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Jeannie Sneed

Jeannie Sneed, Major Professor

We have read this thesis
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Jean D. Hamm

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Influence of Organizational Culture on Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Turnover, Absenteeism, and Productivity in Hospital Foodservice

A Thesis

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Master of Science

Degree

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ABSTRACT

The study was designed to determine the type of organizational culture (bureaucratic, innovative, or supportive), and to determine the relationships among organizational culture, affective outcomes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment), and behavioral outcomes (turnover, absenteeism, and productivity) in hospital foodservice operations in Canada and the United States. The sample included 436 foodservice employees from ten hospitals in eastern Canada and nine hospitals in East Tennessee. Two research instruments were used for data collection. The historical data instrument obtained information to calculate productivity, turnover, and absenteeism for each hospital. The four-part instrument for employees included a 24-item organizational culture index to determine the predominant culture in each hospital (Cronbach's alpha = 0.85), the 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Cronbach's alpha= 0.84), five questions designed to determine employee's perception of job satisfaction (Cronbach's alpha = 0.63), and demographic items. Multiple linear regression was used to determine relationships among variables. The predominant culture was bureaucratic. Positive relationships existed between supportive and innovative cultures and job satisfaction (R^2=0.16), and between innovative and supportive cultures and organizational commitment (R^2=0.34). Age was positively related to organizational commitment. For factors related to job satisfaction, employees rated satisfaction with co-workers as highest, and satisfaction with pay lowest. Mean productivity was 3.8 $\pm$ 3.2 meals per labor hour, ranging from 0.80 to 15.0.

These findings will help hospital foodservice managers understand the relationship of culture to organizational and employee outcomes; changing culture may improve desired outcomes.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The foodservice industry is characterized by disproportionately high levels of employee turnover. Turnover rates are high in the foodservice industry; a 1990 industry operations survey reported turnover in fast food service to be 140%, limited menu table service 112%, full-menu table service 109%, and cafeterias at 71% (Riehle, 1991). One company quoted a figure of $17 million spent on lost employees who were fired or resigned from their organizations; the average restaurant employee stays in a position three months; managers stay approximately six months (Woods, 1989). As a result of these staggering statistics, there is growing interest within the foodservice industry in establishing effective employee retention programs (Woods and Macaulay, 1989). Currently, this is particularly crucial to the foodservice industry because of the shrinking pool of young job applicants (DeMicco and Reid, 1988). A survey commissioned by the National Restaurant Association in 1989 confirmed that the labor situation for restaurant industry employers has worsened over the past two years, more restaurateurs are reporting labor shortages (NRA, 1990). The labor crisis is affecting the foodservice industry as a whole. The current shortage of workers to fill entry level positions and the difficulties in attracting and retaining skilled and management-level employees is frustrating directors in non-commercial foodservice as well (Schuster, 1988).

Since there is an immediate need within the industry to implement retention programs that will positively affect job satisfaction and organizational commitment, decrease turnover and absenteeism, and effectively increase productivity, managers are acknowledging the impact of organizational culture on these organizational outcomes. A business firm may be able to reduce absenteeism and turnover by correctly matching the culture of the organization with the motivational needs of its managers (Koberg and Chusmir, 1987).

Organizational culture is a system of shared values and beliefs that produces norms of behavior and establishes an organizational way of life. It shapes behavior by conveying a sense of identity to workers, encourages commitment beyond self, increases stability of the social system, and gives recognized and accepted premises for decision making (Koberg and Chusmir, 1987).

In the early 1980s, much was written about career management responsibilities, yet the literature contained little on corporate culture (Wallach, 1983). However, in the latter part of the decade, corporate culture was increasingly researched and documented. Tidball (1988) stated that when institutionalized behavioral norms do not correspond with how management says things really are, employees will notice the incongruencies in the culture of the organization. She hypothesized that incongruencies interfere with performance, and congruency in idealogy improves performance/productivity.

The literature related to the dietetic profession in both Canada and the United States, although acknowledging the value of culture and change, does not present any research on organizational culture. Corporate culture was addressed in the foodservice literature, but mostly descriptively as was illustrated in one study done by Woods (1989). Woods' study explored culture in five restaurants in the United States and found that cultural similarities outweigh differences, and that there is a distinct culture within the dinner-house segment of the restaurant industry.

Foodservice, clearly a growth industry, is now realizing the existence of culture and the importance of clarifying, articulating, and supporting it as an effective tool in foodservice organizations. There is, however, a paucity of research upon which to base decisions about developing or changing the organizational culture of a foodservice operation.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of the study were to determine the type of organizational culture (bureaucratic, innovative, or supportive) in hospital foodservice, and to determine the relationship among organizational culture, affective outcomes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment), and behavioral outcomes (turnover, absenteeism, and productivity) in hospital foodservice operations in Canada and the United States.

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no difference in job satisfaction of employees in foodservice operations with different types of organizational culture (bureaucratic, innovative, or supportive).
2. There is no difference in organizational commitment of employees in foodservice operations with different types of organizational culture.
3. There is no difference in turnover in foodservice operations with different types of organizational culture.
4. There is no difference in absenteeism in foodservice operations with different types of organizational culture.
5. There is no difference in productivity in foodservice operations with different types of organizational culture.
6. There is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and the variables gender, age, education level, and years of experience for foodservice employees.
7. There is no significant relationship between organizational commitment and the variables gender, age, education level, and years of experience for foodservice employees.
8. There is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and the variables organizational culture types, gender, age, education level, and years of experience for foodservice employees.

9. There is no significant relationship between organizational commitment and the variables organizational culture types, gender, age, education level, and years of experience for foodservice employees.

Definitions

The following definitions will clarify and enhance the understanding of how the variables in this study were operationalized.

Absenteeism - a measure of the number of days that employees who are scheduled to work do not report. The following formula was used to calculate absenteeism:

$$\text{absenteeism rate} = \frac{\text{total absences in period}}{\text{total FTE x workdays in period}} \times 100$$

(Sneed and Kresse, 1989).

Culture - Three separate organizational cultures have been identified.

Bureaucratic - bureaucratic cultures have clear lines of responsibility and authority; work is highly organized and systematic. The information and authority flow is hierarchical, based on control and power. These cultures are mature, stable, and cautious.

Innovative - these are creative work environments where challenge and risk taking are the norms. Employees are consistently stimulated and challenged but often burn out under stress and pressure.

Supportive - the work environment is friendly and the workers tend to be

supportive of one another. The environment is open, trusting, and equitable. Humanistic principles are basic to this culture (Wallach, 1983).

Job satisfaction - "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (Locke, 1969, p. 316).

Organizational commitment - the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Porter, Crampon, and Smith, 1976).

Productivity - the relationship between inputs and outputs in a system. The most common measure of productivity in foodservice, the number of meals (output) per labor hour (input), was used in this study (Sneed and Kresse, 1989).

Turnover - the number of employees who leave the organization through resignations and firings. The following formula was used for determining turnover:

$$\text{turnover rate} = \frac{\text{total terminations in period}}{\text{number employed in period}} \times 100$$

(Blakeslee, Suntrup, and Kernaghan, 1985).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Purpose, commitment, and order are generated in an organization both through the feelings and actions of its founder and through the amalgam of beliefs, ideology, language, ritual, and myth that make up the multifaceted construct called organizational culture (Pettigrew, 1979). Organizational culture impacts on a number of aspects of a foodservice organization. These aspects may be collectively categorized as affective outcomes and behavioral outcomes. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are affective outcomes. Turnover, absenteeism, and productivity are behavioral outcomes.

