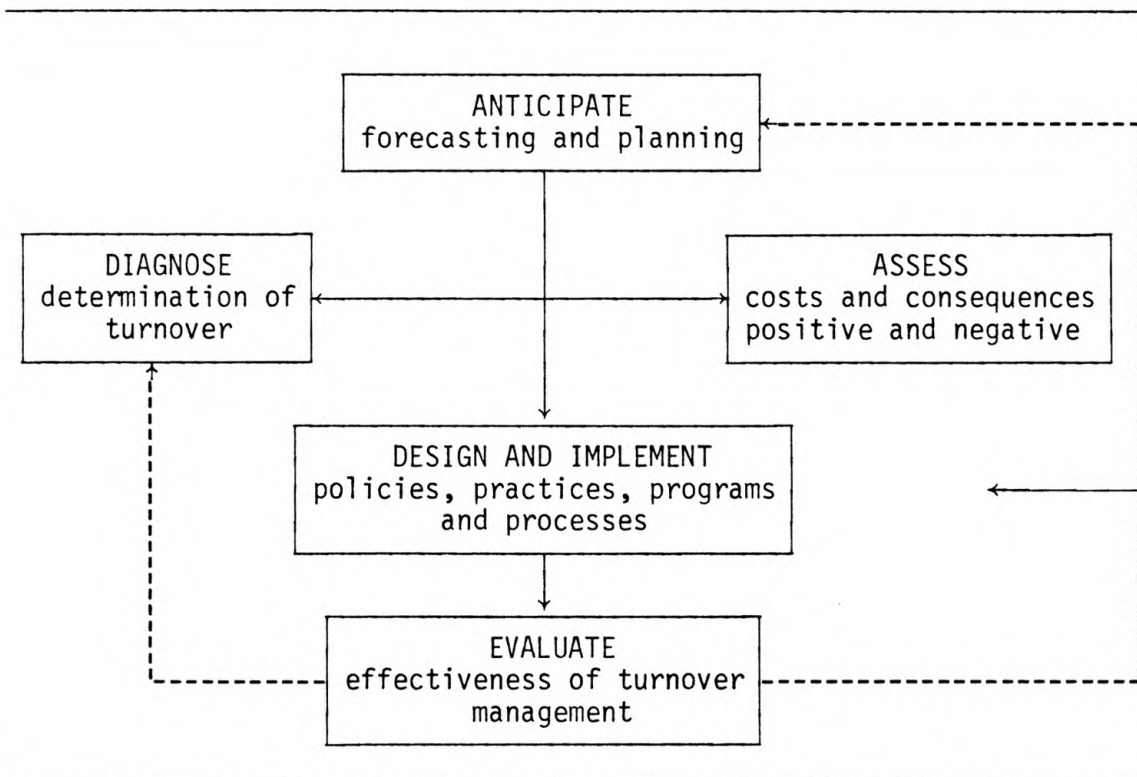
By knowing the causes and minimizing them, turnover can be reduced. According to Snelling (72), the following practices will help reduce turnover in foodservice organization:

- Increased emphasis on careful selection and placement of employees.

- Recognition of ambitions and giving recognition and added responsibility.

- Assignment of enough work at or above the ability of the employee, checking work loads and training for challenging assignments.

- Provision of equal remuneration for burden and responsibility.

- Discussion of advantages of changes or new systems.

- Pointing out of the advantages of self-motivation if restlessness occurs.

Taxonomy of turnover

Generally, turnover is separated into two categories: voluntary and involuntary. Attempts to reduce turnover focuses on voluntary turnover as the dependent variable. In the traditional taxonomy, the organization's evaluation of the departing employee is ignored. In the expanded taxonomy, however, the evaluation of that employee is crucial. The expanded taxonomy includes two different kinds of "voluntary" turnover: functional and dysfunctional voluntary turnover (Figure 7) (77). Clearly the effects of these employee separations on the organization would be quite different. The benefits of functional turnover are disregarded. Consequently, an important objective is to separate dysfunctional from functional turnover. Termination of a high-quality employee represents dysfunctional turnover.

A comparison of the graphics illustrates a fundamental difference in the interpretation of turnover in the organization. The first graphic is representative of traditional approach to measuring and

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Traditional Taxonomy

Organization's Evaluation of
Individual

	+	-
No Initiation of Voluntary Turnover	Employee Remains a	Employee is Terminated b
Initiation of Voluntary Turnover	Employee Quits c	

Individual's Evaluation of Organization

Expanded Taxonomy

Organization's Evaluation of
Individual

	+	-
No Initiation of Voluntary Turnover	Employee Remains a	Employee is Terminated b
Initiation of Voluntary Turnover	Employee Quits ????? Dysfunctional Turnover c	Employee Quits ????? Functional Turnover d

Individual's Evaluation of Organization

Figure 7. A comparison of turnover taxonomies

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reporting turnover. Each cell represents a condition of the employment relationship between an employee and the organization.

1. Cell a illustrates a condition in which the organization is positively disposed toward the individual and the individual is similarly disposed toward the organization.

2. In cell b the individual would like to maintain the employment relation. However, the organization is not so inclined. In this situation, the organization will terminate (fire) the employee.

3. Cell c illustrates the condition in which the employee does not wish to continue the employment relation and resigns. This cell represents "voluntary" turnover.

In the second graphic, the voluntary turnover sector is divided into two cells: c and d. This is a very important distinction. The bottom sections of both graphics represent voluntary turnover and the numerical count of individuals in this category in both cases would be identical. In other words, the reported level of turnover would be the same.

The impact of that turnover on the organization, however, is not identical and may not be remotely related. Cell c represents the condition in which the employee wants to terminate the employment relation but the employer has a positive evaluation of the employee. It may be that such voluntary turnover is dysfunctional to the organization. Cell d represents an entirely different situation. It is hard to argue that individuals in cell d represent dysfunctional

turnover; indeed, it can be argued that they represent functional turnover to the organization.

Staw suggests that the implicit assumption has been that turnover is an important organizational problem that is costly and should be reduced. It is notable, and arguably presumptive evidence, that nearly all previous research has correlated independent variables with measures of turnover and tested for significant differences from zero (78).

Although it is true that turnover traditionally has been thought of as dysfunctional to the organization, there is some discussion that turnover may actually benefit both the individual and the organization.

Staw identifies three hypothetical functional relationships. He suggests that the "traditional" perspective assumes that performance of a new employee will initially be low, will accelerate, and eventually reach a plateau--that is a J-shape function. For positions that are stressful, physically demanding or include rapidly changing technology and jobs requiring the constant acquisition of knowledge, an inverted-U performance curve may be more descriptive. Some jobs, especially service-oriented ones, may be characterized by high early performance and subsequent "burnout" (Figure 8). He also argues that most jobs are characterized by inverted U-performance curves and that greater attention should be devoted to studying the tenure and per-formance relationship so that the appropriate rate of turnover can be identified (78).

