

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN UNIT MANAGERS'  
ATTITUDES AND PRACTICES AND THE EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF OLDER  
WORKERS IN THE FOODSERVICE INDUSTRY

by

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ABSTRACT

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The purpose of this study was to: (1) describe the relationship between unit managers' attitudes and practices and the employment status of older workers in a segment of the foodservice industry; and (2) derive implications about the educational and training interventions necessary to facilitate the increased labor force participation of older workers in the industry.

Demographic trends influenced the development of this study. The foodservice industry's heavy reliance on younger workers and reports of potential labor shortages were reasons the study was undertaken.

The population consisted of the membership of the National Restaurant Association. From this group a stratified random sample of 480 foodservice units was selected. Data were collected via questionnaire sent to the identified unit managers.

The results indicated positive relationships between the employment of older workers and the following variables: establishment of a formal training program; the use of self-paced training methods; and the availability of employment alternatives. Older workers were most frequently employed in the institutional segment of the

foodservice industry and in units in which a larger percentage of older managers were employed.

Educational and training interventions which would facilitate the employment of older workers were presented. These included: training for managers; training programs for older workers; and employment alternatives.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### THE PROBLEM

#### Background

This study had two primary purposes. The first was to describe the relationship between unit managers' attitudes and practices and the employment status of older workers in a segment of the foodservice industry. The second was to derive implications about the educational and training interventions necessary to facilitate the increased labor force participation of older workers in the foodservice industry.

The White House Conference on Aging (1981) noted several important demographic shifts which are likely to result in significant impacts for both employers and employees. First, the number of potential employees in the 18-24 age group will decline in the next ten years, while the number of potential employees in the age group over 45 will increase. Second, during the 1970s, the number of individuals over the age of 55 increased by 19.4 percent, yet their participation in the labor force remained basically unchanged, growing only from 14.5 to 14.8 million (The 1981 White House Conference on Aging, 1981). This was partially due to an increase in the percentage of workers taking early retirement; however, there is evidence that early retirement is not always voluntary and that many older workers experience great difficulty finding suitable employment (Lubin, 1983).

When older workers seek to enter or re-enter the labor force or simply change careers, they must confront a variety of factors which can influence their labor force participation (Doering et. al., 1983).

If older workers are to be successful in the labor force, they must overcome the stereotypic perceptions held by managers. These stereotypes are directly related to the areas of interest of this study -- perceptions held by managers about the training and job performance of older workers, management practices related to training methods, training flexibility and scheduling flexibility. The most common stereotypes advance the notion that older workers, in comparison with younger workers, are: lower in job performance, more stubborn, more likely to be injured on the job, unwilling to adapt to novel situations, lacking in creativity, more difficult to train, and more resistant to change (Doering et. al., 1983).

Doering et. al. (1983) expressed the concern that these stereotypes may result in nonindividualized recruiting and staffing decisions. Generalized negative beliefs, based on stereotypes about older workers are related to the likelihood that older workers will be selected for employment. Results from previous research conclude that younger workers of equal ability are preferred to older workers, older workers are seen as less employable, and older workers are less likely to receive retraining and promotions (Haefner, 1977; Britton and Thomas, 1973; Rosen and Jerdee, 1976).

When placed in a training situation, older workers initially perform at a lower level than younger workers, but the gap is quickly closed. There is little change in learning ability as age increases. When age differences occur, they are attributed to differences in perception, motivation and other factors not directly related to age.

Furthermore, older workers have been shown to have lower scores on tests measuring immediate memory and non-verbal abstract thinking, but higher scores than younger workers on tests measuring mathematics and verbal ability (Casey and Sheppard, 1980).

The initial training period for older workers appears to be a critical factor in successful employment. Older workers are more likely to turnover during the training period than younger workers. The selection of specific training methods is closely associated with the successful initial employment of older workers. Several studies (Dodd, 1967; Jamieson, 1969; Sieman, 1976) concluded that self-paced programmed training methods result in improved training performance among older workers. Sieman (1976) noted that older workers required significantly more time to successfully complete programmed training material, but that there was no age related difference in performance. The manner in which material is presented is critical to the successful training of older workers. Older workers are more likely to be successfully trained when self-paced methods are used, rather than more traditional methods in which the instructor controls the speed with which the material is presented (Belbin, 1977). This training methodology is supported by adult learning literature as the preferred method for older workers. (Cross, 1981).

Organizational scheduling practices can influence the labor force participation of older workers. Scheduling practices which provide alternatives to the traditional five-day work week are preferred by older workers. Proposed alternatives offering employment flexibility

include: part-time work, job sharing between two or more individuals, and reduced work weeks (Rosen, 1980; Tellier, 1974; Hedges, 1971; Zippo, 1981; Harris, 1981; Rosow and Zager, 1980).