Today's hospitals are being run as businesses, where hospital cafeterias are expected to generate revenue to cover costs and in many cases make a profit (Rose, 1984). Decreased levels of productivity are a major concern in industry in the United States in the past decade. In the foodservice industry, which is particularly labor intensive, only 40 to 45 percent of employees' time is spent productively (Sneed and Kresse, 1989). It is especially crucial within this industry to acknowledge and deal with the problem of decreased productivity levels. In addition to organizational culture, both affective and behavioral outcomes are discussed in this review of literature.

Organizational Culture

Definition

Wallach (1983) stated that "corporate culture is the shared understanding of an organization's employees .... these beliefs, values, norms, and philosophies determine how things work" (p. 29). As employees move up through the managerial hierarchy, how well they "fit in" with the organizational culture becomes increasingly important. There are no good or bad cultures, per se, but a culture is good if it reinforces the mission, purposes, and strategies of the organization Wallach, 1983).

Schwartz and Davis (1981) suggested that culture is rooted in deeply held beliefs and values in which individuals hold a substantial investment as the result of some processing or analysis of data about organizational life. These beliefs and values create situational norms that are evidenced in observable behavior.

Schwartz and Davis (1981) identified four dimensions of organizations: structure, systems, people, and culture. They emphasized that no organization will perform well in a competitive environment unless these four dimensions are internally consistent and fit the strategy. Furthermore, although a great deal is known about managing structure, systems, and people, there is little more than an intuitive sense about how to manage the fourth dimension, culture.

Measurement of Culture

The Organizational Culture Index (OCI), developed by Wallach (1983), is a measure of three dimensions of organizational culture - bureaucratic, innovative, and supportive, all three of these dimensions are considered common in varying degrees to all organizations. Respondents indicate the extent to which 24 adjectives describe their organization. Items are grouped into three culture dimensions each containing eight items. Scores for each dimension are expressed as a sum of the eight items.

Evolution of Culture

Webster (1983) defined culture as the integrated pattern of human knowledge, beliefs, and behavior that depends on man's capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations. Organizational cultures, like people's personalities, are elusive, complex, and paradoxical (Wallach, 1983). Humanitarian organizations, governments, and societal officials have come to realize that their efforts are in vain so long as they neglect the cultural factors affecting the complicated process embodied in the development of a people (Carrier, 1989).

In order to understand what culture is, it is important to understand what culture is not. Often the terms organizational climate and organizational culture are confused. Schwartz and Davis (1981) differentiated clearly between the two. Organizational climate is a measure of whether peoples' expectations about what

it should be like to work in an organization are being met. Climate is often transitory, tactical, and manageable over the relatively short term. Culture, in contrast, is a pattern of beliefs and expectations shared by the organization's members. Culture is usually long-term and strategic. Climate measures whether expectations are being met, culture is concerned with the nature of the expectations themselves.

Anthropology, the science that treats the physical, social, material, and cultural development of man, is well suited for developing a sense of appreciation for and understanding of culture. According to Giovanni (Zemke, 1989), the 1940s and 50s were characterized by intensive examination of status hierarchies, relationships among workers and management, union-management interaction, the integration of various racial/ethnic groups, workers on the line, workflow, and the relationship between structure and productivity. In the 1960s, universities and government agencies tended to absorb and support anthropologists interested in studying foreign culture. There was a growing suspicion among anthropologists that more efficient exploitation of workers was the primary focus (Zemke, 1989). In the 1970s anthropologists were encouraged to advocate for people in the developing countries against large bureaucracies, including government and business interests. Anthropology views culture through a different set of lenses and attempts to understand it so well that one is able to see the world through the anthropologist's eyes (Zemke, 1989).

Since culture is a multidimensional component, there is potential difficulty in understanding culture as it integrates into an organization. There are problems in today's business world because of the heavy emphasis on paying for the bottom line which leads to a loss of innovation and depreciation of those qualitative features of an organization representing the core of its character (Levinson, 1988). Although very little has been documented in the professional dietetic journals about organizational culture, there is an awareness that the profession is headed for a future filled with change and challenge, that will influence both how we see ourselves and how we are seen by others (Hess, 1988).

Although the hospitality industry has been aware of the existence and value of culture for some time; the use of "organizational culture" as a management tool is just now being addressed in recent hospitality management literature. McDonald's, presently the most successful fast food chain in the world, has a culture, and it is worth noting that as McDonald's advances internationally, it is not solely due to the popularity of its hamburgers and french fries. The biggest challenge in foreign markets is more fundamental. McDonald's strategy hinges on its ability to infuse every store with its culture and standardized procedures. The value of first identifying, and then solidifying a culture is important for this highly successful organization. So intent is McDonald's on fostering a family feeling that it employs one executive dedicated to making the company feel small (Deveny, 1986).

Culture at McDonald's or any other successful organization is neither haphazard nor vaguely defined. It is bound by rigid procedures and carefully defined rules. Operating procedures are tight, but McDonald's culture permits a loose approach to the creativity of every individual (Deveny, 1986).

A winning culture, or one that leads organizations to success, has certain elements. Fintel (1989) said that effective, successful companies have very clearly articulated, positive cultures. She identified five common qualities of successful cultures 1) integrity that goes beyond lying and stealing but is closely tied to the element of trust, 2) bottom-up style of management, 3) having fun, 4) connecting to the community within which the organization operates, and 5) physical health and fitness, or that which connects the organization with the standards and norms which surrounds it.

Realizing that all organizations have a culture, it is important to identify, clarify, and communicate the concept in order to enhance productivity. The process of effective communication is important in administering foodservice operations. King (1989) emphasized the importance of communication when he stated that one final stream of rhetorical research, just beginning to manifest itself strongly in this country, is the study of the interplay of communication and culture. The basis of this work is the assumption that each human being is suspended in webs of significance he has spun and that those webs are the culture in which each of us exists. The focus of this work is the relationship between a culture and the forms of expression to which it gives rise (King, 1989).

Organizational Outcomes

There are a number of outcomes in organizations that can be used to evaluate organizational performance. Performance is multidimensional and the dimensions overlap (Sneed and Kresse, 1989). Outcomes may be either affective or behavioral. Affective outcomes are job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Turnover, absenteeism, and productivity are behavioral outcomes. These outcomes will be discussed in the following section.

Affective Outcomes

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (Locke, 1969, p. 316). It may be influenced by many factors including the job itself, the work environment, and employee demographic variables, including age, gender, job classification, education, hourly wage or annual salary, tenure, and full vs. part-time employment (Duke and Sneed, 1989; Myrtle, 1978; Calbeck, Vaden, and Vaden, 1979). Outcomes of low job satisfaction are absenteeism, turnover, and poor performance (Porter, Steers, Mowday, Boulian, 1974; Koch and Steers, 1978).

Research conducted in the foodservice industry has related several variables to job satisfaction. Variables positively correlated with job satisfaction

include: length of employment (Martin and Vaden, 1978), job characteristics (Duke and Sneed, 1989; Sneed and Herman, 1990), age (Duke and Sneed, 1989; Calbeck et al., 1979), individual and organizational goals (Hopkins, Vaden, and Vaden, 1980), and values (Hopkins et al., 1980). Organizational size was negatively correlated with job satisfaction (Martin and Vaden, 1978). Sneed (1988) found no relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction.

