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JOB SATISFACTION, WORK VALUES AND ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION OF HOSPITAL DIETITIANS

by

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INTRODUCTION

Alienation from work is a phenomena that has been noted in all classes of employees including blue-collar (1) and professional (2). Worker behaviors associated with alienation are absenteeism, low job performance, and high job turnover rates (3). These behaviors are costly to the organizations employing such workers, with the cost increasing as the skill of the employee increases.

Alienation among foodservice workers was noted by Blaker in 1973 (4). High worker turnover rates and low productivity are major foodservice problems. Productivity of foodservice workers is less than half of that of manufacturing employees (5). Blaker (4) stated that more technology in foodservice is not the total answer to this problem. A change in worker attitudes towards work also is needed.

Many studies have been attempted to determine what job attributes are associated with alienation and job dissatisfaction and those job attributes associated with satisfaction. Work values have been found to be a mediator between job content and job satisfaction (6). Friedlander (7) found work values of blue-collar and white-collar workers to be different. White-collar workers placed more emphasis on work content than other aspects of work such as the work environment and employee benefits.

Identification with an organization has been found to affect job satisfaction (8). Organizational identification may be the result of sharing goals with others in an organization. Organizational identification has been shown to be manifested by support of organizational goals, pride in tenure in an organization, and defense of the organization to outsiders

(9). Professional employees, in addition to belonging to a work organization, have membership within a professional organization. Both the professional organization and the work organization have a set of standards and goals ascribed to by members of the organization. When the goals of the two organizations conflict, the professional must choose loyalty to one. Job satisfaction and loyalty are unlikely unless the employee can identify with the goals of the organization.

The number of professionals employed by organizations is increasing steadily in numbers. According to Ritzer (10) there are two reasons for this phenomena: (a) specialization within occupations has made professionals dependent on organizations to fulfill their roles and (b) more occupations are becoming professional.

Health care professionals have seldom been the subjects of behavioral research in the areas of job satisfaction, work values, or organizational identification. Dietitians in particular have not been in the sample populations of studies found dealing with these topics.

The purpose of this research project was to study job satisfaction, work values, and organizational identification of hospital dietitians and to compare the job satisfaction and work values of the professional dietitians with the results of the studies of Shaw (11) and Klemp (12) among non-professional hospital foodservice personnel. Literature reviewed relevant to the study included the following topics: job satisfaction, work values, professionalism, organization identification.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Job Satisfaction

Schwab and Cummings (13) 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. Glueck (14) stated that job satisfaction was important for employers to consider for two reasons: humanitarian and the real costs of turnover, absenteeism, and accidents.

Although job satisfaction has received much attention in behavioral science research during the last two decades, there is some evidence that satisfaction with work is decreasing. Smith et al. (15) reported a downward trend in job satisfaction over a ten year period regardless of tenure, job function, or geographic location. In another study with managers, job satisfaction was seen to decrease over a four year period in a stable organization regardless of sex, age, or tenure (16).

Job Satisfaction Defined

Ivancevich and Donnelly (17) observed that nearly every writer concerned with job satisfaction has constructed a different but basically similar definition. They defined job satisfaction as the favorable viewpoint of the workers toward the work role they are presently occupying. Behling and Schriesheim (18) similarly defined job satisfaction as the

overall degree of positive feelings that the individual holds towards his/her job. Job satisfaction was described by Smith et al. (19) as feelings or affective responses to facets of the job situation.

Job Satisfaction and Quality of Life

The suggestion that leisure activities could compensate for work in providing the central life interest was rejected by Blauner (1). He stated that work remains the single most important activity in terms of time and energy, and that the quality of work life affected the quality of leisure, family relations, and basic self feelings. Kavanagh and Halpern (20) found job and life satisfaction to be related significantly. London et al. (21) found relationships between specific job dimensions and the quality of life for males but not females. This study, however, included housewives who were not asked the questions relating to work. Females with jobs were not separated from housewives when the aspects relating to life satisfaction were determined. An earlier study by Brayfield and co-workers (22) found no correlation between job and life satisfactions for women. Kavanagh and Halpern used only university subjects in their study, while London et al. had a range of different educational backgrounds. The women in London's study were not divided by educational level to determine if the work factors would have significant importance in determining quality of life with varying amounts of education. Education was found to increase the contribution of work to quality of life for the total sample (21).

Dissatisfaction and Alienation

The question that has been asked frequently is, "what are the causes of job dissatisfaction and alienation?" Blauner (1) stated that four aspects of a worker's environment and activities contribute to alienation:

(a) powerlessness or lack of control over the work activity process, (b) meaninglessness in work, with no relation perceived between work efforts and the achievement of goals, (c) isolation or nonmembership with the social organizational community, and) self-estrangement where the individual perceives a separation between work life and other life concerns or between present activities and future considerations with work activity being a means to an end rather than an end in itself.

Walton (3) 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. Expectations of employees that are not met were cited as reasons for alienation. These expectations included: challenge and personal growth from work, egalitarian treatment, intrinsic rewards, benefits now, and more attention to the emotional aspects of organization.

Herzberg et al. (23) reported two sets of factors to be 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, which were labeled as hygiene factors.

A study by Wernmont (24) supported Herzberg's two factor theory. Interviews revealed that a lack of extrinsic factors produced overall dissatisfaction with work (Figure 1).

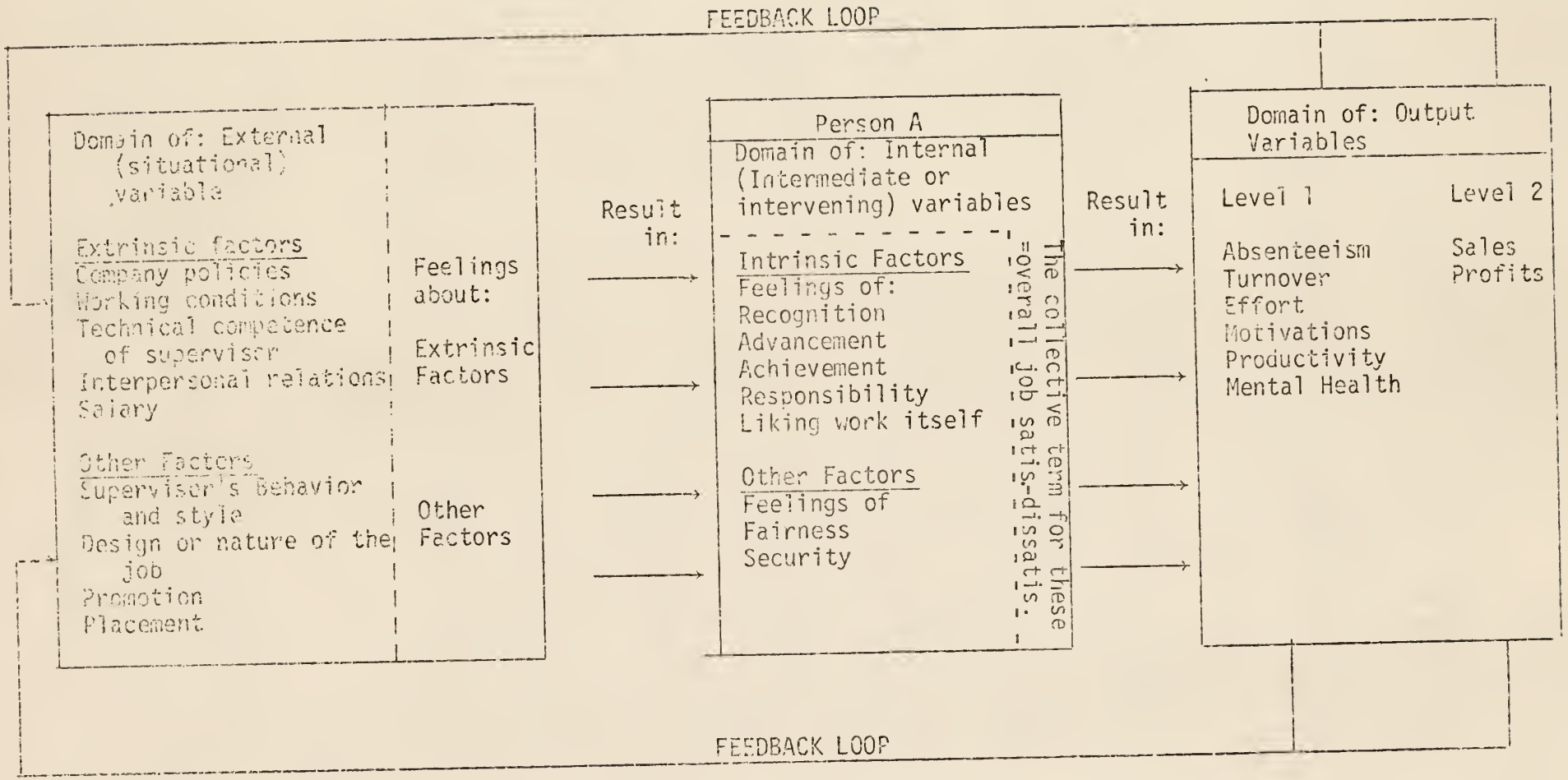

Figure 1: A job satisfaction system

Measurement of Job Satisfaction

Utilization of standardized research instruments was stressed by Schwab and Cummings (13) as necessary for comparison of meaningful information from a variety of work environments. Some of the well known instruments include: Kornhauser's Index of Job Satisfaction, Carlson et al.'s Employee Attitude Scales, Morse's Index of Employee Satisfaction, Johnson's Job Satisfaction Scale, Schletzer's Job Dimensions Blank, Brayfield and Rothe's Job Satisfaction Index, Dunnette et al.'s Factors for Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction, and Smith et al.'s Job Descriptive Index (25).

Robinson et al. (25) stated that the Job Descriptive Index or JDI had the best credentials of the instruments, required a minimum of time to complete, and adequately covered the field. The JDI was designed to measure job satisfaction in the areas of pay, promotion, supervision, type of work, and co-workers. The JDI was the result of extensive research at Cornell University; responses of 952 people in seven organizations were used in the development of the instrument. The instrument requires a description of the job rather than feelings about it. Robinson et al. explained that studies using the JDI have shown that one's perception of his/her job is highly colored by the degree of satisfaction with it. The JDI was described by them as a valid face instrument which could be administered easily and scored in a short time. Corrected split-half internal consistency coefficients have been reported to exceed .80 for each of the scales. General norms for the JDI have been established. The normative satisfaction scores are for comparison of an individual's or a group's scores on the JDI.

Satisfaction with Various Job Components

The work itself. London et al. (21) found satisfaction with the work itself important to the perceived quality of life. Stone (26) reported a significant relationship between satisfaction with the JDI component, the work itself, and overall job satisfaction. Work importance which gives a sense of accomplishment was the job characteristic chosen as most important by 64 per cent of the white-collar workers and 74 per cent of the professional workers in Weaver's study (27).

The opportunity for creativity in work has also been linked to job satisfaction (28). Personal challenge and growth from work were cited by Walton (3) as deterrents to alienation. Challenge and opportunity for growth variables were shown by Costello and Lee (29) to be most important for job satisfaction of professionals working in organizations. Dunnette et al. (30) found achievement in work to be related to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Descriptions of work with high levels of achievement were associated with satisfaction; whereas descriptions of work with low levels of achievement were associated with dissatisfaction. Several studies (31-33) have reported that the amount of variety found in work is important to job satisfaction. In a study of white collar workers, Morse (34) found that the most intrinsic job satisfaction occurred among employees performing the most skilled tasks, while the most dissatisfied were doing repetitious clerical work. However, almost one-fourth of those doing repetitive clerical work had a high degree of job satisfaction, indicating that some employees may not desire challenging work. Lawler and Hall (28) found satisfaction to be related to the degree of relevance to the employee's valued abilities. As indicated earlier, Walton (3) contended there was a relationship between dissatisfaction and absenteeism and

turnover. Assuming this relationship is a valid one, Hawk's (35) idea of the importance of fitting people to the job to prevent absenteeism and turnover is supported by Lawler and Hall's findings.

The working conditions play a significant role in job dissatisfaction. Work environment, safety, and physical conditions were the center of most of the complaints that industrial workers had about their work in Whitehill's study (36).

Different industries require technological and societal processes unique to their industry which has an effect on the amount of satisfaction of the organizational members. Friedlander and Pickle (37) found that restaurants had poor employee satisfaction compared to other industries. Commercial foodservice jobs were lowest in self-development and only food stores were lower on the items of working conditions, confidence in management, opinion of immediate supervisor and self-development. Personal service organizations had the highest employee satisfaction on all measures of the six industries studied.

Supervision. Hawk (35) suggested there was a relationship between supervisory style and absenteeism and turnover. Both Downey et al. (38) and Morse (34) reported that supervision had a significant effect on subordinate's favorable work attitudes and job satisfaction. The compatibility of the findings was interesting since Downey et al.'s findings were from a blue-collar sample and Morse's, from a white-collar sample. Attitudes toward, and perceptions of supervisors have been shown to be related to job involvement in the organization and satisfaction with pay, job status, and job content (34).

Brief and Aldag's (39) study among blue-collar workers focused on the relationship of leader's behaviors and the satisfaction of subordinates.

Consideration by the leader was shown to be related significantly to general satisfaction and supervisory satisfaction. Consideration behaviors included those related to: friendship, mutual trust, respect, and a certain warmth and rapport between leader and subordinates. Downey et al. (38) also found leaders' consideration to be related to subordinates' job satisfaction. A significant relationship was not found between satisfaction of subordinates and the leader behavior of initiating structure. Initiating structure was defined as behavior associated with the organization and definition of relationships in the work groups which tends to establish well-defined patterns of communication and ways of getting the job done (39).

Dimarco (40) examined the life style values of supervisors and subordinates among a group of engineers and project team leaders. Some support was found for the hypothesis that satisfaction with supervision is related to compatibility between the subordinate's and supervisor's life style values.

Walton (3) purported that alienation from work may be due to supervisors' incorrect assumptions about subordinates that may influence attempts to motivate. He contended that the demands, conditions, and rewards of employing organizations conflict with the expectations of employees. Sources of conflict mentioned which related to supervision included: (a) lack of mutual influence patterns of management, (b) inadequate attention to the emotional aspects of organizational life, and (c) manager's emphasis on competition in reward systems. Autonomy in a job situation has been shown to affect job satisfaction with supervision (28, 32). The degree to which autonomy is viewed as relevant to the employee's valued abilities and the amount of creativity allowed have been

found to affect positively job satisfaction. Autonomy also has been shown to affect overall satisfaction with work (28).

The amount of decision making supervision allows has an effect on job satisfaction. Steers (41) reported participation in decision making to be significantly related to the job satisfaction of employees. Morse (34) found that the group most satisfied with their work made some decisions and would like to make more. The next most satisfied group made no decisions but had no desire to make decisions. Dissonance in the influence process in decision making has been found to be positively related to job tension and negatively to job satisfaction (42).

Feedback about job performance has been reported to be related to overall job satisfaction (32, 41) as well as with satisfaction with supervision (32). Also, Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (43) found recognition from supervisors to be an important factor in job satisfaction.

Pay. According to Herzberg's two factor theory, salary may prevent dissatisfaction with work but will not produce satisfaction. Various other studies have supported this contention (27, 30, 34). Also, several researchers reported that equitable pay as perceived by the employees is important to prevent dissatisfaction (34, 44, 45). Pritchard et al. (45) found some evidence that overpayment (or being paid more than the person perceives to be equitable), while not affecting satisfaction with pay, may negatively affect overall job satisfaction. In a later study Pritchard et al. (46) found that time devoted to a task during a free period was lower for individuals when pay had been given as an incentive than for those when no pay was offered. No significant difference was seen, however, in the performance of the actual task between the groups given pay

and those receiving no pay, even when the pay incentive was withdrawn in the second test.

The perceived quality of life was found to be significantly correlated with satisfaction with pay and fringe benefits. Males, individuals between the ages of 30 to 65 years, those with less than high school education, those never married, and white-collar workers were groups in which the relationship between satisfaction with financial rewards and quality of life was particularly strong (21).

Promotion. According to Pearlin (44) an individual's perceptions of chances for advancement as egalitarian are important in prevention of dissatisfaction. Advancement has been found to be more important to those with more education and to white-collar workers (27). Promotion also has been shown to be related to satisfaction if the promotion is interpreted as recognition of achievement (47).

Co-workers. Friedlander (47) stated that co-workers are important in setting the social climate of the organization, which is a factor involved in job satisfaction. Being alone on a shift was found to be related to alienation, while working with friends at work who also were seen socially decreased the chances of a worker being alienated (44).

Dimarco (40) studied the relationship between life style work group structure and life style compatibilities among co-workers and job satisfaction. The life style dimensions used were: (a) formalistic which indicates agreement with the idea that control over behavior should come from rules, regulations, policies, and procedures established by authorities; (b) sociocentric which stresses accepted group norms as the basis of control for behavior, and (c) personalistic which reflects the belief that behavior should be controlled by the individual. The work group structure

dimensions used included: (a) bureaucratic with hierarchial authority structures, (b) collaborative with a team orientation, and (c) coordinative with individual direction.

Team collaboration has been shown to have a relationship to satisfaction of individual needs for self-actualization, professionalism, job conditions, and status needs (48). Satisfaction with co-workers also has been linked to satisfaction of autonomy and feedback needs of co-workers (32). Some evidence supported other individual differences in the importance of satisfaction with co-workers. For example, London et al. (21) found that satisfaction with co-workers was related to quality of life only for college graduates and for those in higher socioeconomic status.

Other Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction

Job level. Professionals may have a unique set of criteria for satisfaction with work. Abrahamson (49) stated that most students form a view of the professional in a free setting rather than in an organization or as an employee. These expectations leave the new professional entering work within an organization open to dissatisfaction. Seiler (50) stated that job freedom is one of the most important job needs of the newly hired professional. Other needs classified as most important were technical challenge, feedback from supervisors, and opportunity to achieve professional aspirations. Costello and Lee (29) found that the higher order needs of self-esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization were more important for professionals than other variables for satisfaction.