#### Overview of the Foodservice Industry

During the ten year period 1974-84, the service sector of the economy grew 124 percent, while the manufacturing sector grew 77.8 percent. According to Chase Econometrics, the foodservice industry represents the fastest growing industry in the non-durables category. (20th Annual "400" Financial Report, 1984). Parallel with this growth in the economy is a similar growth in the labor force, as the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that between 1978 and 1990 total employment needs in the foodservice industry will increase by 39.5 percent, contrasted with a 24.5 percent growth in the total civilian labor force (Labor: Cost and Supply, 1982; Powers, 1984).

Estimates provided by the National Restaurant Association (1984) indicated that sales for the foodservice industry have grown more than 400 percent since 1970. Currently, there are approximately 557,250 foodservice units in the country. Of this number, 389,000 represent commercial units, 168,250 institutional units. The industry represents a blending of both independent and chain affiliated units. According to NRA (1984) data, the foodservice industry is made up of mainly small businesses. Most foodservice units are single unit operations, more than half of the units are sole proprietorships or partnerships.

Total industry sales for the 1983 calendar year were \$162.8 billion (NRA, 1984). This sales figure represents nearly 5 percent of the U.S. Gross National Product. The average annual sales per unit were \$383,000 for table service operations and \$327,000 for fast food operations.

When measured by the number of units, the industry is dominated by independently owned companies; however, there is a distinct shift toward domination of the industry by larger corporations. During 1983, the 400 largest foodservice organizations captured a 50 percent market share, compared with 41 percent in 1974 and 31 percent in 1964. The total sales for these 400 organizations were \$80.4 billion. Of this group, the 12 largest organizations each posted sales in excess of \$1.0 billion, with McDonald's leading the way with annual sales of \$8.7 billion in 1983 (20th Annual "400" Financial Report, 1984).

Merger and acquisition activity in the business community has been quite heavy in recent years (DeNoble, 1983). The foodservice industry has experienced similar activity levels. Several non-foodservice organizations have become active in the industry, seeking above average growth rates and return on investment. Examples of this activity include Pillsbury Company Restaurant Group which owns and operates the Burger King, J. J. Muggs, Bennigan's and Steak and Ale chains. Other examples include PepsiCo's acquisition of Pizza Hut and Taco Bell, as well as Royal Crown Cola's acquisition of Arby's.

Corporate diversification has also become a common strategy for foodservice firms. Marriott Corporation illustrates this approach.

Marriott owns and operates Marriott Hotels and Resorts, Courtyards by Marriott, Big Boy restaurants, Roy Rogers restaurants, Host International, Sun Line Cruise Ship Line, as well as contract foodservice operations in business and industry, health care, college and university settings.

The foodservice industry is the largest retail employer in the country, currently employing more than 8 million individuals. Of these employees, two-thirds are women and one-fourth are teenagers. Total wages and benefits exceed \$50 billion annually (NRA, 1984).

The foodservice industry can be segmented in several ways. Powers (1984) established two principal segments, restaurants and institutional foodservice. The restaurant segment is further divided into the sub-segments of: (1) full service; (2) speciality; (3) haute cuisine; (4) theme; and (5) fast food. The institutional segment is sub-divided as follows: (1) business and industry foodservice; (2) college and university foodservice; (3) school and community nutrition programs; (4) health care foodservice.

This classification system of two segments and nine sub-segments was too complex and cumbersome for the research study proposed. The present study examined the proportion of older workers in three principal segments: table service, fast food and institutional food service. Each of these segments is operationally defined in the definition section of this chapter.

### Decision Making Within the Industry

Sassar and Wyckoff (1978) and Olsen (1980) examined the complex nature of the foodservice industry. Management decisions must be made in six functional areas: (1) operations; (2) finance; (3) marketing; (4) administration; (5) research and development; and (6) human resource management. Given the normative organizational structure of a contemporary foodservice corporation, decisions within each of these areas combine both the unit and corporate level management. At the unit level, managers are primarily responsible for the day-to-day functioning of the single unit. The term operations management is commonly used to describe the activities of unit managers. The involvement of unit managers in the areas of finance, marketing, administration, and research and development is often limited because decisions involving these functions are made at the corporate level.

Unit managers are actively involved in the human resource management function, the vast majority of the decisions concerning hourly employees are made at the unit level. Whereas corporate managers develop policy concerning the selection of hourly employees, unit level managers are responsible for the policy implementation. Unit managers are provided with support by the corporation for all human resource management activities, but the actual day-to-day decisions concerning recruitment, selection, training, scheduling and other aspects of human resource management occur at the unit level.

Within the context of this study, data was collected from unit level managers. Data collected from unit level managers involved: (1)

unit management practices related to training methods, training flexibility, and scheduling flexibility; (2) unit attributes such as industry segment and size; and (3) managers' perceptions concerning the training and job performance of older workers.