Measures of job satisfaction have wide application in organizational research (McNichols, Stahl, and Manley, 1978). The measures used in practice range from single questions specifically conceived for an individual study to more sophisticated standardized instruments such as the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, and Hulen, 1969). Hoppock's Job Satisfaction Measure, consisting of four questions related to various aspects of satisfaction with a person's job, originally described in 1935 is also used in research studies (McNichols et al., 1978).

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Porter et al., 1976). Becker (1960) described commitment as the tendency to engage in "consistent lines of activity" because of the perceived cost of doing otherwise. Meyer and Allen (1986) used the terms affective commitment and continuance commitment, respectively, to characterize Porter's and Becker's discrepant views

of the construct. Although both affective and continuance commitment reflect linkages between the employee and the organization that decrease the likelihood of turnover, the nature of the linkages are quite different. Employees with a strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they want to, whereas those with strong continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Measures of organizational commitment are as diverse as the definitions (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979). Early measures consisted of two to four item scales for which little or no validity and reliability data are presented (Mowday et al., 1979). The 15-item organizational commitment questionnaire used in this study was tested for reliability and validity using various types of employees in different work environments (Mowday et al., 1979).

Commitment represents something beyond passive loyalty to an organization, it involves an active relationship with the organization such that the employees are willing to give something of themselves in order to contribute to the organization's well being (Mowday et al., 1979). Commitment emphasizes attachment to the employing organization, including goals and values, while satisfaction emphasizes the specific task environment where an employee performs his/her duties (Mowday et al., 1979). Organizational commitment is declining, and executive mobility between firms is at unprecedented levels (Hunt, Wood, and Chonko, 1989). A vicious economic cycle results in unemployment through layoffs and terminations (Rezmerski, 1986).

Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson (1989) found that the affective commitment of employees to a foodservice organization was positively related to their measured job performance, whereas continuance commitment was negatively related. The value of commitment to the organization, therefore, may depend on the nature of that commitment. Findings of this study reinforce the need for further research examining the relationship between commitment and work-related behaviors other than turnover and emphasize the need to distinguish clearly the nature of the commitment construct being considered, both in empirical research and in practical applications.

Behavioral Outcomes

Turnover

Turnover is defined as the number of employees who leave the organization through resignations and firings (Blakeslee et al, 1985). Turnover costs American industry billions of dollars every year and is common to every organization. Research studies have estimated that it costs an organization nearly one-half of an employee's yearly salary to replace that individual (Wallach, 1983). Turnover in the foodservice industry exceeds that for all other industries combined; although turnover can be used to indirectly measure managerial performance, organizational productivity, and general organizational health, at present very little priority is given to management turnover (DeMicco and Giridharan, 1987). Even though turnover rates are costly, very little has been

done in the hospitality industry to control turnover. Wasmuth and Davis (1983) suggested that the greatest opportunity for reducing turnover in the hospitality industry is at the unit level because immediate supervisors have both the closest view of turnover causes and the best chance to work directly with staff.

DeMicco and Giridharan (1987) suggested that there are a number of systems to classify employee turnover. The American Hotel and Motel Association used the dichotomy of voluntary versus involuntary, assuming that only voluntary turnover, where the employee leaves of his own accord, could be controlled. However, certain aspects of involuntary turnover are under management control, for example when the cause for dismissal is due to improper hiring practices or poor training and orientation. Controllable versus uncontrollable, avoidable versus unavoidable, and planned versus unplanned are other dichotomies often used. Wasmuth and Davis (1983) suggested that a combination of these classifications will provide a more meaningful analysis leading to more useful strategies for controlling turnover.

In studies conducted to ascertain the causes of turnover, the real causes seem to be personnel and employee alienation (Strauss and Sayles, 1980). The causes of turnover are varied. Although salary, competition, and unions have been cited as factors related to turnover, studies have shown that these factors may have a small impact (DeMicco and Giridharan, 1987). The importance of salary as a cause of turnover has been greatly exaggerated, employees frequently

cite salary as their excuse for leaving, making the organization and its pay scale a convenient target for employee frustrations (Laser, 1980).

Most managers agree that the cost of turnover is always high (Wasmuth and Davis, 1983). Wasmuth and Davis (1983) reported that no systematic data of any kind were available on costing turnover, but agreed that the task of managing turnover is viewed as an indirect measure of managerial performance, particularly in situations where an increase in turnover is thought to have an adverse impact on service and profit objectives. Generally the cost may be broken into two categories: direct and indirect. Direct costs include expenses such as advertising, agency and search fees, travel and relocation expenses, recruiter's salary and expenses, administrative functions, unemployment taxes, and uniforms. Indirect costs of turnover are often subjective, less tangible, and therefore more difficult to measure than direct costs. They include costs of management time during the hiring process, cost of employee training and development, cost of reaching the same productivity level as the former employee, effect on other employees and customers, and effect on management and supervision.

Absenteeism

Absenteeism is a measure of the number of days that employees who are scheduled to work do not report (Sneed and Kresse, 1989). High rates of absenteeism in organizations represent extremely high costs to the nation's economy. This cost is based on direct salary, fringe benefits, estimated loss of

profits, and costs associated with temporary replacement (Scott and Markham, 1982). Given the high cost associated with absenteeism in organizations, it is fundamentally important that management find methods to control this pervasive problem. There are a number of control methods presently in use, but most have limited effectiveness. Scott and Markham (1982) concluded that a comprehensive approach to the problem is superior to piecemeal efforts. Programs that terminate employees for excessive absenteeism need evaluation, and positive inducements are valuable in reducing the absentee rate.

Sneed and Kresse (1989) suggested other concrete control methods. They stated that it is important to communicate expectations to employees in orientation sessions, and establish attendance criteria and communicate them to all employees. Written documentation of attendance and cost review are also important. Supplying employees with feedback, taking corrective action when absenteeism is excessive, and maintaining high levels of employee morale are perceived as essential elements of the control mechanism.

Productivity

Productivity is the relationship between inputs and outputs in a system. The most common measure of productivity in foodservice is the number of meals (output) per labor hour (input) (Sneed and Kresse, 1989). Inputs are the resources necessary to perform a process. These resources are normally labor, materials, and equipment. Outputs are the outcomes of a process expressed as

services or items produced. In a healthcare foodservice department, outcomes are primarily patient and nonpatient meals and the provision of nutritional care services (Rose, 1984). Because labor represents 60 percent to 70 percent of the total hospital budget, health care administrators are interested in standards of performance, relationships of cost and quality of service, and productivity improvement in the work place (Rose, 1984).

When there is a "mismatch" between an employee and the culture-type of an organization he/she may not be able to accomplish assigned job tasks resulting in loss of morale and decreased work effectiveness (Wallach, 1983). She also confirms the notion that a cultural match suggests that individual job performance is a function of the match between the individual's needs (motivation) and the organization's culture. This concept is derived from other related "good-match" theories that have been tested many times and found to be an effective means of increasing motivating job satisfaction and job involvement, while decreasing turnover and absenteeism (Koberg and Chusmir, 1987).