Strong generalizations of the positive consequences associated with turnover are not possible given the dearth of empirical research. However, some particular statements about the possible positive

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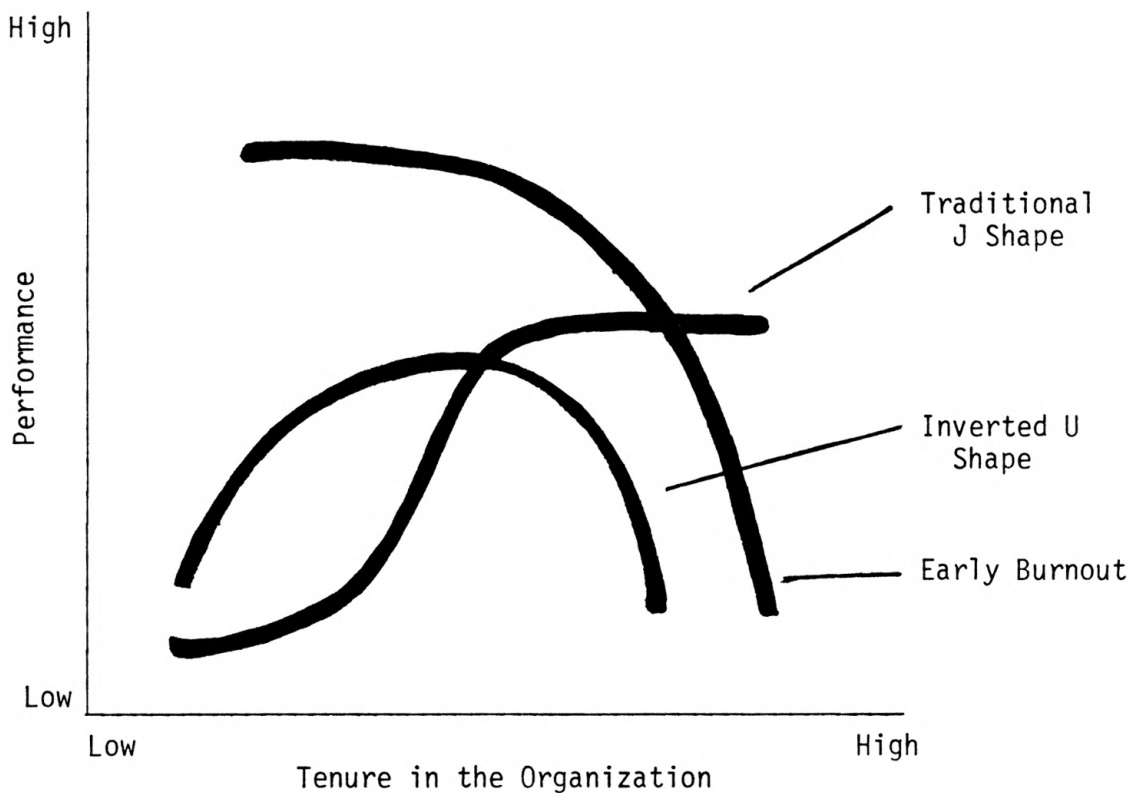
Figure 8. Hypothetical performance curves.

organizational consequences associated with turnover can be made:

- The displacement of poor performers;
- An infusion of new knowledge/technology through replacements;
- The stimulation of changes in policies and practices;
- An increase in internal mobility opportunities;
- An increase in structural flexibility;
- An increase in satisfaction among those who stay;
- A decrease in other withdrawal behaviors;
- Opportunities for cost reduction and consolidation.

These points illustrate that, while the cost of turnover may be large,

the other side of the coin must also be examined to responsibly assess the effects of turnover. The dollar value of many beneficial elements are of course very difficult, if not impossible, to calculate. An increase in internal mobility, for example, has important benefits for the organization. When senior employees leave an organization for any reason, their jobs are likely to be filled by those below them in line for promotion. It can be persuasively argued that departure of senior employees may lead to positive organizational consequences. Dalton (25) insists that employee turnover may not only infuse new life into the organization but also earn it some hard-dollars benefits.

Assessment Tools for Satisfaction/Turnover

Assessment is defined as the process of estimating or determining the value. Tools are defined as instruments used to get something done (79). According to Schiller and Bartlett (80), data for administrative audits may be obtained from observation of activities; from various forms, records, and reports; from evaluation of food products; and from administrative surveys and questionnaires. These forms, records, reports, and surveys can be referred to as assessment tools.

Fenwick and Vaden (81) prepared an observational checklist as an assessment tool for consulting dietitians. The California Dietetic Association listed tools for use in health care foodservices to include resources such as state and local health departments, professional organizations, the department of agriculture, community agencies, and the food and drug administration. Other assessment tools in the consulting process have included menu evaluation forms,

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food production schedule forms, and job descriptions. There are several survey forms to evaluate the employee's performance of their job. However, the most commonly used are the Job Diagnostic Survey and Job Characteristics Inventory.

Job Diagnostic Survey (Appendix A)

Many studies have been conducted using the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) developed by Hackman et al. (82). The JDS is used to diagnose the nature of "people problems." The JDS provides measures of all variables contained in the Hackman et al. theory with the exception of worker performance, absenteeism, and labor turnover.

The JDS is comprised of seven sections designed to measure job dimensions, critical psychological states, affective responses for general and specific job satisfaction, internal work motivation, and individual growth strength. In addition, a motivating potential score (MPS) is computed from the job dimensions scores and provides an index that reflects the overall potential of a job to prompt high internal work motivation on the part of job incumbents. Two sections were added to the JDS to measure the employee's reaction to the physical environment in the workplace. Biographical information on the sex, age, and length of employment is also requested. A total of 83 items are presented on a Likert-type scale in addition to three biographical items and 12 items on physical environment. The number of items range from as few as six in some sections to as many as 15 in one section.

Job dimensions. The five core job dimension scores are obtained from items in sections I and II. Sections I and II also provide scores

for feedback from agents and dealing with others. These two dimensions have been found to be helpful in understanding jobs and employee reactions to them.

Critical psychological states. Scores for the three critical psychological states, experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for work outcomes, and knowledge of results are obtained from sections III and V of the JDS.

Affective reactions: general satisfaction and internal work motivation. Sections III and V items also assess general satisfaction and internal work motivation. The items for these scales were inter-mixed with those for critical psychological states, as previously described.

Affective reactions: specific satisfaction. Five specific satisfaction scores are obtained from section IV of the JDS to measure satisfaction with specific aspects of the jobs.

Individual growth need strength. Sections VI and VII measure the respondents' growth need strength using two types of formats: a "would like" format and a "job choice" format.

Employee reactions to physical environment. Scores for the four employee reactions to physical environment (i.e., physical work, temperature, lighting, and noise) are obtained from sections VIII and IX added to the JDS.

Hackman and Lawler (83) suggested four core dimensions for jobs: variety, task identity, autonomy, and feedback. They found each one positively related to internal work motivation, general job satisfaction, and job involvement. Hackman et al. later developed a job

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characteristics theory identifying five core dimensions of a job: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. The job characteristics model illustrates relationship between these five core job dimensions, three critical psychological states of workers, and possible beneficial personal outcomes or affective responses and positive work outcomes. The model also shows how these relationships are moderated by individual growth need strength (Figure 9).

| CORE JOB DIMENSIONS | → | CRITICAL PSYCHOLOGICAL STATES | → | PERSONAL AND WORK OUTCOMES |

Skill variety

Task identity

Task significance

⎫
⎬ → Experienced meaningfulness of the work
⎭

High internal work motivation

High quality work performance

Autonomy ⟶ Experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work

High satisfaction with the work

Feedback ⟶ Knowledge of the actual results of the work activities

Low absenteeism and turnover

EMPLOYEE GROWTH-- NEED STRENGTH

Figure 9. Hackman et al. job characteristics model.

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The Hackman et al. theory is a strategy for the design of jobs. There are three critical psychological states: experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for the work outcomes, and knowledge of the results of actual work activities. These psychological states are a function of the job characteristics. Experienced meaningfulness includes workers' perceptions that work is worthwhile relative to their values. Experienced responsibility involves the workers' beliefs that they are responsible for the outcomes of their efforts. Knowledge of results relates to the ability of workers to determine whether or not outcomes are satisfactory. If the resultant data indicate job redesign is appropriate, Hackman proposes five implementing concepts; (a) forming natural work units, (b) combining tasks, (c) establishing client relationship, (d) loading jobs vertically, and (e) opening feedback channels (Figure 10).