Shapiro and Stern (51) used the JDI to study the job satisfaction of professional and non-professional males and females. They found that female professionals were more satisfied than non-professionals with pay,

the work itself, and supervision; whereas, non-professional women were more satisfied with promotion and co-workers. Professional men were more satisfied than non-professional men in all five areas of job satisfaction of the JDI. Professionals, however, had higher overall satisfaction than non-professionals regardless of sex.

Porter (52) found the hierarchical level in the organization or position in management to have a strong relation to the degree of perceived satisfaction of the needs of self-actualization, autonomy, and esteem, with satisfaction increasing at each higher level. Security and social needs were not related to satisfaction differences in management levels. Adams et al. (53) also found satisfaction with work, supervision, pay, and co-workers to increase with job level.

Marital status. The evidence for a relationship between job satisfaction and marital status is not conclusive. Rachman and Kemp (54) found married employees to be generally more satisfied with work than single employees. Shea et al. (55) conducted a study on job satisfaction with over 5,000 black and white women. Satisfaction with work was not shown to vary with marital status in black or white groups when occupational level was controlled.

London et al. (21) investigated the relationship between satisfaction with work and quality of life. Co-workers, the work itself, pay and fringe benefits, work environment, and resources for doing work were the job items measured. Satisfaction with the job items as a group was related to perceived quality of life for married persons, but not for those never married, divorced, widowed, or separated. Satisfaction with two job items was found to relate to marital status and quality of life. Satisfaction with the work itself was important to quality of life only for married

persons; and satisfaction with pay and fringe benefits was related to quality of life only for those never married.

Age. Age has been shown to be related to job satisfaction. Glen et al. (56) found job satisfaction to increase with age in both males and females. Older workers were more satisfied with work content in the study conducted by Morse (34). Friedlander (47) found older workers were more likely to derive satisfaction from the social and technical environment of work. In a study of women in management, age was found to be related to disillusionment. Women over 35 years of age were less likely to be disillusioned with work than those under 35 years of age (57).

Tenure. Herzberg (53) contended that job satisfaction increases as tenure increases. Morse's (34) research supported this hypothesis. She found tenure to be positively related to job satisfaction. Klemp (12) found that satisfaction with work had a complex relationship with length of employment. Hospital foodservice workers employed less than six months and more than three years were more satisfied than workers employed from six months to three years. Cole (59) found a similar relationship between tenure and job satisfaction. Results from his study showed workers with over five years of employment had positive job attitudes, while workers employed two to five years were most dissatisfied.

Organizational size. Studies investigating the relationship of work attitudes and size of organization have made comparisons with the size of the total organization and size of the subunit. Porter and Lawler (60) summised from review of literature that large subunits tended to lead to low cohesiveness, high task specialization, and poor communications. They postulated that these factors would produce high job dissatisfaction. Studies by Indik and Seashore (61) and Metzner and Mann (62) supported this

hypothesis. Their findings indicated that in larger sized subunits, employee satisfaction is lower. Kerr et al. (63), however, found workers in larger departments to be more satisfied.

Porter and Lawler (60) also made predictions from reviewing studies dealing with the relationship of the total organization size and job satisfaction. They hypothesized that the total organizational size did not have the same negative effect as subunit size on satisfaction of employees.

Results reported by a number of researchers fail to support this prediction. Worthy (64) found large organizational size to be the single most important variable responsible for low job satisfaction. Talacchi (65) also concluded that as organizational size increased, the level of employee satisfaction decreased. Merryman and Shani (66) reported employees in smaller companies with slower growth rates had higher job satisfaction than employees in larger companies with higher growth rates.

Location. Smith et al. (15) investigated job satisfaction trends over a ten year period in five geographic locations. Decreases in job satisfaction were evident over time in the samples from the East, Midwest, Southwest and Pacific Coast. Job satisfaction remained stable over time only in the South. Smith et al. conjectured that lack of alternative employment in the Southern region, as compared to other regions might explain the observed deviations.

Castellano (67) studied the effect of rural versus urban socialization on job satisfaction. He concluded from the results of this study that rural-urban background was not related to job attitudes.

Work Values

Values Defined

Rokeach (68) defined a value as an enduring belief that a particular mode of behavior or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to the opposite mode of behavior or end-state of existence. He described value systems as enduring organizations of beliefs concerning preferable modes of behavior or end-states of existence on a continuum of relative importance. Also, value systems function as a set of standards used by individuals to evaluate and judge end-states or modes of conduct to guide action and to rationalize beliefs, attitudes, and behavior of the individual. The rationalization function is long range in nature, giving expression to the basic human need to maintain and enhance self-esteem. Values help a person adjust to society, preserve his or her ego when it is threatened, and test reality.

Social and Organizational Values

According to Kast and Rosenzweig (69) social values reflect a system of shared beliefs which function as norms for human behavior. They stated that organizations depend on a minimum number of shared values among members of the organization and the external society for continued existence. Values held by an organization represent a composite of value inputs from individuals, informal and formal groups within the organization, elements of the task environment, and sources external to the organization.

The value system of a hospital was described by Nash (70) to be less conducive to conflict than the value systems of profit making organizations. He further stated that the core of the hospital value system is patient care. Nash suggested that this core value draws employees together,

integrates the structure, and helps overcome many of the problems present in the hospital.

Work Values Defined

Work values have been defined by Zytowski (71) as a set of concepts which mediate between the individual's affective orientation and classes of objects offering similar satisfactions. He stated that work values arise from the internal state of the person and are descriptive of those needs or the satisfaction available for that internal need. Zytowski proposed that work values could be used to describe occupations and serve as a base for matching individuals with occupations in vocational counseling.

Bernthal (72) stated that management needs to be aware of the values they and others have, and the assumptions underlying these values in order to make effective management decisions. The failure of managers to understand the ideological value differences between peers and subordinates has been sighted as a major cause of conflict at the interface with lower managers (73).

Glueck (14) reported that historically two fundamentally opposed views on work have been embraced by different civilizations. In one view, work was thought of as a usually unpleasant means to another end by the ancient civilizations of Greece, Egypt, Rome, and Israel. Work was thought to be degrading to developed persons and fit only for the masses born to that lot. The other view held that work was a satisfying end in itself. Through work, people could realize satisfying, even pleasurable, results and self-fulfillment. This view of work was stated to exist in Medieval Catholicism when the guild system glorified craft work; and monastic orders of the Roman Catholic church required work and prayer for sanctity. Later,

Protestant theologians placed even more emphasis on the value of work. The "calling" or value of all professions, was emphasized by Luther. Calvin's dogma of predestination induced more work for proof that a person was one of the saved.

The Protestant work ethic was suggested by Scott (74) to be founded on the belief that God created man with the ability to work and be productive. This ethic also held that hard work was the only moral way of life that would please God.

Work values in the early history of the United States were exemplified by the folk heroes Paul Bunyan, Casey Jones, and John Henry. These characters were mighty workers famous for their work prowess (75). Work has been highly valued in the United States although the actual work ethic has been modified over time. The work ethic includes the idea of business values, wealth being acceptable if obtained through work, and idleness as a sin (76).

Concern has been raised that the work ethic has diminished (76). Avery (77) contended that the traditional idea that work is a virtue and duty, adhered to by older generations, may not always be applicable currently to the younger generation of workers.

Relationship of Work Values to Job Satisfaction

According to several researchers (6, 8, 38, 78) values of individuals associated with work affect the satisfaction derived from work. Mobley and Locke (78) conducted studies with university students measuring the importance of job aspects and the degree of satisfaction. Job aspects dealing with the work environment and content of work which were valued as important produced more satisfaction when attained and more dissatisfaction when

frustrated than job aspects not valued as important. The overall variability in satisfaction with a job aspect was proportional to the importance of that aspect.

Robey (6) studied the interaction between job content and extrinsic and intrinsic work values of nature, with results showing that the interaction of these two variables affected job satisfaction. He reported that subjects with extrinsic values were more satisfied with a computer task than subjects with intrinsic values; whereas those with intrinsic values were more satisfied with a hand task than individuals with extrinsic values. White and Ruh (79) however, reported no relationship existed between values and job satisfaction. Brief and Aldag (39) studied the Protestant work ethic in relation to satisfaction with leader behavior. Although leader behavior did affect general satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision, the Protestant work ethic was not shown to moderate significantly in this relationship. Stone (26) looked at the Protestant work ethic in relation to satisfaction with the work itself with differences in job scope (variety, autonomy, task identity, and feedback) and found no significant moderating effect.

Job involvement (the psychological importance of work) has been shown to be related to individual differences and characteristics as well as to aspects of the job situation (80, 81). Ruh et al. (80) found the importance of ambition, capability, responsibility, and accomplishment were all positively related to job involvement.

Rabinowitz and co-workers (81) showed growth need strength (the desire for the satisfaction of the higher order needs of personal growth and development or feelings of accomplishment), job scope, and the Protestant ethic to have independent and additive effects on job involvement. Ruh

et al. (80) found the personal background factors of geographic background, urban versus rural background, and education to be related to job involvement.

Factors Related to Work Values

Occupational and social level. The hierarchy of work values has been shown to be different for blue-collar groups than white-collar groups. Friedlander (82) conducted a study in which blue-collar and white-collar workers ranked their work values. The first four choices in order of importance for white-collar workers were: achievement, challenge, use of ability, and freedom. For the blue-collar group the rank order was: co-workers, security, work group, and supervision.

In another study related to differences among occupational levels, Taylor and Thompson (83) found white-collar workers placed greater emphasis on self-expression in work than blue-collar workers. Blue-collar workers tended to be more distrustful of the ecosystem (public officials, politicians, management, supervisors, and general distrust). Friedlander also (7) found blue-collar workers placed more emphasis on work context or the work environment than white-collar workers, whereas white-collar workers placed more emphasis on work content.

Kohn and Schooler (84) found social class position to be related positively to the importance attached to self-direction and the belief that self-direction is possible and desirable. They hypothesized that the lower classes value conformity to work group norms more, because it is all they can expect in their given occupational situations.

Type of occupation and occupational interest. Ritzer (10) stated that one of the functions of professional schools aside from transmission of

knowledge and skills is the transmission of values and norms of professional behavior. Professional occupations, with similar educational requirements, may have values unique to the particular occupation. Gray (85) found the needs and values of teachers, accountants, and mechanical engineers differed significantly, Kilpatrick et al. (75) compared high school teachers, natural and social scientists, and engineers and found differences in values and their importance.

A difference was found between female sophomore, junior, and senior psychology and business majors on the importance of intrinsic outcomes from work with the psychology majors attaching more importance to the intrinsic factors (86). Anderson and Barry's (87) study with college sophomores, however, failed to differentiate students majoring in physical therapy, occupational therapy, and medical technology, according to attitudes, basic abilities, or personality. These groups were all health professions which may explain some similarity in students. It is also possible that by the sophomore year few values have been internalized, as few professional courses would have been completed.

Cleveland's (88) comparison of personality patterns of dietetic interns and nursing students showed unique patterns of personality for each occupation. Stories were created about a series of pictures by the subjects in the study. The dietitians emphasized achievement, success, status, prestige, and power. Nursing students, in contrast, emphasized inactivity and failure to achieve. The same technique was used with nurses and dietitians and showed the same patterns though differences were not as impressive between these two groups as they were between the student groups. A study on interest patterns of dietitians also found the female

dietitians were higher than the general population of women on interest in power and social service (89).

Educational level. Education has been shown to be related to specific work values. Taylor and Thompson (83) found those with higher education placed more value on self-expression in work. The belief that workers took pride in their work was shown to increase as the educational level increased. The less educated tended to be more distrustful of the eco-system.

Kilpatrick et al. (75) also found differences in work values related to educational level. They found that those with higher education showed a stronger, more positive tendency for occupational involvement. Also work held a more central role in life for those with higher education. As education increased workers placed more emphasis on opportunity than security, on the desire to see the result of one's work, on the importance of a chance to develop special individual abilities, on the importance and satisfaction derived from having challenging difficult problems to solve, and on the degree to which the opportunity to direct others was perceived as satisfying. An inverse relationship was found between educational levels and the idea that money and keeping up with the Joneses were necessary for success and status achievement. Attributing success to luck or knowing the right people also had an inverse relationship to amount of education. College graduates valued work more that had a degree of social worth than those with less education.

Sex. Rokeach (68) differentiated between terminal and instrumental values. Terminal values describe an end-state, while instrumental values are modes of behavior preferred for reaching the desired end-states. He found men significantly higher than women on the terminal values of a

comfortable life, an exciting life, a sense of accomplishment, freedom, and pleasure, while women were significantly higher on happiness, inner harmony, self-respect, social recognition, and wisdom. The women were higher on the instrumental values of being cheerful, clean, and forgiving while men valued being ambitious, capable, imaginative, and logical to a greater degree than did women. Similarities between the sexes were shown for sixteen of the thirty-six values. It was hypothesized that women identifying with the women's movement would have a unique value pattern from other females and males.

Kilpatrick et al. (75) found sex differences in work values. Women placed more value on security, interpersonal relationships, and work as an escape from other activities than did men; whereas men valued opportunity, drive to get ahead, competitiveness, and autonomy more highly than did women. In Herrick's (90) study of motives of executives in 1973, however, he found women to differ very little from men in the importance of their needs. The decade span between these studies may explain differences in the findings.

Turner (91) and Taylor and Thompson (83) contended that women seek the intrinsic rewards more than do males. Turner (91) stated that women with high career ambition have a different set of values than men with high ambition. Endorsement of individuality was associated with high ambition in women. He contended that most values which distinguish ambitious men from nonambitious men also distinguish men and women. Turner (91) also theorized that women may place some of their ambitions on their husband, particularly the goals related to socioeconomic status or material aspirations. Taylor and Thompson (83) found females placed more emphasis on

working conditions than on take-home pay. Herrick (90) found women executives placed more emphasis on self-actualization needs than on other needs.

Veiga and Yanouzas (57) conducted a study with women managers to assess what they desired from management positions by assessing their level of disillusionment. Salary was not a significant cause of disillusionment even though women were paid less than men for similar levels of responsibility. The marital status and education of the women made no difference in their level of disillusionment. Staffing and directing were the management functions causing the most disillusionment. The staffing disillusionment was theorized to be a reflection of the younger women's greater needs to influence their employer's attitude. The directing function was responsible for considerable disillusionment in young men as well as young women. The authors conjectured this finding may have been related to the fact that these younger managers are typically lower level managers. However, the disillusionment of the young men was of less magnitude than the young women's.

In a study among white-collar employees in the public sector, Vollmer and Kinney (92) found that women wanted different behavior from supervisors than did men. Fewer women than men desired to be consulted by the supervisor when making important work decisions. Women wanted the supervisor to be friendly and polite and more women than men thought there should be a social distinction between a supervisor and subordinates. More women than men were concerned with human relations skills of their supervisor, while more men than women were concerned with the supervisor's technical skills.

Wagman (93) measured the occupational values of high school senior and university males and females. Value differences between males and females

were related to age or college attendance. Social service was valued more highly in females than males in both groups. Profit was the only value higher in both male groups than in female groups. The high school males valued power and independence higher than did the high school females, while the females placed higher value on interesting experiences. The university male sample valued esteem higher than did the university females.

Age. Age has been shown to be related to certain work values. Younger workers valued the opportunity to learn and the chance for responsibility to a greater degree than did older workers, with the importance of this value declining progressively with increasing age. Distrust of the ecosystem tended to increase with age in blue-collar workers except for the 40 to 49 age group (83). Kilpatrick et al. (75) did not find universal age differences in work values for the groups studied. Two occupations in government showed no significant differences in values between those 40 and over and those under 40. While there were minor differences in most occupations studied, however, there was more concern with the centrality of work in life, the significance of doing well in an occupation, and the ethics and moral goodness of work as age increased. Older workers also agreed more that "doing work that is worthwhile is desirable" and "that earning more money is not important after a certain point." Younger respondents were more concerned than older workers with having an opportunity to get to the top.

Rokeach (68) reported that the set of values including a sense of accomplishment, wisdom, and responsibility had an inverted U-shaped pattern in relation to importance with age. They were low in early adolescence, increased gradually through adolescence and the college years, and then declined slowly for the next fifty years. The value set of imagination,

intellect, logic, and inner harmony were relatively low in all age groups with the exception of the college years when they were moderately important. The values of self-respect, ambition, and broadmindedness as a set were of little importance to young adolescents. The importance of these values, however, increased steadily during adolescence to become of major importance during late adolescence and the college years after which they leveled off and remained important.

Shaw (11) and Klemp (12) found differences among age groups in their studies with foodservice workers. In both studies younger workers placed greater value than did older workers on: seeing the results of their work, work that developed abilities, and carrying out ideas without interference. Older workers, however, placed greater value on work as a way to help forget personal problems. Shaw (11) found that younger workers believed that success was due to hard work more often than did older workers, while older workers attributed success to knowing the right people. Older workers agreed more often that using friends to get ahead in work was all right.

Rural versus urban background. Blood and Hulin (97) postulated that rural workers would be more likely than urban workers to adhere to values typical of the Protestant work ethic. They predicted that rural workers would be more receptive to job enlargement programs with more job responsibility than urban workers; whereas urban workers were predicted to view work only as a means of financial gain. Some support for their theories has been indicated. Turner and Lawrence (98) found that urban-raised workers placed more value on pay than did workers from a rural background. Strauss and Sayles (99) reported that research on rural and urban

blue-collar workers showed the workers from rural background reacted favorably to increases in job challenge.

Measurement of Work Values

Brown (73) noted that only a small number of fully developed value scales are available. Even fewer value scales deal specifically with work values. The Work Values Systems Questionnaire (WVSQ) was adapted by Taylor and Thompson (83) from Dawes and Graen's (94) Youth Opinion Questionnaire (YOQ). The YOQ measures attitudes towards work, vocational needs and preferences, expectations about working, perceptions of the labor market, and basic beliefs and values concerning work. In addition to these items the WVSQ measures ecosystem distrust.