#### Relationship to Adult Education

Adult education, by definition is very broad, encompassing a wide variety of educational and personal development activities. Cross (1981) describes the nature of adult education as the process of learning related to all points in the individual's life. Cross continues by describing lifelong learning as comprising business education, occupational education, and job training. Adult education is involved in assisting business in the training of employees as established in Title I of the Higher Education Act.

Knowles (1980) established a typology of Adult Education comprising four types of institutions. The four types of institutions include agencies and organizations designed to: (1) service adults; (2) service youth as the primary audience and adults secondarily; (3) service community needs; and (4) special interest groups. All of the training provided by business and industry in the United States is classified as a service provided within the fourth type of institution. Activities related to employee training activities within a business setting are considered part of the broad discipline of Adult Education.

The present study focused on an aspect of adult education, the nature of employment of older workers in a specific industry. This

study examined the relationship between unit managers' attitudes and practices and the status of older workers in a segment of the foodservice industry. Specifically, the study examined training, scheduling flexibility and manager's perceptions of older workers as they related to the employment of older workers.

Results of this study and previous research are used as the basis for deriving implications about the educational and training interventions believed necessary if more older workers are to be successfully employed in the foodservice industry. These interventions are directed towards: (1) training for managers; (2) changes in training programs and methods for older workers; and (3) employment alternatives for older workers.

#### Statement of the Problem

Older individuals have been identified as a potentially viable labor force for the foodservice industry (Lindroth, 1982). Results of prior research has shown that utilizing specific training methods and scheduling practices may result in more successful employment of older workers. This study assessed the extent to which these methods were used in the foodservice industry and examined the relationship between the use of these methods and the labor force participation of older workers.

As stated at the outset, the primary purposes of this study were to describe the relationship between unit managers' attitudes and practices and the employment status of older workers in the

foodservice industry and to derive implications about the educational and training interventions necessary to facilitate the increased labor force participation of older workers in the foodservice industry.

#### Research Questions

The present study addressed three primary and eight secondary research questions, which were:

1. What is the relationship between specific unit training and management practices and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?
  - a. What is the relationship between training methods used and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?
  - b. What is the relationship between training program flexibility and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?
  - c. What is the relationship between scheduling flexibility and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?
2. What is the relationship between specific unit attributes and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?
  - a. What is the relationship between the industry segment and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

- b. What is the relationship between the size of the unit, as measured by annual sales and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?
  - c. What is the relationship between the age of the unit managers and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?
3. What is the relationship between managers' perception of older workers and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?
- a. What is the relationship between the managers' perception of the performance of older workers during the training period and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?
  - b. What is the relationship between the managers' perception of the overall job performance of older workers and the the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

#### Limitations

There are several professional associations which represent managers employed in the foodservice industry. The largest of these associations is the NRA which currently has approximately 10,000 members representing the three segments of the industry defined in this study, table service, fast food and institutional foodservice. The sample selected for this study was limited to members of the NRA.

While the NRA is the largest professional association representing the foodservice industry, the use of the NRA 1983-84 membership list as the sample frame had limitations. The members of the NRA do not represent chain and chain affiliated units in the same proportion in which they are found in the total industry. The NRA membership list contains a higher proportion of independently owned units and a lower proportion of chain owned or affiliated units than would occur naturally in the industry.

A content analysis was done of the 1983-84 NRA membership list. This content analysis consisted a of page-by-page categorization of the members' industry segment from 20 out of 162 pages of the NRA membership list. Each of the 20 pages used were randomly selected. This analysis indicated that approximately 70 percent (7,000) of the members operate within the table service segment, 20 percent (2,000) within the fast food segment and the remaining 10 percent (1,000) within the institutional segment of the industry.

The population consisted of unit managers who were members of the NRA. A stratified random sample was selected representing the three industry segments equally. The selection of unit managers who were members of the NRA as the population limits the generalizability of the results. Results may be generalized only to unit managers who are members of the NRA. Results are not generalizable to the corporate level managers or to the foodservice industry as a whole. While this limitation reduces the usefulness of the results, the results are useful in assessing relationships between unit managers' attitudes and

practices and employment of older workers.

A second limitation was the use of survey research to address the complex issue of employment of older workers. There are many factors not addressed within the scope of this study which may be related to the employment of older workers. The study identified several factors which were related to the employment of older workers, but each of these factors explained only a small proportion of the variance in the percentage of older workers employed within foodservice units. The factors which the study examined were guided by the literature, but there is no assurance that these factors are the most important.

Because of the exploratory nature of the study, these limitations were not considered critical enough to nullify the major findings. This was supported by the fact that the majority of the findings were consistent with existing literature.