There is presently a serious labor shortage within the foodservice industry. Turnover and absenteeism rates are typically high; productivity levels are low. Organizational culture is a complex construct, but once identified within the organizational structure, may be a useful tool in affecting organizational outcomes. Organizational culture may not only be related to affective outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, but may also affect behavioral outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism, and productivity.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Study Sample

Ten hospitals in eastern Canada and nine hospitals in East Tennessee were chosen to participate in the study. Both supervisory and non-supervisory employees were included in the study. In Canada, hospitals were chosen from selected cities in eastern Canada, including Halifax and Dartmouth in Nova Scotia, and Fredericton and Saint John in New Brunswick. In the United States the facilities studied were located in the East Tennessee region which includes the Mid-East District, Knoxville District, and the Upper East District as defined by the Tennessee Hospital Association (1987). Since this research involved human subjects, approval of the research protocol by the University Human Subjects Research Review Committee was obtained prior to data collection (Appendix A).

Research Instruments

Two research instruments were developed for data collection (Table 1). One instrument was used to collect historical data from the foodservice director and the second instrument was used to collect data from foodservice employees.

Table 1. Research instruments used for data collection.

Instrument	Sample	Data Collected
Historical Data Instrument	19 Hospitals	Meal Equivalents Labor Hours No. of Full-Time Equivalents No. of Terminations No. of Absences
Employee Data Instrument	436 Foodservice Employees	Organizational Culture Index Organizational Commitment Questionnaire Job Satisfaction (Five Questions) Demographics

Historical Data Instrument

An instrument was developed to obtain historical information (for the time period June 1, 1989 to May 31, 1990) on productivity, turnover, total number of employees, and absenteeism (Appendix B). This instrument was completed by the Director of each Dietary Department.

Based on data obtained from the historical data instrument, organizational-level variables were calculated using the following formulae:

$$\text{Turnover Rate} = \frac{\text{Total terminations in period}}{\text{Number employed in period}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Absenteeism} = \frac{\text{total absences in period}}{\text{total FTE's x workdays in period}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Productivity} = \frac{\text{number of meals (output)}}{\text{labor hour (input)}} \times 100$$

Employee Data Instrument

A four-part questionnaire was developed for employees (Appendix C). Part I included the Organizational Culture Index (OCI) developed by Wallach (1983). The OCI is a measure of three dimensions of organizational culture-bureaucratic, innovative, and supportive (Wallach, 1983). Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which 24 adjectives described their organization using the following 4-point rating scale: 0 "does not describe my organization", 1 "describes my organization a little", 2 "describes my organization a fair amount", and 3 "describes my organization most of the time".

Permission to use the instrument was granted by the Training and Development Journal, American Society of Training and Development provided credit was given to the author and the following copyright statement was included: developed by Ellen Wallach © 1983, Training and Development Journal, American Society of Training and Development. Reprinted with permission. All rights reserved.

Part II of the questionnaire consisted of the 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday et al. (1979). The OCQ identifies organizational commitment by examining three related factors: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goal and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. Responses to each item were made on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1)

to strongly agree (7). A letter was sent to Dr. Lyman Porter (Appendix D) requesting permission to use this instrument and permission was granted.

Part III included five questions designed to determine employees' perceptions of job satisfaction. Sneed (1988) modified these questions from the Job Descriptive Index for use with foodservice employees. Questions were related to satisfaction with supervision, people on the job, work, pay, and opportunities for promotion. The item responses were made on a seven-point rating scale with the following descriptive anchors: strongly agree (1), neutral (3), and strongly disagree (7).

Part IV, included demographic items related to gender, age, education level, years employed in foodservice, and employment status. Responses to demographic items were made by selecting the appropriate descriptive category.

Pilot Testing

A pilot test was conducted with a group of 35 dietary managers employed in hospitals and nursing homes in the Knoxville area. The dietary managers were given a brief introduction and asked to respond to the 24 questions on the OCI, the only section of the instrument that had not been used previously with foodservice employees. A second pilot test of the entire questionnaire was conducted with a group of 12 foodservice employees in a nursing home facility in the Knoxville area. A scripted introduction was read to the employees and all 12 agreed to participate. It was explained that participation would be on a voluntary

basis and completion of the questionnaire would be interpreted as consent to participate. Anonymity was insured by the researcher.

Some minor wording changes were made in the questionnaire based on the pilot tests. Five of the 24 questions in the OCI were unclear for the respondents and were clarified by adding simple phrases in parentheses after the adjective. Collaborative was clarified by adding the phrase "everyone works together". The following adjectives were clarified in the same fashion: Hierarchical (emphasis on rank), equitable (fair), safe (no risk), and enterprising (readiness to try something new - experiment). One negative description was eliminated from one question in the job satisfaction section of the questionnaire to minimize confusion for the respondents. The historical data instrument was pilot tested with the foodservice supervisor in the same nursing home facility in which pilot testing of the employee instrument was done. No problems were noted for that instrument.

Data Collection

Data collection was done in Canada during summer 1990 and in the United States during fall 1990. Letters were mailed to the foodservice director/manager of ten selected hospital dietary departments in Canada to explain the purpose of the study and to ask permission to conduct the survey (Appendix E). Telephone calls were made to confirm dates, times, and survey procedures. Selected foodservice directors in the United States were contacted by telephone to explain the purpose of the study, to obtain permission to conduct the study, to explain

procedures in the study, and to establish times and dates to conduct the study. Each foodservice director provided the researcher with a letter of permission to conduct the study in their hospital. Historical data forms were presented to each foodservice director to complete, and upon completion were either collected immediately on site, or forwarded to the researcher by mail at a later date.

The researcher administered the survey during working hours, at a time that accommodated both early and late shifts, so as to obtain as many employees as possible. The instrument was distributed to the foodservice employees in group settings to facilitate ease of distribution and collection. A brief explanation was given by the researcher as to the nature and purpose of the study, as well as possible outcomes and relevancy of the study. The credentials and background of the researcher were addressed. The researcher read each question aloud to each group of employees.

Data Analysis

Due to environmental problems in one hospital in Canada, it was eliminated from the study. Frequencies, means, and standard deviations were calculated for each item on the 24-item Organizational Culture Index, the 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, and the 5-item job satisfaction scale. For the five demographic items, frequency of responses were determined for descriptive purposes.

The internal consistency of the items in the Organizational Culture Index, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, and job satisfaction scales were determined using Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951). The scale reliability coefficients and the item-total reliability statistics were calculated.

Research hypotheses one through five were tested using multiple linear regression, the three organizational culture types scores were used as the independent variables. A regression model was done for each dependent variable: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, productivity, absenteeism, and turnover. For job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the employee was the unit of analysis. For turnover, absenteeism, and productivity the hospital was the unit of analysis. For research hypotheses six and seven, multiple linear regression was used with demographic variables as the independent variables and job satisfaction (for hypothesis 6) and organizational commitment (for hypothesis 7) as dependent variables. For research hypotheses eight and nine, multiple linear regression was used with culture types and demographic variables as the independent variables and job satisfaction (for hypothesis 8) and organizational commitment (hypothesis 9) as dependent variables. When the regression models were significant, Tukey's Studentized Range Test was used to determine differences in means. Simple linear regression, yielding a Pearson's Product Moment Coefficient (r), was done to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and productivity. A probability level of 0.05 was used for all tests of significance. The SAS System (SAS, 1985) was used for all data analyses.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Characteristics of Sample

The sample consisted of 436 supervisory and non-supervisory foodservice employees in 19 hospitals. Demographic characteristics of these employees are summarized in Table 2. There were four times as many female employees in the sample as male employees. Sixty-four percent of the employees were between the ages of 20 and 40 years; the smallest percentage of employees were in the less than 20 years (2%) and over 60 years (4%) categories. The largest proportion of employees were employed full-time. Thirty-two percent had completed high school, while 23% of the employees had completed college. Fifty-seven percent of the employees had ten years or less foodservice work experience, and only 12 percent had more than 21 years of experience.