The Miller Occupational Values Indicator (OVI) (95) measures four occupational value variables: career satisfaction, security, social rewards, and prestige. Rosenburg's Occupational Values instrument attempts to categorize respondents into occupational value complexes described as "self-expression-oriented," "people-oriented," and "extrinsic-reward-oriented."

Wollack et al.'s (96) Survey of Work Values was designed to measure a secularized version of the Protestant Ethic. Components of this ethic are pride in work, job involvement, activity preference, social status of job, attitude toward earnings, and upward striving.

Robinson et al. (25) stated that the Occupational Values Scales (75) may be the most inclusive set of value statements about work. This instrument attempts to assess a pattern of occupational values. Intrinsic, extrinsic, and general work factor values are measured through responses to thirty statements on a non-verbal ten-point agree-disagree scale. The

statements deal with financial reward, occupational movement, status and recognition, personal relations on the job, occupational competitiveness, self-development, opportunity versus security, and sense of duty.

Professionalism

Professionals have been defined by Ritzer (100) as having these characteristics: (a) a body of general systematic knowledge; (b) authority over clients; (c) community rather than self-interest, which is related to service rather than monetary gain; (d) membership in occupational associations, training in occupational schools, and existence of a sponsor; (e) recognition by the public of the fact that they are professional; and (f) involvement in the occupational culture. Other values professionals have are autonomy to decide how their services are to be performed, and evaluation of individuals on the basis of professional competence as judged by colleagues (101).

The primary function of professionalism is the protection of standards of excellence in the face of pressures. This function is served by the development of expertise, autonomy, commitment, and responsibility among the members of the profession. Expertise is based on the belief that performance is dependent on specialized knowledge and skill which must be acquired through prolonged education and experience. Autonomy is based on the belief that the qualified professionals are best able to determine how the function ought to be performed, and that each individual must be free to exercise his/her own judgment in the specific case. Commitment is based on the belief that the development and exercise of expertise is worthy of the devotion of a lifetime and carries its own reward. Responsibility is

based on the belief that power conferred by expertise entails a trustee relationship to society (102).

Ritzer (100) stated that individuals may differ on their level of professionalism or the degree they have professional characteristics and values depending on the individual, the organization employing the individual, and the occupation. Intelligence, need achievement, need to dominate others, and involvement in the occupational culture contribute towards professionalism.

Organizational Identification

Organizational Identification Defined

Brown (8) has defined identification with an organization as a multidimensional phenomena containing these characteristics: (a) a notion of membership; (b) a reflection of the current position of the individual; (c) a predictive potential for aspects of performance, motivation to work, spontaneous contribution, and other related behaviors; and (d) a suggestion of differential relevance among motivational factors. Kelman (103) stated that identification occurs when an individual accepts influence because of a desire to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship to another group or person.

Professionals Within Organizations

Ritzer (100) stated that employing organizations may influence workers to pull away from professional loyalties. He also indicated that supervision that is too strict decreases professionalism. The occupational structure of the profession determines how much professional behavior differs from other behavior.

Ritti (104) studied the work goals of scientists and engineers. The engineers were found to be more concerned with business goals and advancement through the business hierarchy; whereas, the scientists were more oriented toward advancement in the profession through research and publication. Therefore, scientists' goals were more professionally oriented than those of engineers; however, the goal orientations for each group related to the nature of advancement possible and valued in their special fields. These findings supported Ritzer's (100) theory of occupational differences in degree of professionalism.

Barber (105), also supported Ritzer's theory on the organizational influence on professionalism. He stated that organizations employing professionals may create opportunities to achieve professional rewards and serve organizational needs as well by encouraging the publication of research, continuation of professional training, and participation in the professional association and by giving advancement in salary for professional work. Thornton (106) concluded from his study of junior college teachers that a professional may have commitments to both the work organization and the profession under the condition that the professional experiences and perceives the organizational situations to reaffirm and exemplify the principles and ideals ascribed to by the profession.

Kornhauser (102) saw goal conflict as leading to struggles over the right to set policies. Control can be exercised on the principle of hierarchy or on the principle of colleagueship, with the former the most common in organizations and the latter, the most acceptable to professionals.

Frederick (107) contended that when the principles and ideals of the profession are challenged by organizations employing large groups of professionals who must work in such organizational settings due to the nature

of their occupation, some type of union organization may result or other collective action may be taken to prevent abuse of professional ideals. An example of such an ideal is the right of physicians to control their activities. The American Medical Association, for instance, has taken a stand behind their members to support this ideal in hospitals where members have believed it was abused.

Factors Related to Organizational Identification

Social orientations. Brown (8) included a notion of membership as one characteristic involved in organizational identification. Lee (108) hypothesized that loyalties develop from associations with people or ideas. He further asserted that personal relationships with fellow workers enhanced the development of organizational loyalty. Large organizations and few intimate relationships in organizations were theorized to decrease organizational loyalty.

Glaser (109) stated that an individual becomes integrated into an organization as groups in the organization serve to fulfill the growth needs in the professional's career. He contended that as new professionals enter an organization, groups are looked upon for support and guidance and for basis to establish their careers. Once established, professionals seek close professional associates which may be in the work organization.

Sheldon (110) found social involvements to be related to organizational commitment. Without social involvements, a withdrawal from commitment to the organization was seen to occur in spite of increased investments of age, position, and length of service.

Hrebiniak and Alutto (111) found an inverse relationship between tension and organizational commitment. The inability to cope with the

interpersonal and social demands within the organization was one of the variables which contributed to tension and decreased organizational commitment. Rotondi (112) failed to find a relationship between organizational identification and the variables of work group identification, occupational identification, and external group identification in either managers or non-managers.

Position. Brown (8) found a greater tendency for individuals to identify with an organization when they had some power within the organization. As stated Rotondi (112) failed to find a significant difference between the organizational identification of managers and non-managers. Sheldon (110) found that organizational position was one of the variables related to organizational commitment when professional commitment was low. Grusky (113) found that managers who had maximum career mobility were more committed to the organization while those with moderate mobility showed no commitment pattern. Hall et al. (114) found organizational commitment not to be related to organizational position when tenure was held constant. Glaser (109) theorized that professionals, once established in their careers, base the decision for organizational commitment partially on the chances for obtaining a supervisory position, and after achieving such a position, settle down within the organization for the remainder of their careers.

Age. Several researchers (110, 111, 115) have shown that age is positively related to commitment to an organization. Gouldner (116) stated that one type of organizational commitment was related to the older age of the individuals. "The elders" have expectations of remaining in the organization for the remaining years of their careers. Friedlander (117)

described a similar group of individuals committed to the organization because of their age. He labeled this group the "old timers."

Tenure. Berger and Grimes (115) found some evidence to support a relationship between organizational identification and tenure. Sheldon (110) however, found length of service to be related to identification with the organization when commitment to the profession was low. Hall et al. (114) found organizational identification to be a function of time. Seniority also was related to identification in the study conducted by Hrebiniak and Alutto (111).

Satisfaction. Grusky (113) found the strength of a worker's attachment to an organization to be influenced by the rewards available and by what must be done to receive them. Brown (8) related organizational identification to satisfaction gained from the organization. He used Atkinson's (118) model, which makes a distinction between two types of satisfaction available from work organizations, symbolic and pragmatic. Symbolic satisfactions are products of ego-involving and intrinsically motivated activities which are self-defining for the individual. Pragmatic satisfactions come from the result of an activity rather than the activity itself and include the extrinsic rewards of money and seniority. Identification was found to depend on the presence of opportunities to satisfy symbolic motivational states. More specifically, Brown (8) found a tendency for individuals to identify with an organization when there were opportunities for personal achievement, when they had some power within the organization, and when there was no competing sources of identification.

Hall et al. (114) found organizational identification to be related to satisfaction of the higher order needs: esteem, autonomy, and self-fulfillment. The importance of the identification to the individual was related

to the satisfaction of autonomy and self-fulfillment but not esteem. Flowers and Hughes (119) studied the relationship between remaining with or leaving an organization and the two variables of job satisfaction and the environmental factors, inside and outside the organization, that affect the determination to continue or terminate work in the organization. Reasons for job satisfaction included achievement, recognition, responsibility, growth, and other matters associated with the motivation of the individual to work. Environmental pressures inside the organization included work rules, facilities, coffee breaks, benefits, and wages. Environmental pressures outside the organization included outside job opportunities, community relations, financial obligations, and family ties.

From these relationships Flowers and Hughes (119) developed four categories to describe the relationship between remaining with or leaving an organization and job satisfaction and environmental factors: (a) The "turn-overs" were dissatisfied with their job, and had few environmental pressures to keep them in the organization. They were expected to leave at the first opportunity. (b) The "turn-offs" were dissatisfied with their jobs but stayed for environmental reasons. (c) The "turn-ons" were satisfied with their jobs, and had few environmental pressures to make them stay with the organization. (d) The "turn-ons-plus" were satisfied with their jobs and had environmental pressures which pushed them to stay.

Dodson and Haskew (120) used Flowers and Hughes' construct (119) to study public workers. The majority of workers fell into the turnover category. Reasons given by those more positively oriented towards staying were dominated by the environmental factors. Satisfaction factors, however, always were ranked as most important by employees as reasons for staying. As tenure increased the number of satisfiers listed as reasons

for staying decreased. Outside environmental factors were found to contribute in a very limited way to decisions to remain a public employee.

Hrebiniak and Alutto (111) found that organizational commitment was inversely related to the degree of dissatisfaction with organizational reward and recognition policies. The perception of inducements to stay and contributions demanded from the individual and the rate of job progress were determinates in the development of the desire to seek alternate positions elsewhere. An inverse relationship was found to exist between tension and organizational commitment. Tension was determined as a measure of the respondent's feelings of uncertainty about role requirements, insufficiency of organizational authority, inadequacy of organizational resources and facilities, and inability to cope with the interpersonal and social demands within the organization. As the level of tension increased the level of organizational commitment was seen to decrease significantly.

Other variables. Hrebiniak and Alutto (111) looked at several demographic variables and their relationship to organizational commitment. Females showed less propensity to change work organizations than their male counterparts. Single respondents were more likely than married or separated subjects to be positively disposed toward employment opportunities in other organizations, and women especially attached greater costs to interorganizational mobility. Those not planning further formal education exhibited more organizational commitment than respondents with plans for more education or those undecided about more education. Higher levels of interpersonal trust were associated with higher degrees of organizational commitment, while authoritarianism showed no relationship with commitment. Employees from blue-collar backgrounds exhibited less commitment than those from households headed by self-employed individuals, white-collar or

managerial employees, and professionals. Religious affiliation affected commitment, with Protestants more committed than other groups.

Cosmopolitan versus Local Orientations

The professional employee has membership within the professional occupation and within the employing organization. A professional whose main loyalty is to the professional group has been labeled a cosmopolitan. Cosmopolitans seek to gain status within the professional group, adhere closely to the professional ideology, and seek the approval of professional colleagues outside as well as within the work organization. A professional whose main loyalty is to the employing organization has been labeled a local. Locals seek advancement in management positions within the organization, identify with organizational goals and values, and seek recognition primarily from organizational superiors (121). Avery (122) stated that the true local or cosmopolitan is probably rare, with most professionals oriented in both directions and likely to try to extract the advantages from both sources. Avery theorized that the normal organizational acculturation process which includes learning to work in the organization and learning to behave according to organizational expectations for the professional facilitates transformation of a potential cosmopolitan into a local-cosmopolitan.

Glaser (123) stated that cosmopolitan and local orientations also can be seen as two dimensions of orientation in the same individual, each activated at the appropriate time and place as determined by the organizational structure within which the professional works. The locals and cosmopolitans needs diverge only when the goals of the organization and the

profession conflict. Glaser used a contingency table to explain the circumstances in which different orientations will emerge (Table 1).

Table 1: Relationship of organizational and professional goals and professional motivation

institutional and organizational goals	professional motivation		
	high	medium	low
same as professional goals	basic research local-cosmopolitan		local
different from professional goals	cosmopolitan	applied research local-cosmopolitan	local

Source: Glaser (123)

Gouldner (116) divided locals and cosmopolitans into several different types. There were four local types: (a) The "dedicated" identify with the ideology of the work organization and are committed to the organization. They are more concerned that colleagues possess certain local value orientations rather than technical competencies. (b) The "true bureaucrats" are dedicated and loyal to the organization itself rather than the ideology it proclaims. They subscribe to the values found in the community of local environment. Concern is with the security of the organization, which they attempt to assure through authoritarianism and formal regulations to control the behaviors of others. (c) The "home-guard" identifies most with the department. They tend to be in middle administration, and female. Often they have a familial tie with the organization. (d) The "elders" are the older members with the most tenure who identify with the organization and intend or expect to stay employed by the organization

indefinitely. Age is at least part of the reason for their commitment. They identify with an informal peer group their age with similar tenure. Elders evaluate the present organization in terms of its past.

Two cosmopolitan groups were identified: (a) the "outsiders" who are committed only to their specialized skills and an outside colleague reference group, and (b) the "empire builders" who have commitment to their specialized roles. This second group complains of too much demand for their time in extracurricular activities. They are committed to their specific department and emphasize departmental autonomy (116).

Hrebiniak and Alutto (111) found professional versus organizational pressures had little impact on seeking employment in an organization more consonant with professional ideals and desired role activities. Organizational commitment was not found to vary as a function of perceived role conflict.

Friedlander (117) studied research, professional, and local orientations of scientists in six different disciplines. The "research oriented scientists" were somewhat professionally oriented, currently at high salary levels, and tended to have entered the organization at a relatively high level and advanced only a limited amount. These scientists tended to remain with the organization which rewarded them with high salary and recognition of their scientific performance. Physiologists, chemists, and physicists tended to be highest in this orientation, while psychologists and mathematicians tended to be low or the organization tended not to reward these disciplines with either high salary or recognition of their research. The "professional scientist" had the highest orientation towards the values of the profession and had high participation in professional activities and high education. The organization tended not to reward these

scientists with promotion. There was a significant tendency for the professionally oriented scientists to remain with their organization, although it was less pronounced than with the research or local oriented groups. It was assumed that the professionally oriented scientists valued the organization as a place which provided the facilities and stimulation necessary for them to do their professional work. The physiologists, chemists, and psychologists seemed to be the most professionally oriented, while the engineers and mathematicians appeared to have less professional orientation. The "old-timers" were oriented towards the local organization. They contributed a measure of research or scientific wisdom and continuity to the organization. This group had the strongest tendency to remain with the organization probably due to age or lack of either research or professional performance.

Thompson et al. (124) developed a model with four career strategies which relate to organizational and professional commitment: (a) the stable strategy which maintains the individual in one position within one work organization; (b) the occupational strategy in which the individual explores opportunities within his or her field and is not committed to any work organization; (c) the organizational strategy in which the individual explores the job alternatives within one organization without loyalty to any specialty or field; and (d) the heuristic strategy in which the primary interest of the individual is in advancement, regardless of the occupation or organization.

METHODOLOGY

The Study Sample

The sample for the study was drawn from a membership listing of The American Dietetic Association of full-time hospital dietitians classified in four specialities: foodservice management, clinical, generalist, and management. An objective of the study was to compare attitudes and values of professionals and non-professionals in the foodservice field. Other studies (11, 12) among hospital foodservice workers provided the data base for the non-professional group. Shaw (11) and Klemp (12) conducted their studies with non-professional hospital foodservice workers in two midwestern states. Because comparisons were to be made with these studies this research was limited to nine midwestern states: Colorado, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, and South Dakota. This regional area had similar characteristics to that encompassed by the other two studies. Hospital dietitians were chosen for the study for two reasons; the non-professional sample included only hospital foodservice workers and the majority of dietitians are employed by hospitals. According to The American Dietetic Association membership data analysis (125, 126), 51 per cent of all employed dietitians work in hospitals. The total population of hospital dietitians in the nine states who met the criteria for the study was 867. An approximate 50 per cent random sample of the population of each state was selected. The total sample for distribution of the research instrument was 430.

The Instrument

The research instrument (Appendix A) for this study was comprised of four parts: Section I, biographical and demographic information; Section II, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) which measured job satisfaction; Section III, work values scale; and Section IV, measures of organizational loyalty and identification. Since the study involved use of standardized or previously tested scales and standard survey methodology, a pilot study or pretest was not considered necessary.

Section I

The first section of the instrument obtained biographical information about the respondent and information about the employing hospital. Biographical items were: size and geographic location of childhood community, education, years of membership in The American Dietetic Association, number of years and reasons for time outside the work force, age, size of family unit, percentage of family income contributed, sex, and marital status. Information obtained about the hospital included size, number of dietitians on the staff, amount of tenure, present position, and the number of hours worked weekly.

Section II

The Job Descriptive Index or JDI, developed by Smith and co-workers (19), comprised the second section. The instrument was the result of extensive research in which 952 employees in seven organizations participated. The JDI was designed to measure job satisfaction with five components of work: the work itself, supervision received, pay, promotion, and co-workers (Table 2). The instrument contains 72 descriptors. Eighteen descriptors

are concerned with each of three components: the work itself, supervision, and co-workers; and nine descriptors each with pay and promotion. The descriptors are words or phrases which may describe a person's job. Some are negative, others are positive. The respondent is asked to indicate "Y" if the item describes the job, a question mark "?" if he or she is not sure, and an "N" if the item does not describe the job.

Table 2: Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

JDI component	number of descriptors[1] (items)	maximum score[2]
work	18	54
supervision	18	54
pay	9	27
promotion	9	27
co-workers	18	54

[1]Each component has positive and negative descriptors. Item scores are weighted to reflect higher satisfaction.

[2]Item scores are summed for component score. Maximum item score = 3. Pay and promotion scores are often doubled in analysis to provide comparison with other scores.