#### Definitions

Within the context of this study, several terms are operationally defined:

**Older Worker:** An individual age 50 or older employed in a foodservice unit..

**Foodservice Industry:** All retail establishments which sell prepared food to the general public or a defined market. The industry includes approximately 389,000 commercial units (including both table service and fast food), 168,250 institutional units (NRA, 1984).

**Unit Level Management:** Management consisting of those individuals with operational responsibilities for a single foodservice unit.

Annual Sales: Total gross sales from all foodservice sources for the most recent corporate fiscal year.

Industry Segment: (1) fast food--customer self-service at a counter or public cafeteria line; (2) institutional--service to a restricted clientele in a business, educational, health care or military setting; (3) table service--service provided by service personnel to the customer seated within a dining room.

Human Resource Management Practices: This refers to the manner in which hourly workers are managed. Specific variables which are included under the title of human resource management practices include: scheduling flexibility; employment alternatives; and training practices.

#### Significance of the Study

This study offers several potential benefits to a variety of audiences, within the adult education community and the foodservice industry. First, it provides a profile of the labor force participation of older workers within a portion of the foodservice industry. This descriptive profile of older workers was not previously available.

Second, it provides insight into the relationship between specific human resource management practices and the labor force participation of older workers in the foodservice industry. The human resource management variables which are of interest include training methods, training program flexibility, and scheduling flexibility. The relationships between each of these variables and the labor force

participation of older workers, when compared with the literature, provide a basis for deriving implications about educational and training interventions. These interventions are aimed at increasing the number of older workers successfully employed in the foodservice industry.

Third, it describes the relationship between specific unit attributes and the percentage of older workers employed in these units. The specific attributes identified in the study are industry segment and size of the unit and the age of the managers employed within the unit. The results identify those industry segments which represent the most and least favorable employment environment for older workers.

Fourth, the study provides data concerning the perceptions of older workers held by unit foodservice managers. The relationship between the unit managers' perceptions and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units are examined.

The results of the study, when contrasted with previous adult learning and adult education literature, provide a picture of the current situation and what the situation ought to be if more older workers are to be successfully trained employed in the foodservice industry. Education and training interventions can potentially be identified for the following areas: (1) training for managers; (2) training programs for older workers; and (3) employment alternatives.

### Overview of the Dissertation

This study is organized into four additional chapters. Chapter Two, Review of Literature, provides a thorough review of the relevant literature related to older workers. It is divided into the following major sections: (1) overview of the problem; (2) general characteristics of older workers; (3) job performance and training characteristics of older workers; (4) employment problems confronting older workers; and (5) potential employment and training interventions which human resource managers and adult educators might consider in dealing with older workers.

Chapter Three, Methodology, contains the manner in which the study was conducted. The population and sample were further defined, the instrumentation discussed, and data collection procedures and analysis presented.

Chapter Four, Results, focused on the specific results of the research study. It was focused around the eight research questions.

Chapter Five, Summary and Conclusions, provided a summary of the study. The results, conclusions and potential educational and training interventions were discussed.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Introduction

A review of relevant literature indicates that there has been very little previous research related to older workers in the foodservice industry. The majority of the research has been directed towards older workers in product related industries rather than service industries such as the foodservice industry.

The review of literature was divided into nine major sections. The first section presents an overview of the demographic characteristics. The second section focuses on the economic status of older workers and retired people. The third section reviews the physical and psychological characteristics. The fourth section examines the employment characteristics of older workers. The fifth section reviews the employment and training performance of older workers. The sixth section reviews the attitudes of older workers toward employment. The seventh section examines the employment problems which confront older workers. The eighth section reviews potential employment and training interventions as well as options for extending the working life. The final section focuses on the conceptual framework of the study.

One difficult issue to resolve was how to operationally define older worker. Federal legislation written to protect older workers from discrimination uses the age of 40 as the dividing line between younger and older workers. Another federal agency, the Bureau of

Labor Statistics defines older workers as those above the age of 55, describing those between 25 and 54 as prime age workers (Rosow and Zager, 1980). Within the scope of this review of literature and the subsequent study, older workers will be operationally defined as those individuals 50 years of age and over.

#### Demographic Characteristics of Older Workers

Significant demographic changes are presently occurring in the United States. Table 2.1 illustrates the percentage of the civilian labor force by age, indicating that the percentage of 16-24 year olds will decrease from 23.1 percent in 1980 to 18.1 percent in 2000. During this same period, the number of 25-34 year old will decrease from 28.0 to 22.6 percent (Doering et. al., 1983).