Reliability of the Research Instrument

The reliability coefficients for the three scales in the employee instrument were determined using Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951). The 24-item OCI had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.85; reliability for the scale would only slightly increase from 0.850 to 0.855 if item no. 1 were omitted, to 0.854 if item no. 11 were omitted, and to 0.855 if item no. 24 were omitted. The 15-item OCQ had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.839, and the reliability of this scale would only

Table 2. Demographic characteristics of foodservice employees (no. = 436)

Characteristics	No.	%
Gender		
Male	80	19
Female	349	81
Age in Years		
less than 20	8	2
20-29	134	32
30-39	136	32
40-49	84	20
50-59	47	11
over 60	16	4
Education		
some grade school	8	2
completed grade school	17	4
some high school	70	16
completed high school	137	32
some technical school	21	5
completed technical school	20	8
some college	42	10
completed college	97	23
Years of Foodservice Experience		
less than 5	138	33
6 to 10	101	24
11 to 15	84	20
16 to 20	53	13
21 to 25	24	6
more than 26	24	6
Employment Status		
Full time (more than 35 hours per week)	357	84
Part time (less than 35 hours per week)	66	16

slightly increase from 0.839 to 0.847 if item no. 31 were omitted. Cronbach's alpha for the 5-item job satisfaction scale was 0.63 and would not increase if any item were omitted. Since reliability is related to the number and homogeneity of items, a higher Cronbach's alpha would not be expected.

Results and Discussion of the Research Variables

Organizational Culture

Items in the OCI were grouped into three culture dimensions: bureaucratic, innovative, and supportive. Means and standard deviations for the items within the three dimensions are shown in Table 3. Each dimension contained eight items, rated on a 4-point scale. Scores were expressed as a sum of the eight items. The means and standard deviations for the three dimensions were: bureaucratic 14.9 $\pm$ 4.3, innovative 13.2 $\pm$ 4.3, and supportive 12.7 $\pm$ 5.0. When t-test comparisons between the dimensions were done, innovative was significantly lower than bureaucratic ($p=0.001$), innovative was higher than supportive ($p=0.0269$), and bureaucratic was significantly higher than supportive ($p=0.0001$).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction in this study was determined using five questions developed by Sneed (1988) for use with foodservice employees. The mean and standard deviation for each of the job satisfaction items are shown in Table 4. The overall mean for this scale was 22.9 $\pm$ 6.2. Employees rated satisfaction with co-workers

Table 3. Foodservice employees ratings for the Organizational Culture Index (no. = 436)

Item	Rating[1]
Bureaucratic	
Procedural	2.1 ± 0.2[2]
Established, solid	2.0 ± 0.9
Structured	2.0 ± 0.8
Ordered	1.9 ± 0.8
Regulated	1.9 ± 0.9
Cautious	1.9 ± 0.8
Power-oriented	1.9 ± 1.0
Hierarchical (emphasis on rank)	1.8 ± 1.0
Innovative	
Pressurized	2.2 ± 0.9
Results-oriented	1.9 ± 0.9
Enterprising (readiness to try something new-experiment)	1.9 ± 0.9
Creative	1.7 ± 0.9
Driving	1.7 ± 1.0
Challenging	1.7 ± 1.0
Stimulating	1.4 ± 1.0
Risk-taking	1.1 ± 0.8
Supportive	
Sociable	1.9 ± 0.9
Collaborative (everyone works together)	1.9 ± 0.9
Equitable (fair)	1.6 ± 1.0
Safe (no risk)	1.6 ± 0.9
Trusting	1.6 ± 1.0
Relationships-oriented	1.6 ± 0.9
Encouraging	1.5 ± 1.0
Personal Freedom	1.4 ± 1.0

[1]Ratings ranged from"does not describe my organization" (0), to"describes my organization a little" (1), to"describes my organization a fair amount" (2), to"describes my organization most of the time" (3)
[2]Mean±standard deviation

Table 4. Job satisfaction as perceived by foodservice employees (no. = 436)

Item	Rating[1]
I enjoy the people I work with.	5.8 ± 1.7[2]
I enjoy the work I do.	5.6 ± 1.7
I am satisfied with the supervision I receive on my job.	4.7 ± 2.0
I am satisfied with my opportunities for promotion.	3.6 ± 2.2
I am satisfied with my present pay.	3.4 ± 2.0

[1]Item scores ranged from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (7)
[2]Mean ± standard deviation

highest, and satisfaction with pay lowest. These results are very similar to findings of Sneed (1988). In her study both employees and supervisors in school foodservice rated satisfaction with supervision and co-workers as highest, and satisfaction with pay and opportunities for promotion as lowest.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was measured using the 15-item OCQ. The mean and standard deviation for each OCQ item are shown in Table 5. The overall mean and standard deviation for this scale was 66.0 ± 16.4.

Table 5. Organizational commitment as perceived by foodservice employees (no.=436)

Item	OCQ Score[1]
I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.	5.6 ± 1.6[2]
I really care about the fate of this organization.	5.3 ± 1.7
I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	4.9 ± 1.9
I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others that I was considering at the time I joined.	4.8 ± 1.8
Often I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.	4.5 ± 2.0
I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	4.4 ± 2.0
I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.	4.4 ± 2.0
This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	4.3 ± 1.9
I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	4.2 ± 2.0
For me this is the best of all possible organizations to work for.	4.1 ± 2.0
There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.	3.9 ± 2.2
I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.	3.7 ± 2.2
It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.	3.7 ± 2.1
I feel very little loyalty to this organization.	3.1 ± 2.0
Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.	2.6 ± 1.9

[1]Item scores ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)
[2]Mean ± standard deviation

Turnover

The mean and standard deviation for the turnover rate in 18 of the 19 hospitals surveyed was 2.4 $\pm$ 1.3, ranging from 1.2 to 5.5. Sneed and Kresse (1989) suggested that it is desirable to keep yearly turnover rates to below 10 percent. One foodservice industry statistic showed annual employee turnover averaging 96 per cent (Woods and Macaulay, 1989). Turnover rates this study are not as high as rates of turnover typically found in the foodservice industry, perhaps because of differences peculiar to each region in the study, the type of foodservice operation, or to the economic conditions at the time of the study.

Absenteeism

The mean and standard deviation for 16 of the 19 hospitals surveyed was 3.3 $\pm$ 5.3 ranging from 1.8 to 16.0. The absenteeism score could not be calculated for two hospitals in the survey because of the unavailability of the total absences in the period. The wide range in absenteeism rates may be directly related to the differences in size of the institutions studied.