The scoring for the positive and negative items is shown in Table 3. The scores have a linear relationship with job satisfaction. A high score indicates high job satisfaction. Smith et al. (19) determined the reliability of the JDI to be between .74 and .79 depending upon the technique of scoring used

Klemp (12) used the JDI in her study with non-professional foodservice workers. The format from that study was used so that direct comparisons

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

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

Table 3: (cont.)

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

Scoring: + = positive indicator
- = negative indicator

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

could be made with the job satisfaction findings from the non-professional hospital foodservice employees.

Section III

The third section of the instrument, the work values scale, was adapted by Shaw (11) from the Kilpatrick et al.'s study of occupational values (75). Kilpatrick and co-workers studied the image of the federal service for employment and occupation values of importance to present-day Americans. These researchers conducted personal interviews with over 5,000 people in a national cross sample of occupations.

Shaw (11) selected thirty value statements from Kilpatrick et al.'s (75) instrument (Table 4). The ten point agree-disagree scale used in Kilpatrick et al.'s study was modified by Shaw to a four point scale: strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree.

Shaw (11) used factor analysis to develop scales from the thirty items (Table 5). Appendix B includes data from Shaw's factor analysis. Nine work value scales resulted:

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

Work is valued for the intrinsic rewards gained. Making friends, helping others, serving God, using and developing talents, building character, gaining increased respect from peers and seeing the results of work are valued.

II. Drive and ambition (three items)

Work is valued as an avenue for achievement. Success is believed to be hard work. Getting to the top, directing the work of others, and having material possessions are seen as worthwhile rewards.

Table 4: Value statements

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

Table 4: (cont.)

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

Table 5: Factors identified by Shaw (11) from analysis of value statements

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

III. Knowing the right people (three items)

Success is seen as the result of luck or knowing the right people.

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

Work is valued as a means of achievement of personal objectives. Success is seen as important even at the expense of other aspects of life. Work is a way to forget about personal problems.

V. Work as a necessary evil (four items)

Work is viewed as having value only for the extrinsic rewards gained from working.

VI. Ego satisfaction (three items)

Work is valued for the enjoyment gained from actually doing the task, for the recognition gained, and from doing a better job than peers.

VII. Individualism (three items)

The emphasis here is on individual opportunity. Work is valued for the opportunity it presents rather than for security. Friends may be used opportunistically to get ahead. However, how hard a person works is viewed as his or her personal business.

VIII. Social idealism (four items)

Work is valued for the service and benefits it gives to others.

IX. Self-concept (one item)

Work is valued as a means of satisfying the self-concept of the individual as a successful member of his or her occupation.

Section IV

The final section, comprised of thirty-nine items, was adapted from an instrument used by Jauch and co-workers (127) in a hospital management study to measure organizational identification and loyalty. This section focused on three aspects of organizational identification: (a) goal emphasis, (b) pride in work and personal job identification, and (c) individual loyalty to and evaluation of the organization. Also, two items were concerned with overall job satisfaction.

Thirteen possible goals of a hospital foodservice were rated as extremely important, very important, moderate importance, little importance, or not at all important. Table 6 lists the possible foodservice goals. Respondents also were asked to select five goals as most important among the thirteen goals presented.

Items comprising pride and identification with work and evaluation and loyalty are listed in Table 7. Five-point Likert-type response categories were used for each item. Table 8 lists the ten scores, items comprising each score, and the maximum score.

Table 6: Possible goals of a hospital foodservice

1a.	Quality foodservice
b.	Provide nutrition education for hospital staff
c.	Provide efficient low cost food service
d.	Have best equipment and facilities
e.	Have a good staff-patient relationship
f.	Have good relationships with employees
g.	Provide a friendly and pleasant environment for patients and visitors
h.	Be involved in community outreach programs (meals on wheels, nutrition classes, etc.)
i.	Quality nutrition care for patients
j.	Provide foodservice for hospital staff
k.	Provide foodservice for family and visitors
l.	Active participation on health care team
m.	Provide outpatient nutrition counseling

Table 7: Organizational identification measures

Pride and identification with work:

2. If a group of your friends were visiting your hospital how would you feel about:

   a. Showing them your facilities?
   b. Introducing them to your fellow workers?

3. a. If I were free to go, I would move to another job.
   b. There are very few people at work with whom I can share my interests.
   c. It is hard to get to know people here because they are cool and aloof.
   d. Most of the staff here are loyal to the hospital.

Evaluation and loyalty:

4. How does your hospital compare to other places of employment in the community with regard to the following?

   a. pay
   b. hours
   c. fringe benefits
   d. opportunities for promotion
   e. opportunity to serve the community
   f. chance to be somebody in the community
   g. stability of employment
   h. working conditions

5. In comparing your hospital to other similar hospitals, how do you rank your foodservice on the following:

   a. quality of food
   b. quality of staff
   c. facilities
   d. friendliness of work environment
   e. support of medical staff
   f. support of community

6. Overall, what is the reputation of your hospital as a place to work compared with other places of employment in the community?

7. Overall, what is the community's attitude about the quality of patient care at your hospital?

8. Overall, what is the attitude of the community about the friendliness of your hospital?

Table 8: Organizational identification and loyalty scores

score	items comprising score[1]	maximum value[2]
goal emphasis		
1. quality patient service goal emphasis	1a, 1i, 1l	15
2. non-patient services goal emphasis	1b, 1j, 1k	15
3. efficiency goal emphasis	1c, 1d	10
4. interpersonal goal emphasis	1e, 1f, 1g	15
5. outreach goal emphasis	1h, 1m	10
pride and identification with work		
6. pride in organization	2a, 2b	10
7. personal identification with work	3a-d	20
evaluation and loyalty		
8. desirability of hospital as employer	4a-h	40
9. image of hospital foodservice	5a-f	30
10. community image of hospital	6, 7, 8	15

[1] Item numbers refer to Part IV of the research instrument.

[2] Item scores were summed to compute scores. Maximum item score = 5; items stated negatively were reverse scored in computation of scores.

Distribution of the Instrument

A cover letter explaining the purpose of the study was mailed with each questionnaire. A self-addressed stamped envelope was included to facilitate return of the instruments. Each questionnaire was numbered to identify non-respondents for purposes of follow-up. Six weeks after the first questionnaire was mailed a follow-up letter and a second questionnaire were mailed to those not responding to the first mailing. Appendix C contains copies of the correspondence.

Data Analyses

Criterion variables used to measure job satisfaction, work values, and organizational identification are listed in Table 9. Interrelationships among scores, comparisons with other studies, and the effects of demographic data were studied using these scores.

Frequency distributions were compiled for each demographic variable in section I of the instrument. The demographic items used for comparative analysis with criterion measures are listed in Table 10.

Job Satisfaction Analyses

The t-test for independent samples was computed to compare mean JDI scores from Klemp's (12) study of non-professional workers with the scores of the dietitians. One-way analyses of variance were used to compare means on the JDI components of satisfaction with work, supervision, pay, promotion, co-workers, and the overall satisfaction score with the following variables: years in profession, size of institution, number of dietitians employed, length of employment with institution, present position, years in present position, portion of family income from job, and age. The Scheffé

Table 9: Criterion variables of study

job satisfaction	organizational identification and loyalty scores
work	quality, patient service goal emphasis
supervision	nonpatient service goal emphasis
pay	efficiency goal emphasis
promotion	interpersonal goal emphasis
co-workers	outreach goal emphasis
overall score	pride in organization
	personal identification with work
work value scores	desirability of hospital as employer
overall valuing of work	image of hospital foodservice
drive--ambition	community image of hospital
knowing the right people	
work as a central life interest	
work as a necessary evil	
ego satisfaction	
individualism	
social idealism	
self-concept	

Table 10: Demographic items used for analyses of criterion variables

childhood community size	present position
years employed in profession	length of time in present position
years unemployed	age
institution size	portion of family income from job
number of dietitians	marital status
length of employment	

test was used to study differences among groups. Also, the JDI scores were intercorrelated with the two overall satisfaction items from section IV: satisfaction with position and satisfaction with work environment (128, 129).

Analyses of Work Values Scores

The t-test was used to compare means on the nine work value factor scores from Shaw's (11) and Klemp's (12) research among non-professional hospital foodservice workers with those of the dietitians. Analyses of variance were computed to compare the means for groups defined as follows: childhood community size, years unemployed, age, marital status, and present position. The Scheffé test was used to study differences among groups (128, 129).

Organizational Identification and Loyalty Measures

Means, standard deviations, and frequency distributions were compiled for each variable in section IV of the instrument. One-way analyses of variance were computed to study the ten organizational identification mean scores among the following categories: present position, length of employment at the institution, years in profession, size of institution, and number of dietitians. The Scheffé test also was used to study differences among groups (128, 129).

Interrelationships Among Criterion Scores

Stepwise multiple regression analyses were used to identify predictors of job satisfaction scores. Organizational identification scores were the independent variables in the equations (129, 130).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Survey Returns

Total response was 75 per cent after initial and follow-up mailings (N = 323). Twenty-three instruments were not used because of incomplete or incorrect responses or because respondents did not meet the criteria of the study regarding job position or residency. The total number of instruments used for preliminary data analysis was 299. Four additional questionnaires from male respondents were dropped because the sample was limited to females. Also, fifteen were from dietitians who worked only part time. The study was designed to evaluate work-related attitudes and values of full-time professional personnel. Therefore, 65 per cent of the instruments (N = 280) distributed were used in the final analyses.

The responses from the nine states varied between 92 per cent from South Dakota to 63 per cent from Nebraska. Table 11 shows the return rate from each state.

Characteristics of the Sample

Characteristics of the sample are shown in Table 12. A large majority of the respondents grew up in the midwest in a community with a population under 25,000. The respondents were distributed fairly evenly into three age groups: 30 and under, 31 to 50, and over 50.

Marital status of the sample differed slightly from the national average. Nationally, 63 per cent of employed women classified as professionals were married, according to U.S. Department of Labor statistics

Table 11: Instrument return percentages by state

state	N sent	% returned
Colorado	68	85
Iowa	47	66
Kansas	43	79
Minnesota	88	78
Missouri	92	70
Nebraska	36	63
North Dakota	12	92
Oklahoma	31	70
South Dakota	13	85
Total	430	75

(131); whereas the percentage was 60 per cent in this study. The 1976 and 1977 American Dietetic Association membership data analyses (125, 126) showed 66 per cent were married; however, these statistics include employed and unemployed members.

The highest educational level for a majority of the sample was a Bachelor's degree. Master's degrees were held by only 16 per cent. Dietetics, institutional management, or foods and nutrition were the majors of 93 per cent of those with Bachelor's degrees and 75 per cent with master's degrees. The dominant route to membership in The American Dietetic Association (ADA) was through a dietetic internship program (81 per cent); whereas this route was listed for 76 per cent of the members in the 1977 data analysis of the ADA membership (126).

Table 12: Characteristics of the study sample

characteristic	N	%
area of country in childhood		
northwest	6	2.0
west	21	7.0
southwest	19	6.4
midwest	222	74.5
southeast	11	3.7
northwest	14	4.7
outside of U.S.	5	1.7
childhood community		
over 150,000	55	18.6
25,000 to 150,000	49	16.5
2,500 to 25,000	79	26.8
less than 2,500	112	38.0
state residency		
Colorado	54	18.0
Iowa	30	10.0
Kansas	34	11.4
Missouri	61	20.4
Minnesota	59	19.7
Nebraska	21	7.0
North Dakota	9	3.0
Oklahoma	20	6.7
South Dakota	11	3.7
sex		
male	4	1.4
female	287	98.6
age group		
24 years or under	10	3.4
25 to 30 years	98	33.6
31 to 50 years	103	35.3
51 or more years	81	27.7
marital status		
not married	114	39.3
married	176	60.7

Table 12: (cont.)

characteristic	N	%
size of family unit		
just myself	86	29.5
myself plus one	100	34.2
myself plus 2	44	15.1
myself plus 3	39	13.4
myself plus 4	23	7.9
per cent of income provider		
sole provider	103	35.9
over two-thirds	27	9.4
less than two-thirds	149	49.8
other	8	2.8
most advanced degree		
bachelor's	248	82.9
master's	49	16.4
Ph.D.	1	.3
major field for bachelor's		
dietetics	272	93.5
home economics education	3	4.9
other education	1	1.6
other	11	18.0
ADA membership route		
coordinated undergraduate program	14	4.7
internship	241	80.9
traineeship	13	4.4
work experience	27	9.1
advanced degree	3	1.0
years of ADA membership		
one year or less	2	.7
2 to 5 years	98	32.8
6 to 10 years	47	15.7
11 to 20 years	63	21.1
over 20 years	89	29.8

Table 12: (cont.)

characteristic	N	%
years in the profession		
less than 5 years	81	27.1
5 to 10 years	70	23.4
11 to 25 years	106	35.5
more than 25 years	42	14.0
unemployed since graduation	165	55.2
unemployed to attend school	14	10.4[1]
unemployed to raise a family	91	67.9[1]
unemployed for other reasons	36	26.7[1]
total years unemployed[1]		
less than one year	34	25.4
one year to 3 years	33	24.6
3 years to 5 years	12	9.0
over 5 years	55	41.0
size of hospital		
under 100 beds	26	8.8
101 to 300 beds	103	34.9
301 to 500 beds	84	28.5
over 500 beds	79	26.8
number of dietitians		
one	53	18.0
2 to 5	105	35.6
6 to 10	106	35.8
11 to 20	20	6.7
21 to 28	10	3.5
length of time worked there		
6 months or less	9	3.1
6 months to 3 years	84	28.7
3 years to 5 years	53	18.1
5 years to 10 years	67	22.4
more than 10 years	80	27.3

[1]% computed as ratio of 165 unemployed. Total does not add to 100 because some indicated more than one reason.

Table 12: (cont.)

characteristic	N	%
present position		
director of department	77	27.0
head administrative dietitian	15	5.3
head clinical dietitian	40	14.0
administrative staff dietitian	19	6.7
clinical staff dietitian	86	28.8
generalist	35	12.3
other	13	4.6
years employed in present position		
one year or less	34	11.6
2 to 5 years	149	50.9
6 to 10 years	59	20.1
11 or more years	51	17.4
basis of employment		
full time	281	94.9
part time	15	5.1
number of hours per week		
less than 40 hours	17	6.7
40 hours	209	82.3
more than 40 hours	28	11.0

The respondents' membership in ADA was distributed among several categories; about a third had been members five years or less; 16 per cent, six to ten years; and over 50 per cent had been members over ten years. The pattern of years employed in the profession was similar.

Since graduation from college, 45 per cent had been out of the work force for a period of time. Half of those were unemployed for less than three years. The predominant reason for unemployment since college graduation was to raise a family.

Most respondents were employed in hospitals over 100 beds; 55 per cent were employed in hospitals over 301 beds. Eighteen per cent of the respondents were the only dietitian employed by their hospitals. Approximately a third worked in an institution with two to five dietitians on staff and another third worked in hospitals with six to ten dietitians. The remainder were on staffs with more than ten dietitians.

A large majority had been on staff for at least three years at the hospital where they were presently employed; whereas, 27 per cent had been on staff for more than ten years. Directors of departments accounted for 27 per cent of the respondents, an additional 12 per cent were in administration, 43 per cent were clinical dietitians, and 12 per cent indicated they were generalist dietitians.

Job Satisfaction

Comparisons with Other Studies

Comparison of the mean JDI scores of the dietitians with those of the non-professional workers from Klemp's (12) research indicated the dietitian's job satisfaction scores differed significantly on four of the five work components (Table 13). The dietitians were significantly more

Table 13: Comparison of job satisfaction scores (JDI) of hospital dietitians and hospital foodservice employees

JDI component	hospital dietitians[1] mean s.d.	hospital employees[2] mean s.d.	t value
work	40.14 ± 8.56	28.29 ± 12.63	9.78***
supervision	40.59 ± 12.62	37.40 ± 13.13	2.30**
pay	35.04 ± 11.50	24.03 ± 14.93	7.42***
promotion	20.50 ± 15.03	22.23 ± 15.60	1.06
co-worker	44.25 ± 9.70	36.75 ± 12.98	5.83***
overall satisfaction[3]	180.01 ± 39.90	147.62 ± 47.28	6.57***

[1]N varies from 258 to 280.

[2]Source: (13); N varies from 123 to 132.

[3]Overall satisfaction = Σ of scores: work + supervision + co-worker + 2 (pay + promotion).

** $p < .01$
*** $p \leq .001$

satisfied with the work itself, supervision, pay, and co-workers. Overall job satisfaction of the dietitians was also significantly different from that of the non-professional foodservice workers. The mean overall satisfaction score for the dietitians was 22 per cent higher than the employee mean score. Non-professional foodservice employees had a slightly higher mean score on promotion than did the dietitians, however this difference was not statistically significant.

Shapiro and Stern (51) used a modified version of the JDI in studying job satisfaction among professional and non-professional females. A similar pattern of satisfaction resulted from their study. Satisfaction

with the work itself, pay, and supervision were all higher for the professionals compared to the non-professionals. Adams et al. (53) found job level to be related positively to satisfaction with work, pay, and co-workers. The mean for satisfaction with promotion also was higher for Shapiro and Stern's sample of non-professional women than it was for the professional sample. Weaver (27) indicated that advancement was more important to those with more education. Perhaps the educational background differences between the dietitians and foodservice workers accounts for the slightly lower mean scores of the dietitians on the promotion component. Also, the dietitians may perceive relatively few opportunities for upward mobility within their employing organizations.

The JDI scores of the dietitians were compared with those reported by Smith et al. (19) from a large sample of over 600 female workers (Table 14). The dietitians had higher mean scores than the national sample on

Table 14: Comparison of JDI component mean scores with data from Smith's et al. (19) study

JDI component	this study mean	s.d.	Smith's (19) study[1] mean	s.d.
work	40.14	± 8.56	35.74	± 9.88
supervision	40.59	± 12.62	41.13	± 10.05
pay[2]	35.04	± 11.50	27.90	± 13.65
promotion[2]	20.50	± 15.03	17.77	± 13.88
co-workers	44.25	± 9.78	42.09	± 10.51

[1]Only Smith's et al. (19) female sample was included.