Job Characteristics Inventory

Sims et al. (84) developed and tested the Job Characteristics Inventory (JCI), an instrument paralleling the Job Diagnostic Survey. Results of studies in a medical center and a manufacturing firm demonstrated the reliability and validity of the instrument. The job characteristics measured by the JCI include the six original dimensions of the Hackman and Lawler (83) work: (a) four core dimension: variety, autonomy, task identity, and feedback; and (b) two interpersonal dimensions: dealing with others and friendship opportunities. Keller et al. (85) found that the core dimensions of the JCI were related positively to intrinsic job satisfaction and that the

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IMPLEMENTING CONCEPTS	CORE JOB DIMENSIONS	CRITICAL PSYCHOLOGICAL STATES	PERSONAL AND WORK OUTCOMES

Combining tasks → Skill variety

Forming natural work units → Task identity

→ Task significance

Experienced meaningfulness of the work

High internal work motivation

Establishing client relationships → Autonomy

Experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work

High-quality work performance

Vertical loading

High satisfaction with the work

→ Feedback

Knowledge of the actual results of the work activities

Low absenteeism and turnover

Opening feedback channels

EMPLOYEE GROWTH-- NEED STRENGTH

Figure 10. Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics model with implementing concepts.

interpersonal dimensions were positively related to socially-derived satisfactions.

With both the JDS and the JCI available, the opportunity exists for comparative studies of job dimensionality using both instruments. Pierce and Dunham (86) combined the two instruments and administered the questionnaire to 155 insurance company employees to compare the dimensionality and internal consistency of the JDS and the JCI. The JCI was found to be superior to the JDS. Pierce and Dunham proposed that the difference may be due to format differences or positioning of the measurement items in the questionnaire. Also, they indicated that their study included a relatively small sample. These researchers did not offer a preference for the JCI but did suggest use of multiple methods in job design research. Taber et al. (87) also recommended multiple approaches to job design. This research showed that a significant relationship existed between objectively measured job properties and perceived job characteristics. The perceived characteristics were related more strongly to satisfaction and motivation variables. Hackman et al. (82) concluded that evaluative measures such as the JDS can "red flag" possible dysfunctional situations. Descriptive procedures such as activity analysis, critical incidents reports, motion analysis, and human factors assessments also can be employed to diagnose jobs more completely.

Job design and foodservice organizations

The term "job design" has been used to encompass job enrichment, job enlargement, job restructuring, and work reform. According to

Kast and Rosenzweig (88) the goal of job design is to enhance productivity and performance, and to improve the quality of an employee's job satisfaction and working life. Sirota and Wolfson (89) interpreted job enrichment as the redesign of a job to provide a worker with greater responsibility, more autonomy in carrying out that responsibility, closure or a complete job, and more timely feedback about performance.

Herzberg (90) described job enrichment as providing opportunities for the employee to grow psychologically, whereas job enlargement makes a job structurally bigger. Both job enrichment and job enlargement are ways for job expansion. Job enlargement provides for horizontal loading or increasing the tasks, while job enrichment involves vertical loading of job which increases motivating factors.

Shaffer (91) studied the characteristics of jobs designed for conventional and more highly technical (cook-chill/cook-freeze) hospital foodservice systems by sampling 270 nonsupervisory foodservice workers in five conventional and four highly technical systems. Results from the JDS indicated that jobs in conventional and highly technical foodservice systems did not differ greatly from each other. The design of specific jobs, however, did not have significantly positive effects on personal and work outcomes. Cashiers, cooks, dietetic clerks, and storeroom workers showed higher personal and work outcomes than did general foodhandlers.

Knickrehm et al. (92) conducted a study to show how the time log reporting system was utilized to determine the menu's effect on the labor time of managers, and total labor in school foodservice. Time

for preparation tasks differed significantly depending on the day of the week. This study indicated that managers, the highest paid school foodservice employees, actually spent the greatest percentage of their work hours in the more complex decision-making activities of the foodservice operation.

The way in which jobs are designed and work is structured has a significant effect on employees' level of motivation and productivity. The historical approach that has been taken to designing jobs was primarily mechanistic, based mostly on principles and concepts of industrial engineering. The result has been that jobs, in many cases, have been reduced to their least common denominator, in that they are highly specialized and require only a minimum degree of skill. It should be emphasized that this highly structured approach to designing work is true not only of professional jobs but also of clerical, semiprofessional, and nonprofessional work (93). The stages in job design to create more meaningful work is illustrated in Figure 11.

I. Industrial Engineering
   (a) Specialization
   (b) Simplification
   (c) Standardization
   (d) Interchangeable labor
   Results: Productivity increases per worker
            Worker dissatisfaction
            Employee turnover
            Productivity decreases (in some cases)

II. First Aid Measures
   (a) More time off
   (b) Job rotation
   (c) Remove difficult parts of job
   (d) Assign more tasks
   Results: Alienated workers
            Rotation sometimes helpful

III. Job Enlargement
   (a) Vary task
   (b) Provide meaningful work modules
   (c) Provide performance feedback
   (d) Utilize more abilities
   (e) Allow worker-paced control
   Results: Improved satisfaction and productivity for nonprofes-
               sionals on some jobs
            Higher level needs still unsatisfied
            Production costs may increase

IV. Job Enrichment
   (a) Share managerial work with employee
   (b) Enlarge job vertically
   (c) Grant additional authority
   (d) Allow some employee control of the work
   Results: Improved satisfaction and job performance for certain
               personalities
            Some employees reject

V. Contingency Job Design
   (a) Economics
       Automate jobs that must be machine-paced
       Enlarge jobs that must be worker-paced
   (b) Personality
       Match task difficulty with individual readiness of employee
   (c) Organizational factors

Figure 11. Stages in job design.

DISCUSSION

The foodservice industry is labor intensive, having on its payroll
more people than any other industry. It employs so many people because
it is still a "handicraft" industry, often fashioning products on
customer demand. Perishable and non-perishable foods are its major
means for providing tangible benefits to the customer, and unfortu-
nately, these are short lived. The foodservice industry is character-
ized by low productivity and high turnover. A reason for the high labor
turnover rate is that the industry fails to provide avenues for career
advancement. Other reasons are lack of recognition and low pay. Many
studies have indicated that pay is not the only answer. The key is for
management to recognize the important role of the employee. Employees
should be made to feel a part of the organization. In turn the
employee can be inspired to be more productive.

In 1984, the National Restaurant Association (NRA) estimated that
the foodservice industry employed approximately eight million persons.
A total of 250,000 new persons must enter the industry each year to
meet this need, 25,000 of which will be required to fill management
and supervisory positions. The foodservice industry is also the
single largest employer of young people. Nearly one-fourth of all its
workers are between 16-19 years of age as compared to a nine percent
level of teenage employment throughout the total national workforce
(75).

The result of this escalating need and inability to provide
proper training and incentives is that the foodservice industry

encourages turnover. Most of the foodservice industry's young employees are only paid minimum wage and given little or no other benefits and incentives. Therefore, it is no great wonder why these young people are eager to leave when given the opportunity. Even middle management salaries have barely kept pace with inflation and these people, too, continue to search for better positions. Top management needs to recognize that young people have great potential and should recruit them as future supervisors. At the same time, more incentives should be provided for middle management.

Research studies support the theory that factors leading to satisfaction or dissatisfaction are different. The relationship between an attitude and the behavior of the employee has been a topic of research since these concepts were introduced. This research is important because of the increased knowledge that may be obtained and further applied to organizations, hence improving effectiveness. The purpose of such research is to obtain a general picture of the level of morale in a given organization. Research also makes employees feel that management is interested in them and their opinions about the operation of the organization. Both employee and organization stand to gain more if closer interaction exists.