Productivity

The mean and standard deviation for productivity in 17 of the 19 hospitals surveyed was 3.8 $\pm$ 3.2, ranging from 2.9 to 4.1. Productivity was not calculated for one hospital surveyed because of the unavailability of labor hours. Productivity in this study closely corresponds with the average productivity level of 3.5 meals

per labor hour for an acute care facility (Sneed & Kresse, 1989). The Pearson's Product Moment Coefficient (r) relating job satisfaction and productivity was not significant, thus, those two variables were not related.

Tests of the Research Hypotheses

Research hypotheses were tested using multiple regression analyses. Models relating organizational culture to outcomes are summarized in Table 6. Models relating demographic variables, to job satisfaction and organizational commitment are summarized in Table 7. Models relating culture types and demographic items to job satisfaction and organizational commitment are summarized in Table 8.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated that there is no difference in job satisfaction of employees in foodservice operations with different types of organizational culture. In this study the regression model testing the relationship was significant ($F= 28.46$, $p=0.0001$). There was a positive relationship between innovative and supportive cultures and job satisfaction. Hypothesis 1 was rejected. The R^2 for the model was 0.16, thus, culture explains 16% of the variance in job satisfaction.

Table 6. Regression models relating organizational culture and outcome variables

dependent variable (outcome)	regression model	independent variables innovative	bureaucratic	supportive
job satisfaction[b]	df=419 F=26.90 p=0.0001	p=0.038	NS	p=0.0001[a]
organizational commitment[b]	df=419 F=71.68 p=0.0001	p=0.0001	NS	p=0.0001
productivity[c]	NS			
absenteeism[c]	NS			
turnover[c]	NS			

[a]A probability level of $p \leq 0.05$ was used for all tests of significance.
[b]423 employees were included in the sample; the individual employee was the unit of analysis.
[c]18 hospitals were included in the sample; the hospital was the unit of analysis.

Table 7. Regression models relating demographic variables to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (no.=423).

dependent variable (outcome)	regression model	independent variables			
		gender	age	education level	work experience
job satisfaction	NS df=419	NS	NS	NS	NS
organizational commitment	F=1.77 p=0.0269	NS	0.0211	NS	NS

Table 8. Regression models relating culture types and demographic items to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (no.=423).

Dependent variable	Regression model	Independent variables	
		Culture types	Demographic items
Job satisfaction	df=404 F=15.14 p=0.0001	innovative (p=0.0038) supportive (p=0.0001) bureaucratic NS	gender (p=0.0431) age NS education level NS years of experience NS
Organizational commitment	df=404 F=33.48 p=0.0001	innovative (p=0.0002) supportive (p=0.0001) bureaucratic NS	gender (p=0.0297) age (p=0.0117) education level NS years of experience NS

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 stated that there is no difference in organizational commitment of employees in foodservice operations with different types of organizational culture. In this study, the regression model testing the hypothesis was significant ($F=74.93$, $p=0.0005$). There was a positive relationship between innovative and supportive cultures and organizational commitment. Thus, hypothesis 2 was rejected. The R^2 for the model was 0.34, thus, a high percentage of the variance in organizational commitment was explained by type of organizational culture.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 stated that there is no significant difference in productivity in foodservice operations with different types of organizational culture. The regression model testing the relationship was not significant, and the hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 stated that there is no significant difference in absenteeism in foodservice operations with different types of organizational culture. The regression model testing this relationship was not significant, and the hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 stated that there is no difference in turnover in foodservice operations with different types of organizational culture. The regression model testing this relationship was not significant. This hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 stated that there is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and the variables gender, age, education level, and years of experience. The regression model testing this hypothesis was not significant. Thus, this hypothesis was not rejected. Sneed and Herman (1990) also found no significant relationship between job satisfaction and the variables length of employment, age, and education for hospital foodservice employees.

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 stated that there is no significant relationship between organizational commitment and the variables gender, age, educational level, and years of experience. The regression model testing this hypothesis was significant ($F=1.77$, $p=0.0269$), age ($p=0.0211$) was the significant individual variable. Thus, this hypothesis was rejected. The model had a very low R^2 value (0.07) therefore, demographic variables do not explain much of the variance in organizational commitment. Sneed and Herman (1990) found that demographic variables for

nonsupervisory hospital foodservice employees were related to organizational commitment, with age also being the only significant individual variable.

Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8 stated that there is no significant relationship between job satisfaction and the independent variables organizational culture type, gender, age, educational level, and years of experience types for foodservice employees. The regression model was significant ($F=15.14$, $p=0.0001$); innovative and supportive culture types and gender were the significant individual variables. Therefore, this hypothesis was rejected. The R^2 for the model was 0.21, thus, these independent variables accounted for 21% of the variance in job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 stated that there is no significant relationship between organizational commitment and the independent variables organizational culture type, gender, age, educational level, and years of experience for foodservice employees. This regression model was significant ($F=33.48$, $p=0.0001$); innovative and supportive culture types, gender, and age were the significant individual variables. Thus this hypothesis was rejected. The R^2 for the model was 0.37, thus, these independent variables accounted for 37% of the variance in organizational commitment. Adding the demographic variables increased the R^2 by 0.03.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

This study determined the levels of each of the three types of organizational culture (bureaucratic, innovative, or supportive), and the relationships among organizational culture, affective outcomes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment), and behavioral outcomes (turnover, absenteeism, and productivity) in 18 hospital foodservice operations in Canada and the United States. The influence of employee demographic characteristics on job satisfaction and organizational commitment were examined also. Two instruments were used for data collection. The historical data instrument obtained data to calculate productivity, turnover, and absenteeism for each hospital. The four-part employee instrument included the 24-item Organizational Culture Index to determine the culture-type in each hospital, the 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, five questions designed to determine employees perceptions of job satisfaction, and demographic items.

The predominant culture was found to be bureaucratic. This could probably be explained by the nature of the organizations being surveyed. Foodservice departments in health care institutions tend to depend on the bureaucratic management style when management has to be able to plan and execute often in crisis situations to fulfill the objectives required in this service-oriented type of operation (Schuster, 1988). While bureaucratic mean scores were

highest (14.9 $\pm$ 4.3), mean scores for innovative and supportive cultures were not much lower (13.2 $\pm$ 4.3 and 12.7 $\pm$ 5.0, respectively).

In this study, positive relationships existed between supportive and innovative cultures and job satisfaction, and between supportive and innovative cultures and organizational commitment. Thus, food service managers should try to devise methods that promote these culture types, in order to enhance both job satisfaction and organizational commitment within their organization.

Age was the only demographic variable significantly related to organizational commitment. This is congruent with research done in hospital foodservice by Sneed and Herman (1990). Innovative and supportive cultures and gender were significantly related to job satisfaction. Innovative and supportive cultures, gender, and age were significantly related to organizational commitment.

Limitations

There were a few limitations that should be acknowledged in this study. The number of hospitals surveyed was limited to ten in eastern Canada and nine in East Tennessee. The time frame available to conduct the study, and the fact that the researcher personally administered the instrument, limited the number of hospitals that could be included in the study. Not all variables in the study could be calculated for all 19 hospitals because of the unavailability of historical data from some institutions surveyed. One hospital surveyed was eliminated from the study because of environmental problems experienced during the period.

Restricted geographic location (ie, East Tennessee and eastern Canada) also posed limitations as to the generalizability of the results of the study. The questionnaire did not measure aspects of the environment that may affect employees' regional interpretation of adjectives used in the OCI.