[2]Scores were doubled for comparison with other components. Maximum score was 27.

four components of work: the work itself, pay, promotion, and co-workers. Supervision mean scores were slightly lower for the dietitians than for the national sample.

Relationships Between Biographical Data and JDI

The work itself. The number of years of employment in the dietetic profession was related to satisfaction with the work itself (Table 15). A number of significant differences were found between experience groups. Those with ten years or less experience as dietitians were less satisfied than those with eleven or more years in the profession. Satisfaction with the work itself increased as dietitians had more experience except for a slight decrease after twenty-five years. The decrease in satisfaction, however, of those with more than twenty-five years was not significantly less than those with eleven to twenty-five years and their satisfaction with the work itself was significantly greater than those with ten years or less experience. Morse (24) found satisfaction to increase with tenure in the organization. An additional analysis was done in this study that compared data among groups based on years employed in present organization. Although differences were not significant, mean scores increased with each successive group, i.e., those with longest tenure were most satisfied and those with shortest tenure were least satisfied with the work itself.

Directors of dietetics were the most satisfied with the work itself; they were significantly more satisfied than clinical or administrative staff dietitians. Generalist dietitians were the next most satisfied with the work itself, although their mean score was not significantly different from those in other positions. Generalist dietitians might be expected to have a high level of satisfaction because of the variety of responsibilities or greater job scope of their position.

Table 15: Analyses of effect of demographic variables on JDI scores[1]

score variable	N	mean and s.d.	F[2]
work itself			
years in profession			
less than 5 years	70	37.1 ± 9.00	
5-10 years	63	39.1 ± 8.24	
11-25 years	96	43.1 ± 7.12	
more than 25 years	38	41.9 ± 8.19	8.34***
position			
director	70	43.4 ± 7.08	
administrative	27	38.0 ± 9.93	
clinical	117	38.9 ± 8.96	
generalist	32	40.0 ± 6.78	4.959**
age			
less than 30 years	97	37.1 ± 8.87	
31-50 years	96	41.6 ± 7.45	
51 or more years	74	43.2 ± 7.49	13.93***
supervision			
age			
30 years or less	94	37.5 ± 14.53	
31-50 years	94	42.6 ± 10.44	
51 or more years	70	41.6 ± 12.45	4.172*

[1] Data shown for significant findings only.

[2] F ratio; one way analyses of variance with Scheffé test for comparison of means among groups. Lines between means indicate significant difference at .05 level.

* $P \leq .05$
** $P \leq .01$
*** $P \leq .001$

Table 15: (cont.)

score variable	N	mean and s.d.	F
pay			
years in profession			
less than 5 years	70	35.4 ± 11.36	
5-10 years	61	31.5 ± 12.48	
11-25 years	93	37.4 ± 10.75	
more than 25 years	36	36.2 ± 11.05	3.36*
age			
less than 30 years	95	34.4 ± 12.30	
31-50 years	95	33.5 ± 11.43	
51 or more years	70	39.2 ± 9.71	5.72**
co-workers			
size of institution			
300 beds or smaller	113	42.4 ± 10.56	
301 to 500 beds	73	45.5 ± 8.61	
over 500 beds	69	46.4 ± 8.95	4.50**
overall satisfaction			
position			
director	63	194.9 ± 40.30	
administrative	24	177.3 ± 36.68	
clinical	111	173.5 ± 41.56	
generalist	29	177.6 ± 29.66	4.10**
age			
less than 30 years	91	170.4 ± 38.21	
31-50 years	91	185.7 ± 37.94	
51 or more years	65	188.4 ± 42.42	5.10**

* $P \leq .05$
** $P \leq .01$

Differences among age groups with satisfaction with the work itself showed a similar pattern to findings among experience groups. The 51 and over age group had the highest satisfaction with the work itself of the groups studied. Significant differences were found between those 30 years of age or younger and those over 31 years. Age has been shown to be related positively to satisfaction with work by a number of researchers over a period of time: Morse (34) in 1953, Friedlander (47) in 1963, Glen et al. (56) in 1977. Veiga and Yanouzas (57) similarly found disillusionment to be more likely in female managers under the age of 35 than those older. Taylor and Thompson (83) found younger workers valued the opportunity to learn or the chance for responsibility to a greater degree than did older workers, with the importance of this value declining progressively with increasing age. Perhaps this difference in the importance of certain aspects of work between the age groups partially explains the difference in satisfaction with work.

Supervision. Age was the only demographic variable with any significant differences in satisfaction with supervision. Again, it was the younger dietitians with lower satisfaction. Those 30 years of age or less had significantly lower mean scores on satisfaction with supervision than those in the 31 to 50 age group. Those over 51 had a slightly lower mean score, though not significant, than those in the 31 to 50 age group.

Loyd and Vaden (102) found that those dietitians employed the longest typically emphasized the importance of close supervision of entry level dietitians, while those dietitians new to the profession believed less supervision was necessary. Typically dietitians with more experience and hence, older, are in supervisory capacities over the less experienced younger dietitians. This difference of opinion on the amount of supervision

necessary may account for the low satisfaction scores of the young dietitians new to the profession.

Pay. Satisfaction with pay had a complex relationship with years in the profession. Mean satisfaction with pay scores for those with five to ten years in the profession were lower than other groups and were significantly lower than those with eleven to twenty-five years experience. Dietitians with less than five years in the profession had a fairly high level of satisfaction with pay. Dietitians in this group were more recent college graduates and this job may be their first full time permanent position. The salary level may seem quite adequate after recently experiencing financial constraints of college life.

Morse (34) found that perception of pay as equitable was necessary to prevent dissatisfaction. Perhaps dietitians with five to ten years membership in the profession believed their experience warranted higher pay than they received; while those with eleven to twenty-five years of experience may have been resigned to accepting less than they felt they deserved, or the pay scale favored their position or experience level. Data were not available on salary levels; however, these statistics would have been interesting for comparison with satisfaction scores.

Age had a U-shaped pattern relationship with satisfaction with pay. Those in the 31 to 50 year age group were significantly less satisfied than those under 31 or over 50 years of age. The drop in satisfaction in the middle age group may be due to the same factors which caused the low satisfaction among the dietitians with five to ten years membership in the profession.

Co-workers. Organizational size was found to be related positively to satisfaction with co-workers. Those employed in hospitals with less than

301 beds were significantly less satisfied than those on staffs of hospitals over 500 beds. This finding conflicts with the findings of others (64-66). Kerr et al. (63), however, found workers in larger departments to be more satisfied. Perhaps it can be explained, however, by the fact that larger institutions would have more dietitians; whereas the smaller institutions would have fewer employees in the dietitian's peer group. Glaser (109) contended that professionals, once established in their careers, seek close professional associates which may be in the work organization. Also, the larger institutions would have dietitians functioning in specialist capacities more often than in smaller hospitals. Possibly this environment thus would be perceived in a more positive light.

Overall satisfaction. Present position in the organization was shown to be related to overall job satisfaction. Directors of dietetics were significantly more satisfied overall with their job than clinical dietitians. The directors were more satisfied than administrative or generalist dietitians, although the differences were not significant. As indicated satisfaction with the work itself also was highest among the directors.

The overall level of satisfaction among the dietitians as a group appeared to be high. Responses to a general question on satisfaction with position in the hospital showed that 39 per cent were well satisfied and 43 per cent were satisfied (Table 16). A large majority of the dietitians indicated they were satisfied with the work environment; 32 per cent characterized it as very favorable and 45 per cent as favorable.

Correlations between these general satisfaction questions and the JDI are shown in Table 17. The correlations of the two general satisfaction items with the JDI components work, supervision, and the overall job satisfaction were fairly high; all were between .50 and .59. These findings

Table 16: Responses to items concerning overall job satisfaction

item	response categories	%
In general, how satisfied would you say you are with your position in this hospital?	well satisfied	39.1
	satisfied	43.4
	neither	10.4
	unsatisfied	5.1
	very unsatisfied	2.0
Taking all things into consideration--facilities, equipment, working conditions, administrators, co-workers, etc., how would you characterize your work environment?	very favorable	32.1
	favorable	45.3
	adequate	18.6
	unfavorable	3.4
	very unfavorable	0.7

N varies from 293 to 296.

Table 17: Correlations between JDI components and overall satisfaction items

item[1]	work	supervision	pay	promotion	co-workers	overall job satisfaction
In general, how satisfied would you say you are with your position in this hospital?	.53	.50	.27	.34	.32	.56
Taking all things into consideration--facilities, equipment, working conditions, administrators, co-workers, etc., how would you characterize your own work environment?	.55	.55	.26	.32	.38	.59

[1] $r. 10, P \leq .05$.

N varies from 245 to 272.

suggest that for the dietitians, the work itself and supervision may be the most important aspects of job satisfaction. Professionals in other studies have shown similar concern with the work itself and supervision. Weaver (27) found that work importance which resulted in a feeling of accomplishment was the job characteristic most valued by professionals. Autonomy was among the most important variables for satisfaction of professionals reported by Costello and Lee (29).

Analyses of Work Values

Professional and Non-professional Differences

Significant differences were found on four of nine work value factor scores between the dietitians and the foodservice employees. Comparisons are shown in Table 18.

The dietitians scored significantly higher on the drive and ambition factor than the hospital foodservice employees. Whereas, the non-professional foodservice employees were more likely than professionals to attribute success to luck or knowing the right people. Perhaps the dietitians believed they had achieved success or had potential for success because of their professional training and expertise. Kilpatrick et al. (75) found that knowing the right people had an inverse relationship to the amount of education.

The employee sample viewed work as a necessary evil more often than did the dietitians. This may indicate separate patterns of emphasis on work for dietitians and foodservice workers similar to those found between white- and blue-collar workers in Friedlander's (7) study. He reported that white-collar workers emphasized work content; while blue-collar workers were more concerned with work context.

Table 18: Comparison of work value scores of hospital foodservice employees[1] and dietitians

factor	score	hospital employees[2] mean	s.d.	hospital dietitians[3] mean	s.d.	t value
I.	Overall valuing of work	27.07	± 3.18	27.51	± 2.54	1.74
II.	Drive--ambition	13.10	± 2.02	13.44	± 1.74	2.11*
III.	Knowing the right people	6.03	± 1.40	5.67	± 1.12	3.26***
IV.	Work as central life interest	13.79	± 2.03	13.55	± 1.56	1.52
V.	Work as necessary evil	10.03	± 1.83	8.43	± 1.38	11.44***
VI.	Ego satisfaction	8.50	± 1.30	8.62	± 1.33	1.14
VII.	Individualism	6.89	± 1.47	6.94	± 1.28	0.44
VIII.	Social idealism	9.05	± 1.52	9.05	± 1.41	0.05
IX.	Self-concept	2.59	± 0.70	2.78	± 0.69	3.24***

[1]Data from Shaw (12) and Klemp (13).

[2]N varies because of nonresponses on some items. N varies from 243 to 270.

[3]N varies because of nonresponses on some items. N varies from 278 to 286.

* $P \leq .05$
*** $P \leq .001$

The dietitians' mean score was significantly higher than the foodservice workers' mean score on factor IX, self-concept. This factor consisted of only one item which stated that it would be hard to live with the feeling that others are passing you up in your occupation. This spirit of competition was consonant with findings on the drive and ambition factor which also was a value espoused more strongly by the dietitians than the foodservice employees.

Biographical Differences in Work Values

Size of childhood community, job position, age, and marital status were characteristics found to be related to differences in work values (Table 19). Four of the nine work values were found to have significant differences moderated by biographical variables.

The overall valuing of work was found to differ among those from different sized communities. The dietitians who grew up in a large city (over 150,000) placed more emphasis on the value of work than those from smaller communities. There was a significant difference on the value placed on work between those from communities with a population over 150,000 and those from a community with a population between 25,000 and 150,000. Those from small cities (2,500-25,000) and rural communities (under 2,500) placed slightly higher value on work than those from medium sized cities (25,000 to 150,000), however, the differences were not significant. These findings are surprising and contrast the findings of others reporting rural workers value work more highly than urban (98, 99). Blue-collar workers, however, were the subjects of these studies which may explain the differing results.

The drive and ambition factor scores of the clinical dietitians were lower than those of the directors of dietetics, administrative dietitians,

Table 19: Analyses of effects of demographic variables on work value scores[1]

factor	variable	N	mean and s.d.	F[2]
I.	Overall valuing of work			
	childhood community			
	big city	46	28.26 ± 2.44	
	medium city	47	26.53 ± 2.57	
	small city	75	27.54 ± 2.61	
	rural community	94	27.77 ± 2.43	4.03*
II.	Drive--ambition			
	position			
	director	71	13.93 ± 1.71	
	administrative	25	13.36 ± 1.41	
	clinical	118	13.20 ± 1.71	
	generalist	33	14.18 ± 1.80	4.46**
IV.	Work as a central life interest			
	age			
	30 years or under	96	13.31 ± 1.42	
	31-50 years	95	13.47 ± 1.49	
	51 or more years	76	14.09 ± 1.66	6.077**
IX.	Self-concept			
	marital status			
	not married	111	2.91 ± .63	
	married	161	2.71 ± .72	5.40*

[1] Data shown for significant findings only.

[2] F ratio; one way analyses of variance with Scheffé test for comparison of means among groups. Line between means indicates significant difference at .05 level.

* $P \leq .05$
** $P \leq .01$

and generalist dietitians. The clinical dietitians tended to agree less often than dietitians in the other positions that having a chance to get to the top was important, success was the result of hard work, caring about making money was important for success, and having material possessions similar to friends and neighbors was important. Clinical dietitians scored significantly lower than generalist dietitians and directors of dietetics on the drive and ambition factor. Salary levels in clinical positions are typically less than those in management. It is not surprising that dietitians remaining in those positions would have a lower level of drive and ambition. Drive and ambition are apparently related positively to position. The dietitians as a group also were significantly higher on drive and ambition than the foodservice employees.

Work as a central life interest had a positive relationship with age. Those 51 years of age or older had significantly higher mean scores than the two younger age groups on this work value. For those over 51 work was seen as a way to achieve personal objectives. This finding supported the supposition of Avery (77) that older generations may view work differently than the current younger generation of workers. Kilpatrick et al. (75) also found that workers over the age of 40 had more concern with this value than workers under 40 years of age.

As indicated earlier, the work value factor labeled self-concept consisted of one item which focused on competition with others in an occupation. Marital status was found to be related significantly to this value, with married dietitians placing less emphasis on doing as well or better than others in their occupation than did unmarried dietitians. This finding appears to conflict with the findings of London et al. (21) who found that the work itself was more important to quality of life for the married

sample. Their married sample, however, included both males and females. Dietitians who were single and probably self-supporting may feel a greater need to excell at work. Also, without family responsibilities these dietitians may have more time to devote efforts to their work. Single dietitians would have more freedom to move as opportunities became available; whereas married dietitians probably could not be as mobile. Perhaps married dietitians rationalize by placing less emphasis on competing with others in the profession because of their inability to accept opportunities when moving is required.

Organizational Identification

Organizational Goal Emphasis

Goal priorities. Dietitians' responses indicated a high level of concensus on the priority ranking of possible departmental goals (Table 20). Quality nutritional care for patients was chosen by 89 per cent of the dietitians as one of the five most important goals of the hospital foodservice system. Nash (70) identified patient care as the core of the hospital value system. He suggested that this core value or goal draws employees together, integrates the structure, and helps overcome many of the problems present in the hospital. The other four goals selected most frequently were: quality foodservice, good staff patient relationships, active participation on the health care team, and good employee relationships. The percentage of respondents indicating that the foodservice goals were extremely or very important again reflected a high level of agreement (Table 20). A friendly and pleasant atmosphere for patients and visitors was the only goal not selected by a majority of the respondents in the priority ranking which had a very high percentage of dietitians rating it as

Table 20: Evaluation of hospital foodservice goals

goal	% selecting in priority ranking[1]	% selecting as very or extremely important
quality nutritional care for patients	89.2	93.3
quality foodservice	87.5	93.6
staff-patient relationship	73.0	93.3
activity on health care team	66.5	77.2
good employee relationships	54.4	86.6
friendly and pleasant atmosphere for patients and visitors	30.7	89.0
low cost foodservice	28.7	59.4
outpatient nutritional care	26.5	63.5
foodservice for staff	17.0	59.2
community outreach	13.7	43.1
nutrition education for staff	12.6	41.4
best facilities	4.7	35.5
visitor foodservice	2.9	29.0

[1]Respondents were asked to select five goals as most important; data represents percentage selecting goal as one of these five.

extremely or very important (89 per cent). The goals ranked by less than half of the dietitians as extremely or very important were: community outreach programs such as meals on wheels, nutrition education for hospital staff, best equipment and facilities, and foodservice for visitors. Table 21 lists the percentage selecting each possible response for the importance rating of the hospital foodservice goals. The goals were categorized according to differing types of emphases.

Means of the five goal emphasis scores computed from the goal ratings are listed in Table 22. To determine the relative weighting of these goal categories, the mean score was studied in relation to the maximum value possible for each score. Quality patient service goal emphasis and interpersonal goal emphasis had the highest relative scores. Conversely, nonpatient services goals and efficiency goal emphasis had the lowest relative weightings.

Relationships between goal emphasis scores and demographic variables. The significant findings for the relationships between demographic variables and goal emphasis scores are listed in Table 23. Quality patient goal emphasis was rated significantly more important by those who had been in the dietetic profession eleven to twenty-five years, compared to ratings of those with less than five years experience.