Table 2.2 illustrates shifts which will take place in the population of the United States during the period of 1960--2020. Those individuals meeting the operational definition of an older worker, that is over the age of 50, will increase significantly, while the number of individuals in the younger age groups will grow more slowly or in some cases will decline in number (Doering et. al., 1983). The total number of individuals in the older age groups will increase in absolute numbers as well. In 1960, there were 16.7 million individuals over the age of 65, but in 2020, it is projected that this will have grown to 42.8 million, an increase of 156 percent. Similarly, the 55-64 age group will increase by 135 percent, the 45-54 age group by 65 percent, the 35-44 age group by 59 percent, the 25-34 age group by 77 percent, the 18-24 age group by 68 percent, and

the under 18 age group by 14 percent (Doering et. al., 1983).

While the number of older individuals will increase, historically the percentage of older individuals who continued to work has declined, as a trend toward earlier retirement has developed. At first, these trends seem to be contradictory. At the turn of the century two-thirds of men over the age of 65 worked beyond the age of 65, but by 1980 only one in five worked beyond age 65. The decline in labor force participation was most distinct for those between 60 and 65, as in 1980 only 60 percent of those men 60-64 were active in the labor force. The participation of older women in the labor force has remained fairly constant during the century, but has declined slowly since 1960. In 1980, the percentage of women over the age of 65 who participated in the labor force was 8.1 percent. The percentage of women aged 55-64 who worked has remained steady throughout the 1970s following a decade of rapid increase in the 1960s. One of the significant projections made at the White House Conference on Aging was that if current trends continued, only 40 percent of men and 20 percent of women age 55 and above will be a part of the labor force. (The White House Conference on Aging, 1981).

Table 2.1 Percentage of Civilian Workforce By Age

Age	1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
16-24	24.1	23.1	21.2	18.5	17.1	18.1
25-34	24.1	28.0	28.6	28.6	25.9	22.6
35-44	18.1	19.5	22.5	25.6	27.4	27.2
45-54	18.5	15.6	14.7	15.8	18.7	20.8
55-64	12.1	11.0	10.3	9.1	8.6	9.3
Over 65	3.1	2.8	2.6	2.5	2.3	2.1

Source: Doering et. al., 1983, p. 16.

Table 2.2 Decennial Percentage Changes in U.S. Population, 1960-2020

Age	1960-70	1970-80	1980-90	1990-2000	2000-10	2010-2020
Under 18	+8%	-9%	+7%	+5%	-1%	-6%
18-24	+53	+18	-15	+5	+11	-7
25-34	+10	+43	+13	-16	+11	+5
35-44	-4	+11	+42	+13	-16	+11
45-54	+13	-3	+11	+42	+13	-16
55-64	+19	+13	-3	+12	+42	+13
65 and over	+20	+22	+16	+6	+9	+29

Source: Doering et. al., 1983, p.13.

Table 2.3 illustrates the labor force participation for workers of all age groups. The age of 65 has traditionally been viewed as the age for retirement, but there are still substantial numbers of individuals who work beyond this age. There is another group, however, that ceases work between the age of 60 and 64 as the labor force participation percentage drops significantly during these years. As shown in the table, there is a distinct trend toward earlier retirement.

Casey (1980) reported that the unemployment rate for older workers is lower than for the general population. This masks a potentially serious problem confronting older workers. When an older worker is unemployed, the period of unemployment is likely to be longer than the period for a younger worker and the older worker is much more likely to withdraw from the job search process. Older workers often have outdated job skills and finding the appropriate match in terms of skills, salary and status is often difficult. Older workers are also more likely to be employed in more traditional industries where the risk of permanent displacement is higher.

Table 2.3 Labor Force Participation Rates (Percentages) for Older Age Groups By Sex, Selected Years, 1950-78

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Age Groups and Year	Men	Women
<hr/>		
50 to 54 Years		
1950	90.5	30.8
1960	92.0	45.9
1970	91.5	52.4
1978	89.1	53.8
55 to 59 Years		
1950	86.7	25.9
1960	87.7	39.7
1970	86.8	47.6
1978	83.1	47.7
60 to 64 Years		
1950	79.4	20.6
1960	77.8	29.4
1970	73.2	36.4
1978	61.1	31.7
65 to 69 Years		
1950	59.7	12.0
1960	44.0	16.5
1970	39.3	17.2
1978	30.0	14.2

Source: Casey, 1980

During the last decade, considerable attention has been given to the special problems of several labor force minorities such as youth, women and blacks. The older worker is becoming a significant minority and comparisons are being made with younger workers concerning status in the work place. Older workers generally enjoy good status, but compared with younger workers, they are: (1) more likely to have less education; (2) more likely to be unskilled in the face of technological change; (3) more likely to be employed in declining industries such as agriculture, railroads and heavy manufacturing which have a higher probability of plant shutdowns; (4) more likely to have health problems; (5) are less likely to relocate to seek or begin another job; and (6) are likely to earn less than their younger counterparts in the 35 to 54 year age bracket (Rhine, 1978) (White House Conference on Aging, 1981).