If something beyond good wages, fringe benefits and working conditions are added, many of the problems employees face can be avoided. Little things, for example, complimenting performance are of value in human relations, compliments cannot substitute for good pay. In the U.S. Department of Commerce survey of management and employee, good pay, job security, promotion and growth were not the only

concerns. Employees rated full appreciation of work performed and feeling "in" on things highest, followed by sympathetic help on personal problems, job security, and good pay. Levoy stated that today's employer should place increased emphasis on psychological factors such as a feeling of family, recognition, appreciation, and self-expression. This requires employee-oriented supervision (EOS), a sensitivity to individual needs and ambitions (74). Levoy found that the main cause of low staff morale was not usually a lack of concern, but the unwillingness of management to communicate with the employee.

Researchers have suggested that the workers stay home because they do not like their jobs and do not believe they make an important contribution to their work situation. Simple routine jobs with little variation offer little hope for the future. Shorter work hour shifts, such as three-twelve hour shifts or four-ten hour shifts, have been suggested to improve employee satisfaction. Although these methods have been instrumental in reducing absenteeism and turnover, the role management plays constitutes the most significant factor in reducing turnover.

A high level of employee turnover is a symptom of a deeper problem, often managerial in origin. When management recognizes this and attempts to overcome the problem, a positive situation can result. The secret of success of any system appears to be more in management's commitment to do a better job than in the mechanics of the system.

Management is in large part problem-solving and decision-making. In dealing with problems, the manager would do well to keep in mind an

old adage, "If you are not part of the solution, you are part of the problem." The manager who faces this fact must be aware that there is no simple solution, only intelligent choices. In making these choices the manager needs a basic understanding of people and their motivations. To aid in this understanding, managers should investigate several important problem areas in human behavior: problem solving, motivation, and communication.

The Problem-Solving Process

The problem-solving process is a sequence of steps or an analytical approach which is flexible, adaptable and can be modified to deal with a wide range of problems.

(a) Look at the facts. What is the present situation? Where does it need improvement? What should be left alone? "Problem identification" is the first step. Once facts are sorted out from feelings, beliefs and myths, it is possible no problem actually exists.

(b) Identify the problem. What specifically is preventing you from reaching a desired performance or level of production? A proper identification of the problem is essential to solve the problem.

(c) State the goal in solving the problem. Why does the problem need to be solved and how will you know when it is solved? Review alternatives and select one which will most logically achieve the goal.

(d) Develop a plan of action. Assignments and time lines must be outlined.

(e) Implement the plan of action and check progress toward the goal, making adjustments where needed.

(f) Review what has been done. Have goals been accomplished? Have new problems been created? What needs to be done next?

Motivation

Motivation is an inward force which results in certain behavior, and can be either positive or negative. Inward motivation can be a very strong force, and is often difficult to change. Motivation can be influenced by one or more factors. Motivation in job performance may well be influenced by situations which are completely unrelated to the job. The term "lack of motivation" could be more appropriately called "negative motivation." Because of the very personal nature of motivation, it may be hidden from the eye of the casual observer or distinguished by the employee.

Motivation is not usually responsive to manipulation. Positive motivation can arise when the employee feels genuinely important and a part of the picture. Such feelings usually result from involvement and participation. Management can be most effective by creating an environment which enhances feelings of self worth, involvement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth.

Incentive is an outward influence which causes certain behavior to take place. Incentive is usually thought of in terms of "reward." In many cases incentives can be used to bring about quick changes.

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However, the improvements tend to disappear when the rewards no longer are offered. Sometimes the level of reward must be increased continually to be effective.

Communication

Communication is the keystone to the success of a foodservice organization. Communication is a cycle of activity: sending a message and receiving a message, responding to the message and sending a new message back. Anything less is "noncommunication." Many organizational messages that come across are "station to station" messages. "Person to person" messages tend to be more effective. When company or organizational goals are not in "sync" with individual goals, a communication breakdown may be seen. This may be due to a difference between what a person sees and/or hears, and what a person wants to see and/or hear. Improving communication involves sharpening all these skills: listening, speaking, and reading unspoken messages.

Efforts to correct the fault will be more productive than efforts to lay the blame. Remember, communication is not one-way. Employees will respond more favorably to criticisms and suggestions if they know that they have the opportunity to offer suggestions or respond to criticism. In addition to giving orders and instructions, communication means caring and showing appreciation. When management shows appreciation, everybody wins. Basically, communication within the organization should be personal. It's people working with people to accomplish the goal of the organization.

APPLICATION TO THE FOODSERVICE SYSTEM

Systems theory concentrates on interactions, interrelationship and integration of parts into a whole. According to Luchsinger and Duck (95), a system is a collection of interrelated parts unified by design to obtain one or more objectives. Managerial functions are recognized and the interrelations between the subsystems are stressed. Systems theory also involves the awareness of the variables involved in executing managerial functions so that decisions will be made in light of the effect on the overall organization and its objectives. The systems approach considers the impact factors have upon the organizational system and on the managing process.

The objective of systems theory is to assist managers to plan, organize, and control in an integrated manner. Spears and Vaden (2) define the systems approach as a means of applying relevant concepts from the general systems theory to facilitate understanding of organization theory and management practice. The systems approach, when applied to an organization, provides a manager with a way of thinking about the performance of managerial functions, a method of analysis for problem solving, and a style of management of organizational systems.

Fisher and Nathanson (96) define a system as the assemblage or combination of things or parts such as components, elements, and variables which are so interrelated that a change in any one part will result in a change in one or more other parts and possibly in the overall system output. A model is defined as a simplified, stylized

representation of the real world that abstracts the cause and effect relationship essential to the question studied. The foodservice systems approach provides the means for an orderly model for designing and analyzing a foodservice organization. The foodservice system model in this report was adapted from the foodservice systems model developed at Kansas State University (KSU) (Figure 12).

The foodservice model consists of the following essential elements: the major parts of a system, inputs, transformation, and output, and the additional elements of control, memory, feedback, and environmental factors. A more detailed systems model of a fast food restaurant is provided in this report (Figure 13). In considering transformation, it is important to consider the working conditions under which the transformation is made. This foodservice systems model was adapted to the fast foodservice so that it could be used as a tool to provide a systematic method in developing fast foodservice standards and evaluation topics.

Inputs

According to the KSU model (97), the inputs of the foodservice system are the human, material, and operational resources which are transformed to produce outputs. In foodservice, human resources could be labor and skill, materials include food and supplies, and the operational inputs involve money, time, utilities, and information. Another input, facilities, deals with space and equipment. The input requirements are dependent upon and specified by the objectives and plans of the organization.

CONTROL

Plans (Standing and single-use)
    goals and objectives
    standards
    policies and procedures
    programs

Contracts

Laws and Regulations
    local, state, federal

INPUT

Human
    labor, skill

Materials
    food, supplies

Operational
    money, time,
    utilities,
    information

Facilities
    space,
    equipment

TRANSFORMATION

management
functions

functional
subsystems

linking
processes

OUTPUT

Meals
    quantity
    quality

Clientele
    satisfaction

Financial
    accountability

Personnel
    satisfaction

MEMORY

Records
(Financial, personnel, forecasting)

FEEDBACK

DEVELOPED AT KSU
Department of Dietetics, Restaurant and
Institutional Management (copyrighted)

Environmental factors

Figure 12. Foodservice systems model.