Job position also was shown to be related to emphasis on quality patient services. Directors of dietetics rated this goal significantly more important than did clinical or generalist dietitians. The clinical dietitians and those with less than five years experience may be largely the same group. Loyd and Vaden (132) found administrative dietitians had typically been in the profession longer than clinical dietitians, and the largest percentage of clinical dietitians had been ADA members for two to five

Table 21: Item analyses of goal emphasis components of organizational identification measures

item	response[1] not at all important %	not very important %	of moderate importance %	very important %	extremely important %
1. quality patient service goal emphasis					
quality foodservice	-	0.3	6.0	36.6	57.0
quality nutritional care for patients	.3	0.3	6.0	29.4	63.9
active participation on health care team	1.7	5.4	15.7	33.1	44.1
2. nonpatient services goal emphasis					
nutrition education for hospital staff	4.0	13.5	41.1	30.6	10.8
foodservice for hospital staff	5.4	5.4	30.1	38.8	20.4
foodservice for families and visitors	12.4	19.7	38.8	24.7	4.3

[1] N = 299.

Table 21: (cont.)

Item	response: not at all important %	not very important %	of moderate importance %	very important %	extremely important %
3. efficiency goal emphasis					
low cost foodservice	.7	5.0	34.9	42.3	17.1
best equipment and facilities	2.7	13.4	48.5	29.8	5.7
4. interpersonal goal emphasis					
good staff-patient relationship	0.3	1.0	5.4	29.8	63.5
good employee relationships	-	2.7	10.7	40.1	46.5
friendly and pleasant environment for visitors	-	0.3	10.7	44.5	44.5
5. outreach goal emphasis					
be involved in community outreach programs (meals on wheels, nutrition classes, etc.)	2.7	14.4	39.8	33.4	9.7
outpatient nutrition classes	2.0	9.1	25.5	38.3	25.2

Table 22: Goal emphasis mean scores

goal emphasis scores	maximum score	mean	s.d.	%[1]
1. quality patient service goal emphasis	15	13.27	± 1.81	88.5
2. nonpatient services goal emphasis	15	9.93	± 2.01	66.2
3. efficiency goal emphasis	10	6.95	± 1.26	69.5
4. interpersonal goal emphasis	15	13.26	± 1.66	88.4
5. outreach goal emphasis	10	7.13	± 1.66	71.3

[1] $\% = \frac{\text{mean}}{\text{maximum score}}$.

N = 233.

years. They also found competencies related to quality patient services to be rated as essential more often for administrative dietitians than clinical dietitians.

Efficiency goal emphasis was found to be related to years in the profession and number of dietitians on staff. Those with less than five years experience in the profession placed significantly less emphasis than those with eleven to twenty-five years on the efficiency goals of providing low cost foodservice and having the best equipment and facilities available. The mean scores on efficiency goal emphasis increased with the experience of the dietitians and leveled off after ten years in the profession. Loyd and Vaden (132) found competencies related to efficiency were rated as essential only for dietitians in administration. Since administrative dietitians were found by Loyd and Vaden typically to have more years in the profession, this may help explain the reason for increasing emphasis of this goal as experience increases.

Table 23: Relationships of demographic variables to goal emphasis scores[1]

Score variable	N	mean and s.d.	F[2]
1. quality patient services goal			
years in profession			
less than 5 years	70	12.52 ± 2.22	
5-10 years	64	13.34 ± 1.88*	
11-25 years	99	13.58 ± 1.49	
more than 25 years	41	13.51 ± 1.58	5.15**
position			
directors	73	13.95 ± 1.46	
administrative	27	13.48 ± 1.45*	*
clinical	119	12.97 ± 2.02	
generalist	34	12.85 ± 1.99	5.20**
3. efficiency goal emphasis			
years in profession			
less than 5 years	70	6.57 ± 1.35	
5-10 years	64	6.87 ± 1.25*	
11-25 years	99	7.15 ± 1.15	
more than 25 years	41	7.15 ± 1.37	3.35*
number of dietitians in hospital			
one dietitian	48	7.33 ± 1.31	
2-5 dietitians	102	6.85 ± 1.25*	
6-10 dietitians	96	6.67 ± 1.29	*
11 or more dietitians	27	7.55 ± 0.89	5.50**

[1] Data is presented only for significant findings.

[2] F ratio; one way analyses of variance with Scheffé test for comparison of means among groups. Lines between means indicate significant difference at the .05 level.

* $P \leq .05$
** $P \leq .01$

Table 23: (cont.)

score variable	N	mean and s.d.	F
4. interpersonal goal emphasis			
position			
director	73	13.74 ± 1.36	
administrative	27	13.11 ± 1.47*	
clinical	119	12.88 ± 1.85	
generalist	34	13.62 ± 1.63	4.71**
years in profession			
less than 5 years	70	12.40 ± 1.86*	
5-10 years	64	13.39 ± 1.73	
11-25 years	99	13.68 ± 1.37	
more than 25 years	41	13.44 ± 1.69	8.82***
size of institution			
300 beds or less	122	13.60 ± 1.56	
301-500 beds	77	12.80 ± 1.81*	
over 500 beds	72	13.18 ± 1.71	5.42**
number of dietitians			
one dietitian	48	13.94 ± 1.24	
2-5 dietitians	102	13.29 ± 1.67*	
6-10 dietitians	96	12.99 ± 1.78	
11 or more dietitians	27	12.70 ± 1.20	4.42**

** $P \leq .01$
*** $P \leq .001$

The dietitians placed significantly more emphasis on efficiency goals when they were the only dietitian than when there were six to ten dietitians. Dietitians working alone would most certainly be responsible for efficiency in the foodservice. When there were other dietitians, however, the responsibility for goals comprising this category may not have been the respondent's. Dietitians working in hospitals employing eleven or more dietitians, however, placed significantly more emphasis on efficiency than dietitians in hospitals with six to ten dietitians. Possibly these dietitians were employed in larger hospitals where there was a greater emphasis on efficiency of operations.

The directors emphasized the importance of interpersonal goals, good relations between employees, other staff, and patients, and a pleasant environment for patients and visitors to a greater degree than did the clinical dietitians. This finding was not surprising in that employee relationships would be more in the realm of the director's responsibilities than in that of the clinical dietitians.

A positive relationship was shown to exist between years in the profession and emphasis placed on interpersonal goals. Significant differences were found between those with less than five years in the profession and those with more than five years. Loyd and Vaden (132) found that dietitians apparently tended to start in clinical positions and move to management positions as they gained experience. Therefore, those with more years in the profession may be dealing with employees more frequently and for this reason, place greater emphasis on interpersonal relations.

The size of the institution also was shown to be related to emphasis on interpersonal goals. Those in institutions with 301 to 500 beds emphasized interpersonal relationships less than those employed in hospitals with over

500 beds, and significantly less than those with under 301 beds. Dietitians in smaller institutions would be more likely to deal directly with employee problems than would those in larger hospitals.

The number of dietitians in the institution had a negative relationship with the amount of emphasis given to interpersonal goals. A significant difference was shown to exist between dietitians working in institutions as the only dietitian and dietitians employed by institutions with six or more dietitians. This difference apparently again, could be due to the extent of direct interaction with employees. In the larger institutions, foodservice supervisors may assume operational responsibility for employees.

Pride and Identification with Work

Percentage responses to individual items comprising the pride and identification with work scores are listed in Table 24. Only 23 per cent of the dietitians indicated they would move to another job if they were free to go. This is a low percentage when compared to the results of Dodson and Haskew's (120) study in which 57 per cent of the government workers did not have reasons to stay with the organization. An additional 9 per cent were staying for environmental reasons only. Of the government workers in Dodson and Haskew's study only 34 per cent indicated reasons from the job itself for continuing work, whereas in this study 47 per cent indicated they would stay if they were free to go. Hrebiniak and Alutto (111) found that females and married respondents attached greater costs to interorganizational mobility, hence they were less positively disposed toward employment opportunities in other organizations.

Identification with the hospital staff seemed to be relatively high among the dietitians. A majority indicated there were people at work that

Table 24: Item analyses of pride and identification components of organizational identification measures

Item	response[1] strongly agree %	agree %	not sure %	disagree %	strongly disagree %
6. pride in organization					
If I were free to go, I would move to another job.	5.8	16.9	30.2	30.8	16.3
There are few people at work with whom I can share my interests.	4.0	20.9	7.1	51.2	16.8
It is hard to get to know people here because they are cool and aloof.	2.0	2.7	5.0	57.7	32.6
Most of the staff here are very loyal to the hospital	10.8	57.9	21.9	7.1	2.4

[1] N varied from 294 to 298.

Table 24: (cont.)

item	response[2] extremely proud %	pleased %	indifferent %	apologetic %	ashamed %
7. personal identification with work					
If a group of your friends were visiting your hospital foodservice, how would you feel about:					
a. showing them your facilities?	44.2	46.9	2.7	4.8	1.4
b. introducing them to your fellow workers?	44.7	50.2	4.4	0.3	0.3

[2]N varied from 294 to 295.

shared their interests and over 90 per cent disagreed that people at work were hard to get to know. A majority also agreed that the staff of the hospital was loyal. While 91 per cent of the dietitians would be pleased or proud to show a group of their friends the facilities at the hospital, over 95 per cent indicated that they would be pleased or extremely proud to introduce their friends to their fellow workers.

Evidence of a high level of pride and identification of the dietitians with the organization was shown in the mean scores (Table 25). The relative score for pride in organization was 87.8 per cent and personal identification with work, 73.6. These responses related to co-workers agree with the positive JDI scores which indicated dietitians were more satisfied with co-workers than the national sample of female workers (19).

Table 25: Pride and identification with work mean scores

score	maximum score	mean[1]	s.d.	%[2]
6. pride in organization	10	8.78	± 1.23	87.8
7. personal identification with work	20	14.73	± 2.75	73.6

[1] N = 233.

[2] $\% = \frac{\text{mean}}{\text{maximum score}}$.

Evaluation and Loyalty

Evaluation and loyalty item responses are presented in Table 26. Ratings of the desirability of the hospital as an employer reflected fairly neutral reactions. The most frequent response was that the hospital was about the same as other places in the community to work with regard to pay,

Table 26: Item analyses of evaluation and loyalty components of organizational identification measures

item	response[1] much worse %	worse %	about same %	better %	much better %
8. desirability of hospital as employer					
How does your hospital foodservice compare to other places of employment in the community with regard to the following?					
pay	0.7	7.7	47.1	29.3	15.2
hours	1.3	6.7	64.3	17.5	10.1
fringe benefits	0.3	6.4	39.7	34.3	19.2
opportunities for promotion	2.0	14.9	58.4	18.2	6.4
opportunity to serve the community	1.0	7.7	43.1	36.4	11.8
opportunity to be somebody in the community	1.0	8.1	62.5	23.0	5.4
stability of employment	0.3	3.0	42.1	33.7	20.9
working conditions	0.7	4.4	37.5	37.2	20.3

[1] N = 297.

Table 26: (cont.)

item	response: much worse %	worse %	about same %	better %	much better %
9. image of hospital foodservice					
In comparing your hospital to other similar hospitals, how do you rank your foodservice on the following?					
quality of food	0.0	3.7	18.4	50.7	27.2
quality of staff	0.3	2.7	38.8	39.1	19.0
facilities	1.7	12.5	38.0	30.2	17.6
friendliness of work environment	1.0	3.8	36.9	42.0	16.4
support of medical staff	1.0	7.9	42.5	33.2	15.4
support of community	0.3	6.1	56.1	26.5	10.9

Table 25: (cont.)

item	response				
	excellent %	very good %	good %	fair %	poor %
10. community image of hospital					
overall reputation of hospital as a place to work compared to other places of employment in the community	19.6	37.2	35.1	7.1	1.0
overall communities' attitude about the quality of patient care at your hospital	23.9	44.8	25.6	5.7	-
overall attitude of the community about the friendliness of your hospital	28.7	56.7	13.7	1.0	-

hours, fringe benefits, opportunities for promotion, opportunity to serve the community, chance to be somebody in the community, stability of employment, and working conditions. The next most often selected response for these items was "better than other places of employment in the community." These evaluations seem in tune with the JDI findings. The pay and promotion scores were the two lowest of the five components of job satisfaction studied.

A different view was obtained, however, from the findings on the image of the hospital foodservice. The quality of the food served in the hospital was judged to be either better or much better than that in other similar hospitals by 77 per cent of the dietitians. The quality of staff was stated to be better or much better than in other hospitals by 58 per cent. Friendliness of the work environment also was described as better or much better by 58 per cent of the respondents. These responses seem to indicate a high degree of loyalty to the hospital and the foodservice department. Other items in the image of the foodservice which were not rated as highly were: facilities, support of medical staff, and support of community. These items related to aspects of the dietetic service which may be outside the realm of control of the dietitian were rated by less than 50 per cent of the dietitians as better or much better. The number of negative responses, however, was small. Less than 15 per cent indicated facilities were worse than other hospitals, which represented the largest negative reaction among the dietitians to their institutions. As indicated earlier, defense of the organization is a component of organizational identification.

The community image scores also portrayed a high level of loyalty to the hospital. The attitude of the community towards the friendliness of the hospital was judged to be either excellent or very good by 85 per cent of

the respondents. The community attitude towards the quality of patient care was rated as excellent or very good by 69 per cent. Also, the community reputation of the hospital as a place to work was judged to be either excellent or very good by 57 per cent of the dietitians. Mean scores on the evaluation and loyalty items again indicated the dietitians were loyal to their employing hospitals (Table 27). The mean score on the desirability of the hospital as an employer was 68.7 per cent of the maximum score. The relative score for the image of the hospital foodservice was 72.2 per cent while the community image score was 78.8 per cent.

Table 27: Evaluation and loyalty mean scores

score	maximum score	mean[1]	s.d.	%[2]
8. desirability of hospital as employer	40	27.51	± 4.55	68.7
9. image of hospital foodservice	30	21.67	± 3.90	72.2
10. community image of hospital	15	11.82	± 1.98	78.8

[1] N = 233.

[2] $\% = \frac{\text{mean}}{\text{maximum score}}$.

The desirability rating of the hospital as an employer was found to vary with the job position of the dietitian (Table 28). The directors of dietetics' ratings of the hospital as an employer were significantly more positive than those of the clinical or generalist dietitians. It was conjectured that directors of departments have more favorable salaries and fringe benefits and perhaps believe their positions have more status and stability than do clinical or generalist dietitians.

Table 28: Analyses of effects of demographic variables on evaluation and loyalty scores[1]

score	variable	N	mean and s.d.	F[2]
8.	desirability of hospital as employer			
	position			
	directors	73	29.34 ± 4.27	
	administrative	27	27.19 ± 6.79*	
	clinical	119	26.87 ± 3.81	*
	generalist	34	26.47 ± 5.79	5.28**
	organizational size			
	300 beds or under	122	27.08 ± 4.70	
	301 to 500 beds	77	26.94 ± 4.74*	*
	over 500 beds	72	29.00 ± 4.54	4.75**
9.	image of hospital foodservice			
	position			
	directors	73	22.70 ± 3.69	
	administrative	27	21.55 ± 5.44	*
	clinical	119	21.44 ± 3.09	
	generalist	34	20.26 ± 5.83	3.13*

[1]Data is presented only for significant findings.

[2]F ratio; one way analyses of variance with Scheffé test for comparison of means among groups. Lines between means indicate significant difference at .05 level.

* $P \leq .05$
** $P \leq .01$

Organizational size also was related to the rating of the hospital as a place to work. Those dietitians employed by hospitals with over 500 beds rated their institutions significantly higher than dietitians employed by smaller hospitals. The larger hospitals would be more likely to have opportunities for professional improvement through continuing education programs.

The image of the hospital foodservice was related to job position of the dietitians. Directors tended to rate the hospital foodservice higher than did other dietitians and significantly higher than did the generalist dietitians. The higher ratings of the directors may be due to greater responsibility for these services than dietitians in other positions have.

Relationships Among Organizational Identification Scores

Intercorrelations among organizational identification scores are listed in Table 29. Significant positive correlations were found between all scores except in one instance ($r = -.01$, between nonpatient service goal emphasis and desirability of hospital as an employer).

Relatively high correlations (above .50) were found between the emphasis placed on several goals: quality patient service goals and interpersonal goals (.63) and quality patient services goals and outreach goals (.52). Interpersonal goal emphasis had correlations above .40 with nonpatient services goal emphasis (.42) and outreach goal emphasis (.41). Correlations between the other goal emphases were significant but lower (.28 to .35). The correlation between the scores of pride in the organization and personal identification with work was .34. Although items in both of these scores related to co-workers, they were apparently measuring somewhat different perceptions.

Table 29: Intercorrelations among organizational identification scores

score[1]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. quality patient services goal emphasis										
2. nonpatient services goal emphasis	.35									
3. efficiency goal emphasis	.31	.28								
4. interpersonal goal emphasis	.63	.42	.29							
5. outreach goal emphasis	.52	.31	.29	.41						
6. pride in organization	.29	.15	.29	.24	.21					
7. personal identification with work	.35	.22	.16	.37	.26	.34				
8. desirability of hospital as employer	.24	-.01	.14	.24	.24	.32	.37			
9. image of hospital foodservice	.25	.19	.19	.24	.15	.40	.39	.55		
10. community image of hospital	.19	.24	.15	.21	.19	.19	.33	.50	.60	

[1] $r. 10, P \leq .05.$

N varies from 245 to 274.

The scores grouped as evaluation and loyalty measurements all had intercorrelations above .50. This suggested that these scores may be testing similar dimensions of organization identification. Dietitians tended to rate the hospital similar on the items relating to: the hospital as an employer, the image of the foodservice, and the community image of the hospital.

Pride in the organization had a fairly high correlation (.40) with the image of the hospital foodservice. Pride is apparently a product of positive perceptions of the image of the hospital foodservice.