#### Economic Status of Older Workers and Retired Persons

The economic status of older Americans is, in general, no worse than for the nation as a whole. Harris (1981) reported that older individuals were no more likely to feel financially strapped than those who were younger. This is due, in some part, to the fact that 68 percent of those over the age of 65 have fully paid for their homes and therefore are able to have much lower monthly living expenses. Of the group in the 18-54 age bracket, only 12 percent have fully paid for their homes. Median income does decline as age increases for those over the age of 54. Harris (1981) reported that 57 percent of the respondents had used their personal savings within the previous

twelve months to meet monthly bills and living expenses, but that the elderly were less likely to have done so.

Changes are being made in the Social Security system and further changes may be necessary as a result of the large federal deficit and changes in the composition of the labor force. The major sources of income for retired individuals are: (1) Social Security benefits (38 percent); (2) employment earnings (23 percent); (3) investment income (19 percent); and (4) other retirement income and pensions (16 percent) (White House Conference on Aging, 1981). During the 1970s, however, the percentage of dependency on Social Security increased from 32 to 38 percent, as cost of living increases provided by the government outpaced increases from other sources of income. Changes now being made by the Social Security Administration will likely slow the rate of growth for these increases, resulting in increased economic pressure on those who are retired.

Social Security coverage for retired persons has increased substantially in the last thirty years (Rosow and Zager, 1980). In 1950, 64.5 percent of all U.S. workers were covered by Social Security, but by 1975 this figure had increased to 90.0 percent. During this same time period, the benefits paid had increased nearly ten-fold, due mainly to the cost of living indexing. A substantial number of older Americans rely on other sources of income besides Social Security, although for most retired individuals, Social Security remains the primary source of income. Among those earning less than \$20,000 per year and having more than one source of income,

Social Security provided from 53 to 89 percent of their income. The other sources of income most frequently cited included: income from savings (33 percent); income from investments (22 percent); company or governmental pension (32 percent); income from a current job (13 percent); and money received from their children (5 percent).

Those older individuals who remain active in the labor force after the age of 50 are less likely than younger workers to be laid off, due to seniority within the labor force. However, for those who are not active within the labor force, but who desire to be active increasing age is a liability. Casey (1980) reported that older individuals do not share equally in periods of economic recovery.

#### Physical and Psychological Characteristics of Older Workers

As individuals age physical changes related to motor performance, memory, visual and auditory perception, learning ability and intellectual ability occur (Welford, 1977; Craik, 1977; Arenberg and Robertson-Tchabo, 1977; Fozard et. al., 1977; Corso, 1977; Botwinik, 1977). These changes, however, are not as pronounced as stereotypes would have us believe. Experts generally agree that adults can be successful learners until approximately age 75 when deterioration begins to occur. Prior to this time, compensation in the form of eyeglasses, increased illumination, increased time for learning and other means can help adults compensate for any physical deterioration (Cross, 1981). Research has clearly demonstrated that adults experience physical changes as they grow older. These include an increase in reaction time, a decrease in visual ability, and a

decrease in hearing ability (Cross, 1981).

The physical demands placed on workers today are less than has been the case in the past, and in most cases the physical demands are less than the normally aging worker is capable of handling (Meier and Kerr, 1976). One stereotype commonly associated with older workers is that they should be given lighter job duties; this, however, is not the case. It is not the heavy work that causes older workers some problems, rather it is the stress associated with having to maintain a high level of productivity; therefore if the pressure to produce is lowered, older workers will continue to produce at acceptable levels. This has important implications for the training of older workers as well as productivity and profitability (Meier and Kerr, 1976).

It has been stressed that potential workers should be viewed in terms of both functional and chronological age. Screening potential employees solely in terms of chronological age is unwise (Meier and Kerr, 1976). Meier and Kerr (1976) reviewed several tests which emphasized the consideration of both physical as well as psychological ability for the job. One test emphasized the consideration of a variety of tests designed to measure physical, mental and interpersonal ability. This particular test, known as GULHEMP, measures: (1) general physique; (2) upper extremities; (3) lower extremities; (4) hearing; (5) eyesight; (6) intelligence; and (7) personality.

Other studies have demonstrated that the physical ability of prospective employees should not be a primary consideration, for it

has been shown that the vast majority of prospective employees will not apply for a job for which they are not physically prepared to perform (Meier and Kerr, 1976).