A SYSTEM MODEL OF THE FAST FOOD RESTAURANT

CONTROL

Plans:
Goals & objective; Menu;
Job standards
Policies & procedure
Programs: Annually, Monthly, Daily
Governmental Laws & Regulations
State Health Dept.'s sanitation
City Health Dept.'s
Consumer Protection Agency

INPUTS

Human
Customers, Cooks, Food Service
Workers, Waiters, Waitresses
Cashiers, Manager. Skill
Materials
Foods: frozen, raw, canned,
pre-processed
Supplies: paper or plastic
goods
Operational
Time: labor hours
Money: food cost percentage
Utilities: (gas, electric,
water, tel., adv.,
rent, etc.)
Information: NRA,* FFRA,†
journals, newspaper,
publications
Facilities
Dining: furniture
Kitchen: equipment: Hobart
mixer, convection fryer,
microwave, broiler

TRANSFORMATION

Management functions
Planning
Organizing
Directing
Staffing/training
Controlling

Functional subsystems
Receiving, storage
Pre-preparation
Bakery
Production
Salad preparation
Serving line
Dining
Sanitation
Office

Linking processes
Communication
Daily work schedule
Daily meeting
Memos, bulletin board
Decision-making
Owner
Manager
Other: (franchise)
Ex. District or
Regional Supervisors
Balance
Industry comparison
Trend analysis

OUTPUTS

Meals
Quantity: # of servings
Quality: appetizing meal
Clientele satisfaction
Favorable comments
Popular food items
Financial accountability
Daily sales reports
Profit/loss statement
Personnel satisfaction
Employees are pleased
Owner's satisfaction

FEEDBACK

Statistics:
Meals per manhour
# of bad checks
# of employees working
for day, month
Survey, suggestions
Quality assurance reports

MEMORY

Records
Financial   Personal
Income statement   Employee performance records
Balance Sheet   Memos of department changes
Cash vouchers   Turnover ratios
Sales receipts

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

Governmental officials   Equipment repair
Weather   Employee absenteeism
Holidays   Price fluctuation
Social events

*NRA = National Restaurant Association
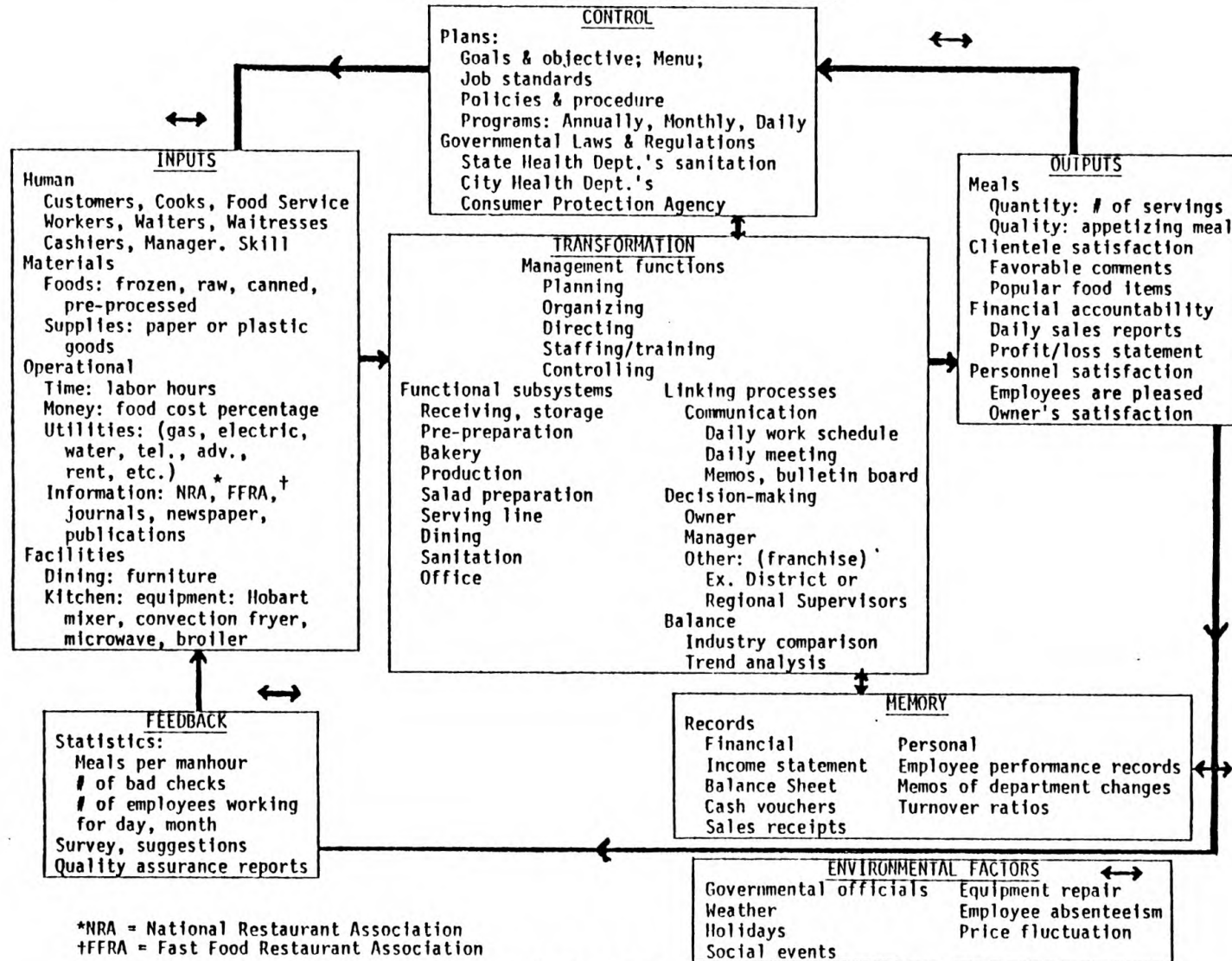†FFRA = Fast Food Restaurant Association

Figure 13. A systems model of a fast food restaurant.

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The foodservice manager, as a leader, must set his/her sights high and expect the best of workers. If confidence in them and their work is displayed, they will attach the same value to their performance that the foodservice manager does. Established policies and procedures and the use of standards in procurement and production will help establish high standards of performance to aid in solving problems, motivating and communicating with employees. Training, communication and feedback will be necessary for building and maintaining these standards. A systematic approach in foodservice allows the manager to function more effectively.

Transformation

The transformation element involves any action or activity inherent to the systems design that is utilized to change the inputs to outputs. In the foodservice system model, the transformation element is depicted as including the functional subsystems of the foodservice operation, managerial functions and linking processes. These are all interdependent and interrelated parts of the transformation element as illustrated by the overlapping circles within the model.

The functional subsystems of a foodservice organization are classified according to their purpose or function: production, distribution, service, and maintenance. Depending upon the type of the foodservice system, the list might also include preprocessing.

Foodservice managers must recognize the physical and psychological needs of the employee and set the climate for open communication.

The foodservice manager who allows an employee to work in an undesirable or dangerous environment is asking for trouble. More importantly, the foodservice manager who doesn't allow open communication and expression of thoughts and feeling is inviting reduced production or poor quality.

Decision-making in organizations has become dominated by a concern for legalities, regulations, and precedents. Integrity is the foundation upon which all other values must be built, and upon which rests the trust and relationship between individual and corporation. Managers and corporations generally adhere to what is legal. However, the law does not specify what is right and is a poor guide in making decisions that will establish trust and unity between individuals and organizations, and between customers and suppliers. These relationships have deteriorated to the point where they represent a drag not only on productivity within major corporations but also on their ability to market their products. When managers are able to discern and act on that which is honest in spirit, trustful business relationships will be reestablished (94).

Outputs

Spears and Vaden (2) state that outputs are the products and services that result from transforming the inputs of the system and express how objectives are achieved. The primary output in the foodservice system is meals. Various types of services may be another primary output of the system, depending upon the type of foodservice operation. In addition, clientele and employee satisfaction are

desired outcomes. Customers' desires, needs, and expectations must be taken into account in planning, producing and evaluating the food served in any foodservice system.