Correlations Between Organizational Identification and JDI Scores

Satisfaction with work was correlated most highly with personal identification with work (.48) (Table 30). The desirability of the hospital as an employer (.33), pride in the organization (.29), image of the hospital foodservice (.27), interpersonal goal emphasis (.23), community image of the hospital (.21), outreach goal emphasis (.20), and non-patient services goal emphasis (.15) all had significant correlations with satisfaction with the work itself, though the correlations were fairly low.

Personal identification with work had the highest correlations (.41) with satisfaction with supervision. Lower significant correlations were found between satisfaction with supervision and quality patient services goal emphasis (.23), interpersonal goal emphasis (.20), pride in organization (.23), desirability of the hospital as an employer (.28), image of hospital foodservice (.25), and community image of hospital (.18).

Satisfaction with pay had a few low significant correlations with personal identification with work (.23), desirability of the hospital as an employer (.21), quality patient services (.15), pride in organization (.12),

Table 30: Correlations between JDI and organizational identification variables

organizational identification variable	work	supervision	pay	promotion	co-workers	overall job satisfaction
1. quality patient services goal emphasis	.26	.23	.15	.29	.18	.32
2. nonpatient services goal emphasis	.15	.04	.02	.04	.10	.08
3. efficiency goal emphasis	.05	.14	.08	.21	.03	.17
4. interpersonal goal emphasis	.23	.20	.09	.22	.10	.24
5. outreach goal emphasis	.20	.11	.11	.19	.06	.19
6. pride in organization	.29	.23	.12	.20	.31	.33
7. personal identification with work	.48	.41	.23	.34	.43	.54
8. desirability of hospital as employer	.33	.28	.21	.31	.25	.39
9. image of hospital foodservice	.27	.25	.05	.19	.28	.29
10. community image of hospital	.21	.18	.08	.18	.23	.25

[1] $r. 11, P \leq .05$.

N varies from 247 to 267.

and outreach goal emphasis (.11). The desirability of the hospital as an employer was the only variable which had an item about salary. These correlations with satisfaction with pay may reflect a general state of well being in the respondent which positively affected responses toward work.

Satisfaction with promotion had somewhat lower significant correlations with personal identification with work (.34), desirability of hospital as employer (.31), quality patient services goal emphasis (.29), efficiency goal emphasis (.21), interpersonal goal emphasis (.22), pride in organizational (.20), image of foodservice (.19), outreach goal emphasis (.19), and community image of foodservice (.18). It was not surprising these correlations were low. Satisfaction with promotion was low on the JDI; whereas the organizational identification scores were all relatively high.

Personal identification with work had a .43 correlation with satisfaction with co-workers. Other organizational identification scores which were significantly correlated with satisfaction with co-workers were: pride in the organization (.31), image of hospital foodservice (.28), desirability of hospital as employer (.25), community image of hospital (.18), and quality patient services goal emphasis (.18).

Overall job satisfaction had a .54 correlation with personal identification with work. Other significant correlations with overall job satisfaction included: desirability of the hospital as an employer (.39), pride in the organization (.33), quality patient services goal emphasis (.32), image of the hospital foodservice (.29), community image of the hospital (.25), interpersonal goal emphasis (.24), outreach goal emphasis (.19), and efficiency goal emphasis (.17).

Predictors of Job Satisfaction

Six organizational identification scores were found to be predictors for components of job satisfaction from the multiple regression analyses (Table 31). Each component of the JDI had at least two significant organizational identification score predictors.

The Work Itself

Personal identification with work was the strongest predictor of satisfaction with the work itself. Other significant predictors were desirability of the hospital as an employer and pride in the organization. As a group, these scores had a multiple correlation of .52 with the satisfaction with work score.

Supervision

Satisfaction with supervision tended to exist when personal identification with work was high, and when the hospital as an employer was rated highly. Identification with the people at work, which was the focus of several of the personal identification with work items, and pride in co-workers, which was one of the two items comprising the pride in organization score, apparently lead to or are present when there is satisfaction with supervision. The multiple correlation of these two predictors with satisfaction with supervision was .43.

Pay

Satisfaction with pay had a complex set of organizational identification predictors. High personal identification with work and high rating of the hospital as an employer were predictors of satisfaction with pay. Image of the hospital foodservice also contributed significantly to the prediction

Table 31: Significant predictors of job satisfaction from organizational identification variables[1]

organizational identification predictors	work		supervision		pay		promotion		co-workers		overall satisfaction	
	β	r	β	r	β	r	β	r	β	r	β	r
1. quality patient service goal emphasis							.17	.28			.18	.32
3. efficiency goal emphasis							.22	.13				
6. pride in organization	.12	.30							.19	.32		
7. personal identification with work	.37	.48	.33	.41	.21	.24	.24	.33	.38	.44	.43	.54
8. desirability of hospital as employer	.30	.13	.09	.27	.21	.20	.21	.31			.22	.39
9. image of hospital foodservice					-.18	.05						
multiple correlation (R)	.52		.43		.30		.43		.48		.59	

[1]Results of stepwise multiple regression analysis.

of satisfaction, albeit negatively. This finding was not completely understood. However, in examining the data more closely, it was found that the correlations between these three organizational identification scores were all positive and significant. Since the "image" measure did not correlate with "satisfaction with pay," its negative beta weight apparently was due to its ability to suppress the "invalid" portion of the other two organizational identification scores (scores 7 and 8). By suppressing the "image" score, the predictive potency of the other two scores was significantly enhanced. Nonetheless, the multiple correlation of this group of predictors with satisfaction with pay was fairly low (R = .30).

Promotion

Satisfaction with promotion was found to be predicted by personal identification with work, efficiency goal emphasis, the desirability of the hospital as an employer, and quality patient service goal emphasis. Perhaps those dietitians who had internalized the goals of quality patient services and efficiency had been promoted more often or perceived greater opportunities for promotion, and therefore expressed greater satisfaction with this component of job satisfaction. Personal identification with work contained an item dealing with desire to stay in an organization. Perhaps satisfaction with promotion, in part, determines the desire of the dietitians to remain with the institution presently employing them. The opportunity for promotion is a part of the desirability of the hospital as an employer score, which may in part explain the predictive value of this score. The four scores, quality patient service goal emphasis, efficiency goal emphasis, personal identification with work, and the desirability of the hospital as an employer as a group had a multiple correlation with satisfaction with promotion of .43.

Co-workers

There were two predictors of satisfaction with co-workers: pride in the organization and personal identification with work. Several items comprising these scores are measures of identification with co-workers. Not surprisingly, those dietitians who identified more closely with other members of the organization were more satisfied with their co-workers. A multiple correlation of .48 was found between satisfaction with co-workers and the scores of pride in organization and personal identification with work.

Overall Satisfaction

Overall satisfaction with work had three predictors: personal identification with work, desirability of the hospital as an employer, and quality patient services goal emphasis. Dietitians, satisfied with their job, tended to identify with their work, to view the hospital as a desirable place to work compared to other places of employment in the community and to internalize the key goals related to patient care. As a group, scores from quality patient service goal emphasis, personal identification with work, and desirability of the hospital as an employer had a multiple correlation of .59 with overall job satisfaction.

The personal identification score was found to be a significant predictor of each of the JDI components of job satisfaction as well as overall satisfaction. The desirability of the hospital as an employer was a predictor for all of the JDI components except for satisfaction with co-workers. Hence, these two features of the organization appear to be central to job satisfaction in general.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Professional employees are increasing steadily in numbers as specialization within occupations continues, requiring professionals to be dependent on organizations to fulfill their roles. Alienation from work has been noted among professional employees as well as lower levels of workers. Worker behaviors associated with alienation are absenteeism, low job performance, and high job turn-over rates; all of which are costly to the organization with the cost increasing as the skill of the employee increases.

Satisfaction with work has been found to be moderated by work values. Differences in work values also have been found between job levels. In addition, identification with an organization has been found to affect job satisfaction. Limited data are available from behavioral science research with healthcare professionals. The objective of this research project was to study job satisfaction, work values, and organizational identification of hospital dietitians and to compare the job satisfaction and work values of dietitians with those of non-professional hospital foodservice personnel.

Hospital dietitians employed full-time in foodservice, clinical, generalist, and management classifications in nine midwestern states were the population from which the study sample was drawn. The research instrument consisted of four sections. Section I obtained demographic information concerning childhood community, age, sex, size of family unit, marital status, education, and work history. Section II consisted of the Job Descriptive Index or JDI. The JDI measures job satisfaction with five components of work: the work itself, supervision received, pay, promotion,

and co-workers. Work values were measured in Section III with thirty statements, which respondents answered on a four-point Likert-type scale. Section IV assessed three aspects of organizational identification: goal emphasis, pride in work and personal job identification, and individual loyalty to and evaluation of the organization. Also two items were concerned with overall job satisfaction.

After initial and follow-up mailings the total response was 75 per cent. Instruments of respondents not meeting the criteria of job position, residency, number of hours worked, and sex were dropped from the sample. Of the instruments distributed, 280 were used in final analyses.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction comparisons were made between professional hospital dietitians and non-professional hospital foodservice workers. Dietitians had significantly higher job satisfaction than foodservice workers on four of the five work components: the work itself, supervision, pay, and co-workers. Overall satisfaction with work also was significantly higher among the dietitians than among the foodservice workers. Non-professional foodservice employees had a slightly higher mean score on promotion than did the dietitians, however, this difference was not statistically significant.

Demographic characteristics which moderated job satisfaction among the dietitians were: job position, years in the profession, age, and size of the institution. The number of years in the profession was positively related to satisfaction with the work itself. Directors of dietetics also were significantly more satisfied with the work itself than clinical or administrative dietitians. A significant positive relationship was found

between age and satisfaction with the work itself. Dietitians under the age of 30 were significantly less satisfied than those over 30 years; those over 51 were the most satisfied group.

Age also moderated satisfaction with supervision. Those 30 years of age and under were significantly less satisfied with supervision than those in the 31 to 50 age group.

Satisfaction with pay had a complex relationship with years in the profession and age. Dietitians with less than five years in the profession had a fairly high level of satisfaction with pay. Mean satisfaction with pay was lowest for those with five to ten years in the profession, and significantly lower than those with eleven to twenty-five years of professional experience. Age had a U-shaped pattern relationship with satisfaction with pay. Satisfaction was significantly lower in the 31 to 50 age group than in groups younger or older.

Organizational size was found to be positively related to satisfaction with co-workers. Those employed in hospitals with less than 300 beds were significantly less satisfied than those on staffs of hospitals over 500 beds.

Present position within the hospital was shown to be related to overall satisfaction with work. Directors of dietetics were significantly more satisfied than clinical dietitians and more satisfied than administrative or generalist dietitians, although the difference was not significant.

Job satisfaction of the dietitians as a group appeared to be high, except in the aspect of satisfaction with promotional opportunities. Responses indicated that 82 per cent were satisfied with the work environment. Correlations between general satisfaction questions and the JDI

scores were highest for the work itself, supervision, and overall satisfaction suggesting that for the dietitians the work itself and supervision may be the most important aspects of job satisfaction.

Work Values

Comparison of the work values of the professional dietitians with the non-professional workers indicated significant differences on four of nine work value factor scores. Dietitians scored higher on the drive and ambition factor than non-professional foodservice employees. Non-professionals, however, were significantly more likely to attribute success to luck or knowing the right people than were the dietitians. The employee sample also viewed work as a necessary evil more strongly than did the dietitians. The professional dietetic sample agreed more often than did the employees that "it would be hard to live with the feeling that others are passing you up in your occupation." These findings suggested that dietitians have more drive and ambition, a more positive view towards work and success, and that success in work is more important to them than to the foodservice workers.

Demographic differences were found among the dietitians on several work value factors. Childhood community size was found to moderate overall valuing of work. Those from large cities (over 150,000) placed significantly more value on work than those from medium sized cities (25,000 to 150,000). Drive and ambition were found to be significantly lower among clinical dietitians than among generalist dietitians or directors of dietetics. Salary levels in clinical positions are typically lower than in management. Dieticians remaining in these positions apparently have a lower level of drive and ambition.

Work as a central life interest had a positive relationship with age. Those over 51 years of age or older had significantly higher mean scores than the two younger age groups on this work value. For those over 51 work was seen as a way to achieve personal objectives. This finding supported the contention that older generations view work differently than the current younger generation of workers. Marital status was found to be related to self-concept. Unmarried dietitians placed significantly more emphasis on doing as well or better than others in their occupation. Without family responsibilities a greater amount of freedom may be realized to devote efforts to work.

Organizational Identification

Dietitians' responses indicated a high level of concensus on the importance and priority ratings of possible departmental goals. The dietitians rank order of the five most important hospital foodservice goals was: quality patient nutritional care, quality foodservice, a good staff patient relationship, active participation on the health care team, and good employee relationships.

Several biographical variables affected emphasis on various goals. Emphasis of the quality patient service goal was moderated by years in the profession and job position. Those with eleven to twenty-five years professional membership rated this goal as significantly more important than those with five years or less in the profession and directors of dietetics rated this goal as significantly more important than clinical or generalist dietitians. These two findings are probably related. Directors of dietetics typically have more years in the profession. Since the directors

have responsibility for the department, perhaps they have internalized the goals to a greater degree than have the staff dietitians.

Efficiency goal emphasis was significantly less important for those with less than five years experience than for those with eleven to twenty-five years. Also efficiency goals were emphasized more by those employed in institutions with more than eleven dietitians on staff and those who were the only dietitians than by other groups. Interpersonal goal emphasis was moderated by job position, years in the profession, size of institution, and number of dietitians. Again, a similar pattern of goal emphasis emerged with directors placing more emphasis on these goals than did clinical dietitians. A significant positive relationship was found between years in the profession and emphasis on interpersonal goals. Those in hospitals 300 beds and under placed more emphasis on these goals and the dietitians working alone emphasized interpersonal goals significantly more than did those in hospitals with six or more dietitians. Dietitians in smaller institutions would be more likely to deal directly with employee problems than those in larger institutions.

Pride in the organization and personal identification with work were found to be high among the dietitians. Few indicated they would move to another job if they were free to go. Identification with the hospital staff was relatively high. The dietitians indicated their co-workers were not difficult to get to know, interests were shared with them, co-workers were rated as loyal to the hospital, and most dietitians responded that they would be pleased or proud to introduce friends to their co-workers and to show their friends the hospital facilities.

The desirability of the hospital as an employer, image of the hospital foodservice, and community image of the hospital also were rated highly by

the dietitians. Directors of dietetics tended to rate the hospital higher than did other dietitians and significantly higher than did generalist dietitians. A positive relationship was found between organizational size and the desirability of the hospital as an employer. The image of the hospital foodservice was rated significantly higher by directors of the department than by generalist dietitians.

Positive correlations were found between all but one comparison of the organizational identification scores. Apparently those with strong organizational identification tended to have positive attitudes on all aspects measured. In other words, those who identified with departmental goals had positive views of the organization and tended to defend the organization and to identify with their work and co-workers.

Personal identification with work and the desirability of the hospital as an employer were found to be strong predictors of job satisfaction. Quality patient service goal emphasis was a significant predictor of satisfaction with promotion and overall satisfaction when grouped with personal identification with work and the desirability of the hospital as an employer. Pride in the organization was a significant predictor of satisfaction with the work itself and co-workers when combined with personal identification with work and the desirability of the hospital as an employer.

The dietitians reflected a relatively high level of job satisfaction and a fairly strong work ethic. They also identified rather strongly with their employing organization. Identification with the profession was not measured in this study. It would have been interesting however, to study the relationship between identification with the organization and identification with the profession.

The differences among the dietitians based on job position were of particular interest. Other studies could examine additional aspects of work such as role ambiguity, autonomy, degree of participation in decision making, and role conflict, in relation to organizational level and professional specialization.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Research Instrument

Department of Institutional Management
Justin Hall
Manhattan, Kansas 66506
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Please answer every question so that the information will be complete. Your responses will remain strictly confidential. After you have completed the questionnaire, please return in the addressed envelope provided. Thank you!

I: Please check the appropriate response for each of the following questions.

1. In what area of the country did you spend the majority of your childhood?
   _____(1) Northwest
   _____(2) West
   _____(3) Southwest
   _____(4) Midwest
   _____(5) Southeast
   _____(6) Northeast

2. In what size community did you spend most of your childhood?
   _____(1) Big city (over 150,000)
   _____(2) Medium city (25,000-150,000)
   _____(3) Small city (2,500-25,000)
   _____(4) Rural community (less than 2,500)

3. In what state do you live now?

   _____

4. What is your most advanced degree?
   _____(1) Bachelor's
   _____(2) Master's
   _____(3) Ph.D.

5. What was your major field of study for each degree?

   a. Major field for Bachelor's:
      _____(1) Dietetics, institutional management, or foods and nutrition
      _____(2) Home economics education
      _____(3) Education, other than home economics
      _____(4) Other, please specify

      _____

   b. Major field for Master's:
      _____(1) Dietetics, institutional management, or foods and nutrition
      _____(2) Home economics education
      _____(3) Education, other than home economics
      _____(4) Other, please specify

      _____

6. How did you become a member of ADA?
   _____(1) Coordinated undergraduate program
   _____(2) Internship
   _____(3) Traineeship
   _____(4) Work experience or pre-planned experience
   _____(5) Advanced degree

7. How many years have you been a member of The American Dietetic Association (ADA)?
   _____(1) 1 year or less
   _____(2) 2-5 years
   _____(3) 6-10 years
   _____(4) 11-20 years
   _____(5) Over 20 years

8. Total number of years you have been employed in the profession.
   _____(1) Less than 5 years
   _____(2) 5-10 years
   _____(3) 11-25 years
   _____(4) More than 25 years

9. Since you graduated from college, have you been out of the work force for a period of time?
   _____(1) No
   _____(2) Yes

10. If yes in question 9, why?
    _____(1) To attend school
    _____(2) To raise a family
    _____(3) For other reasons, please specify _____

11. If yes in question 9, how many total years were you out of the work force?
    _____(1) Less than 1 year
    _____(2) More than 1 year to 3 years
    _____(3) More than 3 years to 5 years
    _____(4) Over 5 years

12. What is the size of the hospital in which you are employed?
_____(1) Under 100 beds
_____(2) 101 to 300 beds
_____(3) 301 to 500 beds
_____(4) Over 500 beds
_____(5) Not presently employed in a hospital

13. Number of dietitians on the staff (including yourself) _____

14. How long have you worked here?
_____(1) 6 months or less
_____(2) Over 6 months to 3 years
_____(3) More than 3 years, less than 5 years
_____(4) More than 5 years, less than 10 years
_____(5) More than 10 years

15. Please check the classification that best describes your present position.
_____(1) Director of Dietary Department
_____(2) Head administrative dietitian
_____(3) Head clinical dietitian
_____(4) Administrative staff dietitian
_____(5) Clinical staff dietitian
_____(6) Generalist (both administrative and clinical dietitian)
_____(7) Other _____
(Please specify)

16. How many years have you been employed in your present position?
_____(1) 1 year or less
_____(2) 2 to 5 years
_____(3) 6 to 10 years
_____(4) 11 or more years

17. Basis of employment:
_____(1) full time
_____(2) part time

Please specify number of hours per week _____

18. Age group:
_____(1) 24 years or under
_____(2) 25-30 years
_____(3) 31-50 years
_____(4) 51 or more years

19. At the present time, what is the size of the family unit?
_____(1) Just myself
_____(2) Myself plus 1
_____(3) Myself plus 2
_____(4) Myself plus 3
_____(5) Myself plus 4 or more

20. At the present time, are you the sole or supporting income provider: (Check one)
_____(1) I am the sole income provider for the family unit.
_____(2) My salary is over two-thirds of the total family unit income.
_____(3) My salary is less than two-thirds of the total family unit income.