Recommendations

Applications for Practitioners

This study showed a positive relationship between supportive and innovative cultures and both job satisfaction and organizational commitment, therefore, the foodservice practitioner may find it useful to identify the culture peculiar to his/her organization. This study should provide some useful guidelines for initially evaluating organizational culture, then clarifying and articulating it. At this point the practitioner may want to either reinforce or alter the present cultural environment, in order to enhance job satisfaction and organizational commitment within the organization.

Although the mean productivity level of 3.8 $\pm$ 3.2 meals per labor hour recorded in the study closely corresponded with the average productivity level of 3.5 meals per labor hour in hospitals (Sneed and Kresse, 1989) it appears that levels of productivity are generally lower in the foodservice industry than for industry in general. In an age where economic accountability has become increasingly important, it may be useful for the practicing foodservice manager to

evaluate and monitor present levels of productivity so as to promote improvement within the particular operation.

Although pilot testing was done with the historical data instrument, it was extremely difficult, if not impossible, for some foodservice managers to retrieve the information required. It is recommended that all hospital foodservice directors maintain these data in order to monitor performance by developing trend data.

Directions of Future Research

The purpose of the Organizational Culture Index is to measure the predominant type of organizational culture as perceived by the foodservice employees. The questionnaire required that the employees respond to a number of adjectives that corresponded in varying degrees to their perception of their particular organization. Organizational culture is a complex construct which is difficult to measure in a way that is appropriate for all foodservice employees in different geographic locations. Other studies should evaluate alternate methods of assessing organizational culture.

The study was limited to two very specific regions in Canada and the United States. Future research efforts might increase the sample size to include hospitals representative of the entire population of hospitals from both countries. Increasing the sample size may help to expose other relationships between the variables studied since the sample was small for analyses using the hospital as the

unit of analysis. In selecting samples from entire populations of both countries, cultural differences may become evident within regions and within each country.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Human Subjects Review Approval

KNOXVILLE

Office of the
Vice Provost
for Research

CRP #: 3244 A DATE: 05/09/90

Title: Organizational culture, commitment, and job satisfaction of hospital foodservice employees

Gilbert, Nancy M.
Nutrition & Food Sciences
229 Jessie Harris Bldg.
Campus

Sneed, Dr. Jeannie
Nutrition & Food Sciences
229 Jessie Harris Bldg.
Campus

The project listed above has been certified exempt from review by the Committee on Research Participation and is approved.

This certification is for a period ending one year from the date of this letter. Please make timely submission of renewal or prompt notification of project termination (see item #2 below).

The responsibilities of the project director include the following:

1. Prior approval from the Coordinator of Compliances must be obtained before any changes in the project are instituted.

2. Submission of a Form D at 12-month intervals attesting to the current status of the project (protocol is still in effect, project is terminated, etc.).

We wish you success in your research endeavors.

Sincerely,

Edith M. Szathmary

Edith M. Szathmary
Coordinator of Compliances

cc: Dr. James D. Moran III
229 Jessie Harris Bldg.

Attachment: Copy of Form A

NOTE: Approval is contingent upon your submitting to this office letters from the respective hospitals (on their letterheads) granting you permission to use their facilities and interact with their personnel

404 Andy Holt Tower / Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-0140 / (615) 974-3466

APPENDIX B

Historical Data Questionnaire

HISTORICAL DATA
FOR JUNE 1, 1989 THROUGH MAY 31, 1990

	Meals or Meal Equivalents Served in Period	Labor Hours in Period	No. of FTEs in Period[1]	Terminations in Period[2]	Absences in Period[3]
January					
February					
March					
April					
May					
June					
July					
August					
September					
October					
November					
December					

[1]Full-time equivalents.
[2]Number of employees leaving organization because of resignation or firing.
[3]Number of employees who are scheduled to work and do not report.

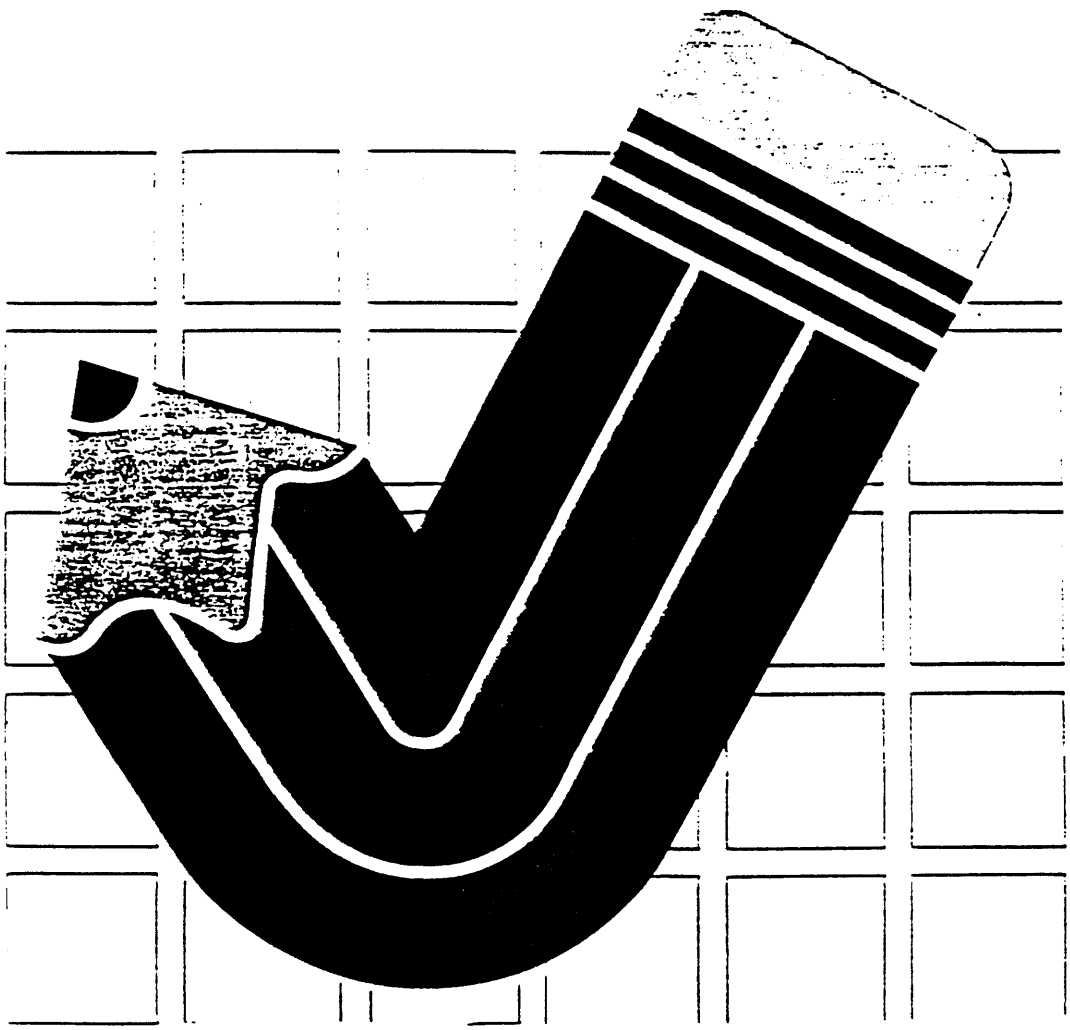
Code No._____

Return to: Nancy Gilbert, P.Dt./Jeannie Sneed, Ph.D., R.D.
Department of Nutrition and Food Sciences
229 JHB
1215 Cumberland Avenue
Knoxville, TN 37996-1900
USA

APPENDIX C

Employee Questionnaire

YOUR ORGANIZATION
WHAT'S IT LIKE?