Foodservice managers and employees must recognize the need for maintaining statistical types of information that may prove useful in improving production. Use of computers in storing and analyzing data could be advantageous for the foodservice manager and employee by providing them with an expedient means of information retrieval. The use of computers in the foodservice system provides an excellent means for storing, adjusting, and printing standardized recipes. Both the manager and employee must be able to interpret the information for it to be effective.

Control

The control element encompasses the objectives and goals, policies, procedures, standards and programs of the foodservice operations. All of these plans are internal controls of the system. Plans may be either standing or single-use. A cycle menu is an example of a standing plan. Various types of organizational policies are also examples of standing plans.

Contracts and the various local, state, and federal laws and regulations are other components of the control element. The food-service operation must adhere to various contractual and legal obligations in order to avoid litigation.

In foodservice establishments in the past, many managers have been negligent in keeping records, setting up production schedules to

track employees and jobs, and identifying actual production performance primarily because they were only concerned with profits. Hospital dietary departments have probably been more successful in control by identifying number of trays per minute, number of patients fed per meal, so on, in order to stay within the budget.

Feedback

Feedback is a systems element that measures output against standards. The feedback element provides information essential to the continuing effectiveness of the system. When utilized, feedback assists the system to adjust to needed changes. For example, the food-service manager should evaluate acceptance of a new food item by clientele comments, plate waste, cost and frequency of selection of the new item to determine its future use on the menu.

Memory

The memory element includes all stored information concerning the system's operation. Examples of memory are financial, forecasting, and personnel records. Analysis of past records can assist the manager in making future plans and in avoiding past mistakes. The rapid advances in computer technology and data processing are revolutionizing the memory capability of all types of foodservice systems.

Environment

The environment is the larger setting in which the system exists. Internal and external environment factors include the physical,

economical, technological, and sociological factors that have an impact on the total system. Factors impacting a foodservice system include increasing food and labor costs, unionization, automation, organizational size and complexity, and increasing specialization. The systems approach has practical application for the foodservice system that is interacting continuously with a changing environment.

Foodservice employees must be taught to expect change, recognize the need for change, and take part in the development of that change. They must understand that change and progress are normal, even desirable in the organization. In a foodservice environment, time and motion studies often prove helpful in identifying the need for change. Breaking jobs down into steps to determine productivity can also be helpful.

The foodservice manager must set standards for employees and monitor those standards but should also trust the employee enough to allow for flexibility. Managers should demonstrate that they, too, are trustworthy by being honest with their employees. The same principle applies to suppliers and customers.

Effective utilization of resources through systematic management processes is necessary. This requires coordinated planning of the functions or subsystems of the total foodservice operation, with recognition and understanding of the importance of the function of management. The systems approach has been adapted to foodservice so that it may be used as an aid in viewing all kinds of foodservice organizations as a systematic whole, recognizing that specific factors will vary from one operation to another.

The interdependence or reciprocal relationship among the parts or components of a system can be exemplified by a kaleidoscope. Each part mutually affects the performance of the other parts of a system. This characteristic emphasizes the importance of viewing the organization as a whole and not just the parts in isolation. Changes in one part of a system have implication or ripple effects throughout the system just as a turn of the kaleidoscope changes the entire design (2). In the production aspect of a system, machines are ordinarily introduced to replace functions previously performed by workers or to assist workers in performing a task more effectively. Automated systems are becoming more important with the role of people being that of initiating, monitoring, or terminating the system. These systems relieve people from routine or heavy physical tasks, thus permitting them to perform more creative or innovative kinds of work. Interdependency means that parts of an organization provide satisfaction for needs and means of attainment for other parts of the organization as an open system, although the nature and amount of these needs may vary between differing parts.

SUMMARY

The turnover rate for the foodservice industry has been high when compared to other industries. Employee turnover is a serious problem facing business today. During the next five years, approximately 350 of every 1000 people employed will change jobs. These figures are meaningful when viewed in the context of today's economy. High turnover is costly, reduces productivity, lowers morale among remaining employees and consumes valuable time. Given their concern over turnover, many companies have expanded their efforts in recent years to attract and hold top notch employees through providing competitive salaries, attractive fringe benefits, stock options and other incentives.

Research studies support the theory that factors which lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction are different. Satisfaction with work has been found to be moderated by work values. Turnover rate has been reported as an indicator of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is important for employers to consider for two reasons: humanitarian and the real costs of turnover. Limited data are available from behavioral science research as applied to foodservice systems.

The objectives of this literature review are to identify factors which contribute to job satisfaction for foodservice employees and to discuss employee satisfaction, motivation, and labor turnover. This project proposes methods to aid foodservice managers in assessing causes of turnover and low satisfaction among workers.

There can be many causes of turnover. Two primary reasons for

turnover can be identified: factors not related to the work situation such as personal reasons, and factors related to the work situation such as organizational or work conditions. More important to the firm is the turnover cost per employment position. Each time a job position has a change of personnel that position incurs a cost which results in increasing the total annual wage cost. Turnover costs represent a very large proportion of total labor costs.

Generally, turnover costs can be broken into the two major categories of direct costs and indirect costs. Direct costs are relatively easy to measure, but indirect costs are more difficult to measure because there are additional costs in lead time and management time in the hiring process. Also, there is the cost of lost productivity reflecting a lag between termination and replacement of an employee.

Effective management can help control turnover. Control means effectively managing turnover, encouraging turnover where it will have net positive consequences, and seeking to minimize turnover where it will have net negative consequences. Management responses to turnover must be based on diagnosis and evaluation of causes and consequences of turnover in the context of the organization. There are several survey forms to evaluate the employee's job performance of their work. However, the most commonly used are the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). The JDS is used to diagnose the nature of "people problem" before enriching jobs.

Management involves problem solving and decision making. In dealing with problems, the manager would do well to keep in mind an

old rule "If you are not part of the solution, you are probably part of the problem." The problem of high turnover seems more evident in foodservice industry than in others. The manager needs a basic understanding of people and why they perform or don't perform. To aid in this understanding, managers should try to take a look at several important processes in human behavior: problem solving, motivation, and communication.

Positive motivation most often arises when the employee feels he/she is genuinely an important part of the picture or the job. Such feelings usually result from involvement and participation. Management can be most effective by creating an environment which enhances feelings of self worth, involvement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth. Communication is not a one-way street. Employees will respond more favorably to criticisms and suggestions if they know that they have the opportunity to offer suggestions or respond to criticism. In addition to giving orders and instructions, communication means caring and showing appreciation. When management shows appreciation, everybody wins.

The success of reducing employee turnover programs depends on the prevailing organizational climate. If there is a feeling of family, a community of interest, and a good relationship with employees, they will work with management. Whatever the strategy for avoiding turnover is, it must go hand in hand with an effective means of identifying true disciplinary problems. There is no magic solution for the turnover problem but management have to try; first, one must have a strong desire to provide security and then be willing to do some planning.

It takes a front-end commitment. Second, one must systematically think about human resources in their organization, so that reducing employee turnover is a given in the way the business is run. This forces one to do the necessary planning. The rate of turnover may be reduced substantially when management concentrates on improving conditions within the organization.

In this report, a foodservice systems model was adapted to the fast food segment of the foodservice industry. It is used as a framework to examine a managerial approach to the problem of employee turnover. The model could also be used as a tool to provide a systematic method in developing industry standards, evaluation topics and criteria. Further research is recommended to develop practical methods the foodservice manager can use to reduce employee turnover and increase morale and productivity.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Job Diagnostic Survey

This part of the questionnaire asks you to describe your job, as <u>objectively</u> as you can.

Please do <u>not</u> use this part of the questionnaire to show how much you like or dislike your job. Questions about that will come later. Instead, try to make your descriptions as accurate and as objective as you possibly can.