21. Sex:
_____(1) Male
_____(2) Female

22. Marital status:
_____(1) Not married
_____(2) Married

II. DIRECTIONS: Put a Y for YES beside an item if the item describes part of your job (work, pay, etc.). Put an N for NO if the item does not describe part of your job. Put a ? in the blank if you cannot decide. Please respond to each aspect of your job (work, pay, etc.) on each item.

Scale: Y = Yes describes job
? = Not sure
N - No, does not describe

WORK

____fascinating
____routine
____satisfying
____boring
____good
____creative
____respected
____hot
____pleasant
____useful
____tiresome
____healthful
____challenging
____on your feet
____frustrating
____simple
____endless
____gives a sense of accomplishment

SUPERVISION

____asks my advice
____hard to please
____impolite
____praises good work
____tactful
____influential
____up-to-date
____doesn't supervise enough
____quick tempered
____tells me where I stand
____annoying
____stubborn
____knows job well
____bad
____intelligent
____leaves me on my own
____lazy
____around when needed

PAY

____income adequate for normal expenses
____satisfactory profit sharing
____barely live on income
____bad
____income provides luxuries
____insecure
____less than I deserve
____highly paid
____underpaid

PROMOTION

____good opportunity for advancement
____opportunity somewhat limited
____promotion on ability
____dead-end job
____good chance for promotion
____unfair promotions
____infrequent promotions
____regular promotions
____fairly good chance for promotions

CO-WORKERS

____stimulating
____boring
____slow
____ambitious
____stupid
____responsible
____fast
____intelligent
____easy to make enemies
____talk too much
____smart
____lazy
____unpleasant
____no privacy
____active
____narrow interests
____loyal
____hard to meet

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

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

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

Example: Blue is my favorite color
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
_X_(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

1. A person has a right to expect his work to be fun.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

2. Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of luck.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

3. To me, a very important part of work is the opportunity to make friends.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

4. Work is a way of being of service to God.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

5. It would be hard to live with the feeling that others are passing you up in your occupation.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

6. The main satisfaction a person can get out of work is helping other people.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

7. Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of knowing the right people.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

8. To me, it's important in an occupation for a person to be able to carry out his own ideas without interference.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

9. To me, work is nothing more than a way of making a living.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

10. I would like my family to be able to have most of the things my friends and neighbors have.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

11. Work helps you forget about your personal problems.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

12. Even if you dislike your work, you should do your best.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

13. To me, almost the only thing that matters about a job is the chance to do work that is worthwhile to society.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

14. Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of hard work.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

15. If a person doesn't want to work hard, it's his own business.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

16. Sometimes it may be right for a person to use friends in order to get ahead in his work.
___(1) Strongly disagree
___(2) Disagree
___(3) Agree
___(4) Strongly agree

17. To me, gaining the increased respect of family and friends is one of the most important rewards of getting ahead in an occupation.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

18. Work is most satisfying when there are hard problems to solve.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

19. It is satisfying to direct the work of others.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

20. To me, it's important in an occupation to have the chance to get to the top.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

21. After you are making enough money to get along, then making more money in an occupation isn't very important.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

22. A person should constantly try to succeed at work even if it interferes with other things in life.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

23. To be really successful in life, you have to care about making money.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

24. I like the kind of work you can forget about after the work day is over.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

25. To me, it's important in an occupation that a person be able to see the results of his own work.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

26. To me, it's important to have the kind of work that gives me a chance to develop my own special abilities.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

27. Work is a good builder of character.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

28. Getting recognition for my own work is important to me.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

29. It is more important for a job to offer <u>opportunity</u> rather than <u>security</u>.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

30. It's important to do a better job than the next person.
____(1) Strongly disagree
____(2) Disagree
____(3) Agree
____(4) Strongly agree

IV: Please complete the following items concerning your job and your hospital.

1. Below is a list of goals which a hospital foodservice might have. Please indicate how important each one is to your hospital. (Check your response for each goal.)

a. Quality foodservice
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

b. Provide nutrition education for hospital staff
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

c. Provide efficient low cost foodservice
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

d. Have best equipment and facilities
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

e. Have a good staff-patient relationship
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

f. Have good relationships with employees
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

g. Provide a friendly and pleasant environment for patients and visitors
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

h. Be involved in community outreach programs (meals on wheels, nutrition classes, etc.)
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

i. Quality nutritional care for patients
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

j. Provide foodservice for hospital staff
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

k. Provide foodservice for families and visitors
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

l. Active participation on health care team
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

m. Provide outpatient nutrition counseling
_____(1) Not at all important
_____(2) Not very important
_____(3) Of moderate importance
_____(4) Very important
_____(5) Extremely important

n. From the listing of possible goals for a hospital foodservice, select the 5 you see as most important. Circle the letters which represent these 5 most important goals.

a	d	g	j	m
b	e	h	k	
c	f	i	l	

2. If a group of your friends were visiting your hospital how would you feel about:

a. Showing them your facilities?
_____(1) Extremely proud
_____(2) Pleased
_____(3) Indifferent
_____(4) Apologetic
_____(5) Ashamed

b. Introducing them to your fellow workers?
_____(1) Extremely proud
_____(2) Pleased
_____(3) Indifferent
_____(4) Apologetic
_____(5) Ashamed

3. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with these statements by checking (✓) the response that indicates your reaction.

a. If I were free to go, I would move to another job.
_____(1) Strongly agree
_____(2) Agree
_____(3) Not sure
_____(4) Disagree
_____(5) Strongly disagree

b. There are very few people at work with whom I can share my interests.
_____(1) Strongly agree
_____(2) Agree
_____(3) Not sure
_____(4) Disagree
_____(5) Strongly disagree

c. It is hard to get to know people here because they are cool and aloof.
_____(1) Strongly agree
_____(2) Agree
_____(3) Not sure
_____(4) Disagree
_____(5) Strongly disagree

d. Most of the staff here are very loyal to the hospital
_____(1) Strongly agree
_____(2) Agree
_____(3) Not sure
_____(4) Disagree
_____(5) Strongly disagree

4. How does your hospital compare to other places of employment in the community with regard to the following?

a. Pay
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

b. Hours
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

c. Fringe benefits
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

d. Opportunities for promotion
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

e. Opportunity to serve the community
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

f. Chance to be somebody in the community
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

g. Stability of employment
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

h. Working conditions
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

5. In comparing your hospital to other similar hospitals, how do you rank your foodservice on the following?

a. Quality of food
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

b. Quality of staff
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

c. Facilities
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

d. Friendliness of work environment
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

e. Support of medical staff
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

f. Support of community
_____(1) Much worse
_____(2) Worse
_____(3) About same
_____(4) Better
_____(5) Much better

6. Overall, what is the reputation of your hospital as a place to work compared with other places of employment in the community?
_____(1) Excellent
_____(2) Very good
_____(3) Good
_____(4) Fair
_____(5) Poor

7. Overall, what is the communities' attitude about the quality of patient care at your hospital?
_____(1) Excellent
_____(2) Very good
_____(3) Good
_____(4) Fair
_____(5) Poor

8. Overall, what is the attitude of the community about the friendliness of your hospital?
_____(1) Very friendly
_____(2) Friendly
_____(3) Neither friendly nor unfriendly
_____(4) Unfriendly
_____(5) Very unfriendly

9. In general, how satisfied would you say you are with your position in this hospital?
_____(1) Well satisfied
_____(2) Satisfied
_____(3) Neither
_____(4) Unsatisfied
_____(5) Very unsatisfied

10. Taking all things into consideration--facilities, equipment, working conditions, administrators, co-workers, etc., how would you characterize your work environment?
_____(1) Very favorable
_____(2) Favorable
_____(3) Adequate
_____(4) Unfavorable
_____(5) Very unfavorable

APPENDIX B

Factor Analysis of Value Statements

Factor analysis of value statements[1]

item number	item	factor loading
I.	Overall valuing of work and its benefits (17.3)[2]	
25	To me, it's important in an occupation that a person be able to see the results of his own work.	.73
6	The main satisfaction a person can get out of work is helping other people.	.71
26	To me, it's important to have the kind of work that gives me a chance to develop my own special abilities.	.66
3	To me, a very important part of work is the opportunity to make friends.	.62
12	Even if you dislike your work, you should do your best.	.60
27	Work is a good builder of character.	.57
17	To me, gaining the increased respect of family and friends is one of the most important rewards of getting ahead in an occupation.	.56
4	Work is a way of being of service to God.	.44
8	To me, it's important in an occupation for a person to be able to carry out his own ideas without interference.	.40
II.	Drive--ambition (11.4)	
19	It is satisfying to direct the work of others.	.75
10	I would like my family to be able to have most of the things my friends and neighbors have.	.61
23	To be really successful in life, you have to care about making money.	.66

[1]Source: (11)

[2]% of overall variance accounted for by each factor.

Factor analysis of value statements (cont.)

	item number	item	factor loading
	14	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of hard work.	.51
	20	To me, it's important in an occupation to have the chance to get to the top.	.44
III.	Knowing the right people (7.3)		
	2	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of luck.	.62
	7	Success in an occupation is mainly a matter of knowing the right people.	.51
	27	Work is a good builder of character.	-.50
IV.	Work as a central life interest (6.1)		
	11	Work helps you forget about your personal problems.	.75
	4	Work is a way of being of service to God.	.57
	22	A person should constantly try to succeed at work even if it interferes with other things in life.	.50
	29	It is more important for a job to offer opportunity rather than security.	.40
	27	Work is a good builder of character.	.40
V.	Work as necessary evil (5.4)		
	24	I like the kind of work you can forget about after the work day is over.	.77
	9	To me, work is nothing more than a way of making a living.	.46
	23	To be really successful in life, you have to care about making money.	.41
	18	Work is most satisfying when there are hard problems to solve.	-.57

Factor analysis of value statements (cont.)

item number	item	factor loading
VI.	Ego satisfaction (4.7)	
1	A person has a right to expect his work to be fun.	.75
30	It's important to do a better job than the next person.	.59
28	Getting recognition for my own work is important to me.	.53
VII.	Individualism (4.1)	
16	Sometimes it may be right for a person to use friends in order to get ahead in his work.	.76
15	If a person doesn't want to work hard, it's his own business.	.64
29	It is more important for a job to offer opportunity rather than security.	.47
VIII.	Social idealism (3.9)	
21	After you are making enough money to get along, then making more money in an occupation isn't very important.	.77
13	To me, almost the only thing that matters about a job is the chance to do work that is worthwhile to society.	.58
15	If a person doesn't want to work hard, it's his own business.	.40
20	To me, it's important in an occupation to have the chance to get to the top.	-.43
IX.	Self concept (3.5)	
5	It would be hard to live with the feeling that others are passing you up in your occupation.	.82

APPENDIX C

Correspondence for Distribution of Instrument

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY

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

December 3, 1976

Dear ADA member:

The Department of Dietetics, Restaurant and Institutional Management and the College of Business Administration at Kansas State University are sponsoring a research project concerned with studying behavioral factors related to work. Several studies have been completed with nonprofessional personnel. We also are interested in gathering data from professionals in the field.

The current study focuses on the way the hospital dietitian views work and on related issues concerning job position and place of work. You were selected from an ADA membership listing of hospital dietitians in the midwest region of the United States to participate in this study.

We need your help! Please complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the enclosed stamped envelope provided--this should only take about 20 minutes. It is not necessary for you to identify yourself or your hospital. We have asked a number of questions which will provide information for classification and analysis of data only. An identification number has been used to aid us in followup; however, you or your hospital will not be linked individually with your responses.

When you have completed the questionnaire, please place it in the enclosed stamped envelope and drop it in the mail. Would you return the questionnaire by December 10? We hope to tabulate the data during the holidays. Thank you for your cooperation and time in answering the questionnaire!

Sincerely,

Doris J. Calbeck

Doris J. Calbeck
Graduate Student

Research team:

Doris J. Calbeck
Graduate Student

Allene G. Vaden, Ph.D., R.D.
Assistant Professor of
Institutional Management

Richard F. Vaden, D.B.A.
Associate Professor of
Business Administration

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

January 11, 1976

Dear ADA Member:

Before Christmas we mailed you a questionnaire concerning the vocational and organizational attitudes of dietitians. We haven't received your reply, as yet. It is understandable that during the busy holiday season the questionnaire may have been laid aside or misplaced--or it may not have reached you! A second questionnaire with a self-addressed envelope is enclosed in case the first questionnaire has been lost.

In the event you did not receive the first mailing, let me briefly restate the purpose of the study. This project is part of a larger study focusing on behavioral factors related to work. You were selected from an ADA membership listing of dietitians in the midwest region of the United States to take part in the study which focuses on the way hospital dietitians view their jobs.

The responses of individuals will be strictly confidential. A number code has been used for follow-up purposes only. The identity of individual respondents will not be connected with the answers on the questionnaires.

Although a fair number of replies have been received, your reply is essential to make the survey as reliable as possible. Would you please take a few minutes of time to fill out and mail the questionnaire today? Your time and cooperation in this project are greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Doris J. Calbeck

Doris J. Calbeck
Graduate Student

Research Team:

Doris J. Calbeck
Graduate Student

Allene G. Vaden, Ph.D., R.D.
Asst. Prof. of Dietetics, Restaurant
& Institutional Management

Richard E. Vaden, D.B.A.
Assoc. Prof. of Business Administration

JOB SATISFACTION, WORK VALUES AND ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION OF HOSPITAL DIETITIANS

by

DORIS CUDNEY CALBECK

B.S., University of Kansas, 1972

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Dietetics, Restaurant,
and Institutional Management

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1978

ABSTRACT

The objectives of this research were to study job satisfaction, work values, and organizational identification of hospital dietitians and to compare the job satisfaction and work values of dietitians with those of non-professional hospital foodservice personnel. The instrument was distributed to a random sample of hospital dietitians employed full-time in foodservice, clinical, generalist, and management classifications in nine midwestern states (74.8 per cent return; N = 322).

The job satisfaction of the dietitians was significantly higher than that of the foodservice employees on four components: the work itself, supervision, pay, and co-workers. The overall satisfaction also was significantly higher among the professional group. Biographical characteristics which moderated job satisfaction among the dietitians were: years in the profession, job position, age, and size of institution. As a general trend, satisfaction tended to increase as the years in the profession and age increased and as the dietitian moved up the organizational hierarchy into the director of dietetics position. A large majority of dietitians indicated they were satisfied with their position and described their work environment as favorable. Satisfaction with several aspects of the job (work itself, supervision, and overall job satisfaction) correlated highly with measures of general satisfaction.

Work values of the dietitians were significantly different from the employees on four factors. The dietitians scored higher on the drive and ambition factor than did the non-professional foodservice employees. Non-professional employees, however, were significantly more likely to attribute

success to luck and knowing the right people than were the dietitians. The employee sample also viewed work as a necessary evil more strongly than did the dietitians. The professional dietetic sample agreed more often than did the employees that "it would be hard to live with the feeling that others are passing you up in your occupation." Childhood community size was found to moderate overall valuing of work among the dietitians. Drive and ambition was found to be lower among clinical dietitians than among those in other positions. Work as a central life interest was found to have a positive relationship with age while success equal to others in the profession was significantly more important to those not married.

The dietitians' rank order of the five most important hospital food-service goals was: quality patient nutritional care, quality foodservice, a good staff-patient relationship, active participation on the health care team, and good employee relationships. Several biographical variables affected emphasis on goals. Emphasis on the quality patient service goal was moderated by years in the profession and job position; whereas, efficiency goal emphasis was found to be affected significantly by years in the profession and the number of dietitians in the hospital. Interpersonal goal emphasis was moderated by job position, years in the profession, size of the institution, and the number of dietitians in the hospital.

Pride in the organization and personal identification with work were found to be high among the dietitians. The desirability of the hospital as an employer, image of the hospital foodservice, and the community image of the hospital also were rated highly by the dietitians.

Job position and organizational size moderated the rating of the hospital as an employer. Image of the hospital foodservice was affected significantly by the job position of the dietitian. In both instances chief dietitians reflected the most positive organizational attitudes.

Positive correlations were found between all but one comparison of organizational identification scores. Personal identification with work and the desirability of the hospital as an employer were found to be strong predictors of job satisfaction.