Department of Nutrition and Food Sciences
College of Human Ecology
The University of Tennessee
Knoxville, TN 37996-1900

April 1990

PART I.

Please circle a score from the scale below which most closely corresponds with how you see your organization.

	Does not describe my organization	Describes my organization a little	Describes my organization a fair amount	Describes my organization most of the time
Q-1. Risk taking	0	1	2	3
Q-2. Collaborative (everyone works together)	0	1	2	3
Q-3. Hierarchical (emphasis on rank)	0	1	2	3
Q-4. Procedural	0	1	2	3
Q-5. Relationships-oriented	0	1	2	3
Q-6. Results-oriented	0	1	2	3
Q-7. Creative	0	1	2	3
Q-8. Encouraging	0	1	2	3
Q-9. Sociable	0	1	2	3
Q-10. Structured	0	1	2	3
Q-11. Pressurized	0	1	2	3
Q-12. Ordered	0	1	2	3
Q-13. Stimulating	0	1	2	3
Q-14. Regulated	0	1	2	3
Q-15. Personal freedom	0	1	2	3
Q-16. Equitable (fair)	0	1	2	3
Q-17. Safe (no risk)	0	1	2	3
Q-18. Challenging	0	1	2	3
Q-19. Enterprising	0	1	2	3
Q-20. Established, solid	0	1	2	3
Q-21. Cautious	0	1	2	3
Q-22. Trusting	0	1	2	3
Q-23. Driving	0	1	2	3
Q-24. Power-oriented	0	1	2	3

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PART II

Listed below are statements about possible feelings you might have about the organization for which you work. Please circle the number that best describes the following statements.

	Strongly disagree			Neither disagree nor agree			Strongly agree
Q-25. I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-26. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-27. I feel very little loyalty to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-28. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-29. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-30. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-31. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-32. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-33. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-34. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others that I was considering at the time I joined.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-35. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-36. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-37. I really care about the fate of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-38. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-39. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART III.

Each of the following are statements related to your satisfaction with different aspects of your work situation. Circle the number of the statement that most agrees with your feelings.

	Strongly Agree			Neutral			Strongly Disagree
Q-40. I am satisfied with the supervision I receive on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-41. I enjoy the people that I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-42. I enjoy the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-43. I am satisfied with my present pay.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q-44. I am satisfied with my opportunities for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Finally, we would like to ask some questions about you to help interpret the results.

Q-45. Your sex (Circle number of your answer)

1 **Male**
2 **Female**

Q-46. Your present age (Circle number)

1 **Less than 20**
2 **20-29**
3 **30-39**
4 **40-49**
5 **50-59**
6 **Over 60**

Q-47. Which is the highest level of education that you have completed? (Circle number)

1 **Some grade school**
2 **Completed grade school**
3 **Some high school**
4 **Completed high school**
5 **Some technical school**
6 **Completed technical school**
7 **Some college**
8 **Completed college**

Q-48. Number of years that you have been employed in foodservice (Circle number)

1 **Less than 5 years**
2 **6 to 10 years**
3 **11 to 15 years**
4 **16 to 20 years**
5 **21 to 25 years**
6 **More than 26 years**

Q-49. What is your current employment status? (Circle one)

1 **employed full time (35 or more hours per week)**
2 **employed part time (less than 35 hours per week)**

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

APPENDIX D

Letter of Permission

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE



College of
Human Ecology

Nutrition and
Food Science

March 8, 1990

Dr. Lyman W. Porter
Professor
Graduate School of Administration
University of California, Irvine
Irvine, CA 92717

Dear Dr. Porter:

I am writing to request permission to use the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire for research that I am conducting at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. The survey will be administered to foodservice employees in selected hospitals (over 200-bed) in both eastern Canada and east Tennessee. The OCI will be incorporated as part of an instrument to determine the relationship among organizational culture, affective outcomes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and behavioral outcomes (productivity, absenteeism, and turnover).

I would appreciate your forwarding a letter of permission. I am enclosing a self-addressed, stamped envelope for your convenience.

Sincerely,

Nancy Gilbert

Nancy Gilbert
Graduate Student

3/17/90

Permission granted.

L. W. Porter

1215 West Cumberland Avenue, Room 229 / Knoxville, Tennessee, 37996-1900 / (615) 974-5445, 974-3491

APPENDIX E

Contact Letter

THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE
KNOXVILLE

April 30, 1990

College of
Human Ecology

Nutrition and
Food Science

Dear Ms.

There is an immediate need within the foodservice industry to implement programs that will effectively increase productivity, decrease turnover and. absenteeism, and positively affect job satisfaction and job commitment. Organizational culture may have an impact on these organizational outcomes. However, little is known about the relationship among these variables in foodservice operations, thus, this will be the focus of our research.

Your assistance and support is critical to the success of this study. We would. appreciate it if you would allow Ms. Gilbert to administer a questionnaire to foodservice employees in your operation. She would like to administer the survey to a group of employees during normal working hours at a time convenient to you. She will read the questions aloud to the entire group to allow individuals with limited reading skills to participate. The entire process should take no longer than 30 minutes.

Participation of individual employees would be strictly voluntary. These surveys will not be identified in any way by name or code numbers to ensure complete anonymity. Neither the employee nor the institutions participating will be identified. All data will be compiled and reported as group data. A summary of study results will be provided upon request.

Ms. Gilbert will contact you by telephone by May 15 to determine your interest in participation and to set a date for data collection. We appreciate your cooperation and feel confident that the findings of this study will be useful to managers in the foodservice industry.

Sincerely,

Nancy Gilbert

Ms. Nancy Gilbert, P.Dt.
Graduate Student

Jeannie Sneed

Jeannie Sneed, Ph.D.,R.D.
Assistant Professor

1215 West Cumberland Avenue, Room 229 / Knoxville, Tennessee, 37996-1900 / (615) 974-5445, 974-3491

VITA

Nancy Margaret Gilbert is a professional dietitian (P.Dt.). She received a diploma in Home Economics from Centralia College of Agricultural Technology in Centralia, Ontario, Canada in 1969. Following this, she worked as a foodservice supervisor for a number of foodservice operations. She received a Bachelor of Science degree in Home Economics from Mount Saint Vincent University in Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada, in 1977. She completed a dietetic internship at the Victoria General Hospital in Halifax in 1978. In 1983 she completed a Bachelor of Education at Mount Saint Vincent University. She instructed courses in the Home Economics Department, Child Study Department, and in the Tourism and Hospitality Management Program at Mount Saint Vincent University.

In 1989 Ms. Gilbert began study toward a Master of Science degree in Food Systems Administration at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville. During this period she worked as a Teaching Assistant in the Hotel and Restaurant Administration program.

Ms. Gilbert is a member of the Nova Scotia Dietetic Association, the Canadian Dietetic Association, Delta Kappa Gamma, and Kappa Omicron Nu. The author plans to pursue a doctoral program in the future and to continue to teach in a university program.