A sample question is given below.

A. To what extent does your job require you to work with mechanical equipment?

1--------------2--------------3--------------4--------------5--------------(6)--------------7
Very little; the   Moderately   Very much; the job
job requires almost   requires almost
no contact with   constant work with
mechanical equipment   mechanical equipment
of any kind.

You are to <u>circle</u> the number which is the most accurate description of your job.

If, for example, your job requires you to work with mechanical equipment a good deal of the time--but also requires some paperwork--you might circle the number six, as was done in the example above.

If you do not understand these instructions, please ask for assistance. If you do understand them, please begin.

1. To what extent does your job require you to <u>work closely with other people</u> (either clients, or people in related jobs in your own organization)?

1--------------2--------------3--------------4--------------5--------------6--------------7
Very little; deal-   Moderately;   Very much; dealing
ing with other   some dealing   with other people is
people is not at   with others is   an absolutely
all necessary in   necessary   essential and
doing the job.   crucial part of
                                                                                     doing the job.

2. How much <u>autonomy</u> is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide <u>on your own</u> how to go about doing the work?

1--------------2--------------3--------------4--------------5--------------6--------------7
Very little; the   Moderate autonomy;   Very much; the job
job gives me almost   many things are   gives me almost
no personal "say"   standardized and   complete responsi-
about how and when   not under my control,   bility for deciding
the work is done.   but I can make some   how and when the work
                                        decisions about the   is done.
                                        work.

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3. To what extent does your job involve doing a "whole" and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by automatic machines?

```
1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5---------------6---------------7
```

| My job is only a tiny part of the overall piece of work; the results of my activities cannot be seen in the final product or service. | My job is a moderate-sized "chunk" of the overall piece of work; my own contribution can be seen in the final outcome | My job involves doing the whole piece of work, from start to finish; the results of my activities are easily seen in the final product or service. |

4. How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?

```
1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5---------------6---------------7
```

| Very little; the job requires me to do the same routine things over and over again. | Moderate variety | Very much; the job requires me to do many different things, using a number of different skills and talents. |

5. In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?

```
1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5---------------6---------------7
```

| Not very significant; the outcomes of my work are not likely to have important effects on other people. | Moderately significant. | Highly significant; the outcomes of my work can affect other people in very important ways. |

6. To what extent do managers or co-workers let you know how well you are doing on your job?

```
1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5---------------6---------------7
```

| Very little; people almost never let me know how well I am doing. | Moderately; sometimes people may give me "feedback"; other times they may not. | Very much; managers or co-workers provide me with almost constant "feedback" about how well I am doing. |

7. To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing--aside from any "feedback" co-workers or supervisors may provide?

```
1---------------2---------------3---------------4---------------5---------------6---------------7
```

| Very little; the job itself is set up so I could work forever without finding out how well I am doing. | Moderately; sometimes doing the job provides "feedback" to me; sometimes it does not. | Very much; the job is set up so that I get almost constant "feedback" as I work about how well I am doing. |

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Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job.

You are to indicate whether each statement is an
accurate or an inaccurate description of your job.

Once again, please try to be as objective as you can in deciding
how accurately each statement describes your job--regardless of
whether you like or dislike your job.

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

How accurate is the statement in describing your job?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Inaccurate	Mostly Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Uncertain	Slightly Accurate	Mostly Accurate	Very Accurate

_____ 1. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.

_____ 2. The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.

_____ 3. The job is arranged so that I do not have the chance to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.

_____ 4. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.

_____ 5. The job is quite simple and repetitive.

_____ 6. The job can be done adequately by a person working alone--without talking or checking with other people.

_____ 7. The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me any "feedback" about how well I am doing in my work.

_____ 8. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.

_____ 9. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.

_____ 10. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.

_____ 11. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.

_____ 12. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.

_____ 13. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.

_____ 14. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.

Now please indicate how <u>you personally feel about your job</u>.

Each of the statements below is something that a person might say about his or her job. You are to indicate your own, personal <u>feelings</u> about your job by marking how much you agree with each of the statements.

Write a number in the blank for each statement, based on this scale:

How much do you agree with the statement?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral	Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

_____ 1. It's hard, on this job, for me to care very much about whether or not the work gets done right.

_____ 2. My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well.

_____ 3. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.

_____ 4. Most of the things I have to do on this job seem useless or trivial.

_____ 5. I usually know whether or not my work is satisfactory on this job.

_____ 6. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.

_____ 7. The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me.

_____ 8. I feel a very high degree of <u>personal</u> responsibility for the work I do on this job.

_____ 9. I frequently think of quitting this job.

_____10. I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly on this job.

_____11. I often have trouble figuring out whether I'm doing well or poorly on this job.

_____12. I feel I should personally take the credit or blame for the results of my work on this job.

_____13. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.

_____14. My own feelings generally are <u>not</u> affected much one way or the other by how well I do on this job.

_____15. Whether or not this job gets done right is clearly <u>my</u> responsibility.

SECTION IV

Now please indicate how _satisfied_ you are with each aspect of your job listed below. Once again, write the appropriate number in the blanks beside each statement.

How satisfied are you with this aspect of your job?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extremely Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Slightly Dissatisfied	Neutral	Slightly Satisfied	Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied

_____ 1. The amount of job security I have.

_____ 2. The amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.

_____ 3. The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.

_____ 4. The people I talk to and work with on my job.

_____ 5. The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my boss.

_____ 6. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job.

_____ 7. The chance to get to know other people while on the job.

_____ 8. The amount of support and guidance I receive from my supervisor.

_____ 9. The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organization.

_____10. The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in my job.

_____11. How secure things look for me in the future in this organization.

_____12. The chance to help other people while at work.

_____13. The amount of challenge in my job.

_____14. The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work.

Now please think of the other people in your organization who hold
the same job you do. If no one has exactly the same job as you,
think of the job which is most similar to yours.

Please think about how accurately each of the statements describes the feelings of those
people about the job.

It is quite all right if your answers here are different from when you described your own
reactions to the job. Often different people feel quite differently about the same job.

Once again, write a number in the blank for each statement, based on this scale:

How much to you agree with the statement?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Disagree Slightly	Neutral	Agree Slightly	Agree	Agree Strongly

_____ 1. Most people on this job feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when they do the job well.

_____ 2. Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job.

_____ 3. Most people on this job feel that the work is useless or trivial.

_____ 4. Most people on this job feel a great deal of personal responsibility for the work they do.

_____ 5. Most people on this job have a pretty good idea of how well they are performing their work.

_____ 6. Most people on this job find the work very meaningful.

_____ 7. Most people on this job feel that whether or not the job gets done right is clearly their own responsibility.

_____ 8. People on this job often think of quitting.

_____ 9. Most people on this job feel bad or unhappy when they find that they have performed the work poorly.

_____10. Most people on this job have trouble figuring out whether they are doing a good or a bad job.

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SECTION VI

Listed below are a number of characteristics which could be present on any job. People differ about how much they would like to have each one present in their own jobs. We are interested in learning how much you personally would like to have each one present in your job.

Using the scale below, please indicate the degree to which you would like to have each characteristic present in your job.

NOTE: The numbers on this scale are different from those used in previous scales.

4	5	6	7	8	9.	10
Would like having this only a moderate amount (or less)			Would like having this very much			Would like having this extremely much

_____ 1. High respect and fair treatment from my supervisor.

_____ 2. Stimulating and challenging work.

_____ 3. Chances to exercise independent thought and action in my job.

_____ 4. Great job security.

_____ 5. Very friendly co-workers.

_____ 6. Opportunities to learn new things from my work.

_____ 7. High salary and good fringe-benefits.

_____ 8. Opportunities to be creative and imaginative in my work.

_____ 9. Quick promotions.

_____ 10. Opportunities for personal growth and development in my job.

_____ 11. A sense of worthwhile accomplishment in my work.

People differ in the kinds of jobs they would most like to hold. The questions
in this section give.you a chance to say just what it is about a job that is
most important to you.