Another stereotype associated with older individuals is that they do not have the ability to learn a new task and that they learn much more slowly than younger individuals. This is not supported by the literature (Meier and Kerr, 1976) (Cross, 1981) (Rosow and Zager, 1980). A study conducted by the former Department of Health, Education and Welfare concluded that: (1) intelligence remains constant until at least age 70 and when a decline does occur it is usually an organic change in a person nearing death; (2) there is little evidence to support the notion that older individuals have a lower capacity for learning, although they do learn at a slightly slower pace than younger individuals; (3) older adults experience little or no decline in short-term memory and have no serious memory defects; and (4) older adults resist change more than younger adults, but they are far from incapable of changing. It was also noted that the experience and caution that older adults bring to the job might be a positive benefit during periods of uncertainty or business downturn (Rosow and Zager, 1980).

Doering et. al (1983, p. 31) defined values as "representing a person's ideas as to what is right, good or desirable." Values are important because they may help to explain the attitudes that individuals hold concerning their jobs. It has been suggested that individuals will respond differently in job situations based upon

their values. Older workers adhere more closely to the protestant work ethic than younger workers. Doering et. al. (1983) indicated that this may be due to a variety of reasons, including: (1) the experiences associated with growing older; (2) the experience of having grown up during the depression and World War II and; (3) the differing socializing and training experiences of older versus younger workers. Cherrington (1979) noted that older workers placed less emphasis than younger workers on the importance of extrinsic rewards such as money, and placed increased importance on friends and placed increased emphasis on pride in craftsmanship and quality of work produced.

Doering et. al. (1983, p.34) defined needs as, "an internal state that makes certain outcomes, or job characteristics, appear attractive." Participation in the labor force by older workers is based in part on the satisfaction of needs. As individuals age, the importance of the need for security, affiliation and esteem increases while the need for growth and self-actualization decreases (Doering et. al., 1983).

#### Employment Characteristics of Older Workers

It is important to understand how older workers behave and perform within the work environment. Without an understanding of the employment characteristics, it would be very difficult to assess whether the older workers would be appropriate candidates for a greater number of positions within the foodservice industry. This

section examines the employment behavior of older workers including their current employment status as well as the career stages of older workers. Second, incentives and disincentives which influence the employment patterns of older workers are addressed. Third, literature related to the employment and training performance of older workers is summarized. Finally, the attitudes of older workers toward employment is reviewed.

Harris (1981) reported on the employment status of individuals over 55. A summary of these results is shown in Table 2.4. Comparisons with a previous study conducted by Harris (1976) indicated that several noteworthy changes have occurred in the intervening years. First, the percentage of individuals in the 55-64 and 65-69 age groups who are employed full time has increased during the period 1974-1981. Second, the number of individuals who consider themselves housewives has decreased during the same period. Finally, unemployment among these age groups has declined, while the number of individuals who consider themselves to be retired has shown a corresponding rise.

Table 2.4 Employment Status of the Public Age 55 and Over By Age

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	<u>55-64</u>	<u>65-69</u>	<u>70-79</u>	<u>Over 80</u>
	(by percentage)			
Employed full time	46	8	2	1
Employed part time	7	3	3	1
Unemployed/not working but looking for work	3	1	< 0.5	< 0.5
Retired completely	25	67	75	74
Retired, but still work part time	2	10	6	2
Housewife	16	11	14	22
Other	1	1	< 0.5	< 0.5

Source: Harris, 1981

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Dalton et. al. (1977) examined the career patterns of 2,500 engineers working within seven large organizations. The researchers noted a negative correlation between age after 35 and performance ratings. In general, the older the engineer over the age of 35, the lower the performance rating was likely to be. Not all of the engineers in the sample, however, exhibited this type of behavior. One-third of the top performers were over the age of 50 and these individuals were rated nearly as highly as the top performers in any age group.

In a subsequent study, Dalton et. al. (1977) interviewed 550 professionals from a variety of occupational areas in an attempt to determine the differences between high and low performers. The researchers concluded that individuals moved through four stages within their careers and that high performers were simply those that moved successfully from one stage to the next. Those who were low performers were usually those that were not able to move successfully from one stage to another. Table 2.5 summarizes these career stages.

Table 2.5: Career Stages

	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
Central activity	Helping Learning Following directions	Independent contributor	Training Interfacing	Shaping the the direction of the organization
Primary relationship	Apprentice	Colleagues	Mentor	Sponsor
Major psychological issues	Dependence	Independence	Assuming responsibility for others	Exercising power

Source: Dalton et. at., 1977

Incentives and Disincentives Influencing Employment

Older workers are faced with a variety of influences which can influence whether they remain in or re-enter the labor force. Several researchers have noted the influences, both positive and negative.

On the positive side, Rosow et. al. (1980) categorized incentives which acted in support of entry or reentry of older workers into the labor force. These included:

1. federal government policy concerning the Social Security which will lead to increased pressure to raise the retirement age and/or reduce benefits to those who retire early;
2. corporate human resource policy which will reduce the incentive for early retirement;
3. economic necessity caused by inflation which erodes the fixed pension income of many retirees;
4. psychological needs of many older individuals to continue to work to maintain vigor, health, and well being;
5. older workers generally hold better jobs thereby providing a natural incentive to remain on the job; and
6. expanding use of employment alternatives for the older worker which will increase the incentive to continue to work longer.