> For each question, two different kinds of jobs are briefly
> described. You are to indicate which of the jobs you
> personally would prefer--if you had to make a choice
> between them.

In answering each question, assume that everything else about the jobs is the
same. Pay attention only to the characteristics actually listed.

Two examples are given below.

JOB A   **JOB B**

A job requiring work   A job requiring work
with mechanical equipment   with other people most
most of the day   of the day

1------------------2------------------(3)------------------4------------------5
Strongly   Slightly   Neutral   Slightly   Strongly
Prefer A   Prefer A   Prefer B   Prefer B

If you like working with people and working with equipment
equally well, you would circle the number 3, as has been
done in the example.

Here is another example. This one asks for a harder choice--between two jobs which
both have some undesirable features.

JOB A   **JOB B**

A job requiring you to   A job located 200 miles
expose yourself to con-   from your home and family
siderable physical danger.

1------------------(2)------------------3------------------4------------------5
Strongly   Slightly   Neutral   Slightly   Strongly
Prefer A   Prefer A   Prefer B   Prefer B

If you would slightly prefer risking physical danger to
working far from your home, you would circle number 2, as
has been done in the example.

Please ask for assistance if you do not understand exactly how to do these questions.

Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job.

You are to indicate whether each statement is an accurate or an inaccurate description of your job.

Once again, please try to be as objective as you can in deciding how accurately each statement describes your job--regardless of whether you like or dislike your job.

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

How accurate is the statement in describing your job?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Inaccurate	Mostly Inaccurate	Slightly Inaccurate	Uncertain	Slightly Accurate	Mostly Accurate	Very Accurate

_____ 1. This job requires me to stand for a long period of time.

_____ 2. This job requires me to lift heavy objects.

_____ 3. This job involves working over hot equipment.

_____ 4. This job requires me to work with noisy equipment.

_____ 5. There is not adequate lighting to perform this job well.

_____ 6. The temperature where I work is not comfortable.

SECTION IX

Now please indicate how you personally feel about your job.

Each of the statements below is something that a person might say about his or her job. You are to indicate your own, personal feelings about your job by marking how much each statement bothers you.

Write a number in the blank for each statement, based on this scale:

How often does this aspect of your job bother you?

1	2	3	4	5
Bothers me almost always	Bothers me frequently	Bothers me some of the time	Bothers me only occasionally	Really does not bother me

_____ 1. This job requires me to stand for a long period of time.

_____ 2. This job requires me to lift heavy objects.

_____ 3. This job involves working over hot equipment.

_____ 4. This job requires me to work with noisy equipment.

_____ 5. There is not adequate lighting to perform this job well.

_____ 6. The temperature where I work is not comfortable.

APPENDIX B

Job Characteristics Inventory

THE JOB CHARACTERISTICS INVENTORY

Code Number _____

Company _____

City _____

Think of your present work. What is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word given below, write

__Y__ for "Yes" if it describes your work

__N__ for "No" if it does NOT describe it

__?__ if you cannot decide

WORK ON PRESENT JOB

_____ Fascinating

_____ Routine

_____ Satisfying

_____ Boring

_____ Good

_____ Creative

_____ Respected

_____ Hot

_____ Pleasant

_____ Useful

_____ Tiresome

_____ Healthful

_____ Challenging

_____ On your feet

_____ Frustrating

_____ Simple

_____ Endless

_____ Gives sense of accomplishment

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word, put

__Y__ if it describes your pay

__N__ if it does NOT describe it

__?__ if you cannot decide

PRESENT 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

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words describe these? In the blank beside each word put

__Y__ for "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for promotion

__N__ for "No" if it does NOT describe them

__?__ if you cannot decide

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

_____ Good opportunities for promotion

_____ Opportunity somewhat limited

_____ Promotion on ability

_____ Dead-end job

_____ Good chance for promotion

_____ Unfair promotion policy

_____ Infrequent promotions

_____ Regular promotions

_____ Fairly good chance for promotion

Think of the kind of supervision that you get
on your job. How well does each of the following
words describe this supervision? In the blank
beside each word below, put

__Y__ if it describes the supervision you get
on your job

__N__ if it does NOT describe it

__?__ if you cannot decide

SUPERVISION ON PRESENT JOB

_____ 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

_____ Around when needed

_____ Lazy

Think of the majority of the people that you
work with now or the people you meet in connec-
tion with your work. How well does each of the
following words describe these people? In the
blank beside each word below, put

__Y__ if it describes the people you work with

__N__ if it does NOT describe them

__?__ if you cannot decide

PEOPLE ON YOUR PRESENT JOB

_____ 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

JOB SATISFACTION AND LABOR TURNOVER:
IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FOODSERVICE INDUSTRY

by

MYUNG JA LEE

B.A., Kon-Kuk University, 1970

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

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requirements for the degree

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Manhattan, Kansas

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ABSTRACT

Employee turnover is a serious problem facing business today.
Turnover rate for the foodservice industry has been high when compared
to other industries. High turnover is costly, reduces productivity,
lowers morale among remaining employees and consumes valuable time.
There can be many causes of turnover. One can generally find two
primary reasons for turnover: factors not related to the work situation
such as personal reasons, and factors related to the work situation
such as organizational or work conditions. More important to the firm
is the turnover cost per employment position of total labor costs.
Turnover rate has been reported as an indicator of job satisfaction.
Job satisfaction is important for employers to consider for two
reasons: humanitarian and the real costs of turnover.

The objective of this report was to identify factors which
contribute to job satisfaction for foodservice employees, and to discuss
employee satisfaction, motivation, labor turnover. Finally, this
project proposes methods to aid foodservice managers in assessing
causes of turnover and low satisfaction among workers.

Effective management can help to control turnover. The management
responses to turnover must be based on diagnosis and evaluation of the
causes and consequences of turnover in the context of the organization.
Regular and systematic diagnosis of turnover, specification, and
implementation of multiple strategies is required. There are several
survey forms to evaluate the employee's job performance of their work.
However, the most commonly used are the Job Diagnostic Survey.

Management involves problem solving and decision making. The manager needs a basic understanding of people and why they perform or do not perform. To aid in this understanding, managers should try to take a look at several important processes in human behavior: problem solving process, motivation, and communication. Positive motivation most often arises when the employee feels he/she is genuinely an important part of the picture or the job. Such feelings usually result from involvement and participation. Management can be most effective by creating an environment which enhances feeling of self worth, involvement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Communication is not a one-way street. In addition to given orders and instructions, communication means caring and showing appreciation. When management shows appreciation, everybody wins.

Primarily, foodservice turnover rates were inflated by unstructured, invisible promotional opportunities, unsatisfactory psychological, and physical working environment, questionable management techniques, and lower wages and benefits. Management must consider and if necessary implement corrective suggestions or measures in the investment in human resources. The success of reducing employee turnover programs depends on the prevailing organizational climate. If there is a feeling of "family," a community of interest and a good relationship with employees, subordinates will work with management. Whatever the strategy for avoiding turnover, it must go hand in hand with an effective means of identifying true disciplinary problems.

There is no magic solution for the turnover problem but management should try; first, one must have a strong desire to provide security

and then be willing to do some planning. It takes a front-end commitment. Second, one must systematically think about human resources in their organization so that reducing employee turnover is a given in the way the business is run. In this report, a foodservice systems model was adapted to the fast food segment of the foodservice industry. It is used as a framework to examine a managerial approach to the problem of employee turnover. The model could also be used as a tool to provide a systematic method in developing industry standards, evaluation topics and criteria.