Conversely, Rosow et. al. (1980) also identified disincentives to employment for older workers, including:

1. hiring practices which often discriminate against those over the age of 50;

2. the youth culture of our society which places emphasis on youth;
3. a stagnant economy which prevents millions of older workers from entering or reentering the labor force;
4. inflation of labor costs which causes employers to reduce costs, often by hiring younger workers which on average are less costly;
5. labor union pension policy which is aimed at better and earlier pensions;
6. intergenerational conflict in which younger workers compete with older workers for promotional opportunities; and
7. negative stereotypes held by management personnel regarding older workers.

Meier and Dittmer (1980) reported to a Presidential Commission on Pension Policy that the Social Security earnings test was the single greatest disincentive to continued employment of older individuals. The primary purpose of the original Social Security legislation was to replace lost earnings. The earned income test is used to determine who is retired. Currently, an individual is permitted to earn up to \$6,960 per year without a reduction in Social Security benefits. This figure, which is adjusted annually, based on average wages, was only \$3,000 in 1977 and is expected to increase. For earned income over \$6,960, an individual will have Social Security benefits reduced by \$1 for every \$2 of earned income. Individuals over the age of 70 have no limit placed on their earned income, but the limits do apply to those

below the age of 70. This provides a very powerful disincentive because it amounts to a 50 percent tax on earned income.

A previous study conducted by Gordon and Schoeplein concluded that the elimination of the retirement test for workers aged 65-69 would result in an additional \$678.6 million in payroll taxes and \$977.8 million in federal income taxes. This would offset 79 percent of the cost of paying Social Security benefits to those over the age of 65 who continue to work (Meier and Kerr, 1976).

#### Pension Provisions

Older workers face many important decisions as they move into the later years of their working life. Should they retire? Should they change organizations, careers, or location of employment?

Meier (1980) identified several disincentives and incentives for employment which confront older workers. The primary disincentive was the Social Security earnings test previously discussed. In addition, some pension plans are industry wide, thereby preventing older workers from leaving one company to work for another company within the same industry while still collecting pension benefits. On the positive side, the primary incentive was economic, as older workers simply remained in the labor force because they needed the money for basic living expenses. Meier (1980) also identified employment alternatives which could be implemented on a wider basis to encourage increased employment of older workers. These included gradual or phased retirement, part-time employment, flextime, and job redesign.

Greene (1980) reviewed the effect of pension provisions on the employment of older individuals. The author noted that nearly 50 percent of the American labor force is now covered by some type of pension plan, but that these plans produced only on average 11 percent of a retired individuals income. When Social Security benefits are added to those of the pension, total retirement income is on average 52 percent of preretirement income. Thus a retired individual is faced with a greatly reduced retirement income, pointing to the need for increased income among retired individuals.

Greene (1980) also noted several factors which encourage older workers to retire. First, early retirement provisions result in nearly 50 percent of all workers retiring before the age of 65. Corporations provide a variety of financial incentives which encourage early retirement, including: (1) offering the same retirement benefits as if retired at the normal age; (2) offering supplemental pensions until the individual is eligible for Social Security benefits; (3) offering cash settlements at the time of retirement. Second, many organizations maintain mandatory retirement ages, which are now limited by federal law to not earlier than age 70. This has, however, not always been the case. Third, individuals may be encouraged to retire because continued participation in the labor force will not result in an increased pension benefit. For example, if an individual works beyond the normal retirement age, he may collect only the same benefit that would have been due at age 65. Fourth, Greene (1980) also concluded that vesting and minimum service provisions may

adversely impact the employment of older individuals. It was believed that this may result in layoffs and discharge of workers who may be close to becoming vested in the pension program.

Greene (1980) cataloged provisions which reduced the employment opportunities for older individuals. One of these provisions was employment restrictions imposed by some corporations. The author cited that 45 percent of the firms studied prohibited reemployment of anyone currently receiving a pension. Second, the high costs of employing older workers vis-a-vis younger workers was cited as a reason for fewer employment opportunities as well.

#### Employment and Training Performance of Older Workers

Stereotypes are commonly held concerning the job related performance of older workers. Among the most commonly held stereotypes related to older workers are:

1. that their attitudes solidify and that they are stubborn;
2. things they learned in the past interfere with new learning;
3. they have learned to get by with less effort;
4. they have less education;
5. they adjust more slowly to novel situations; and
6. they are slow doers and thinkers.

These stereotypes may hold true for some individuals, but for the vast majority of older workers the following are positive attributes:

1. older workers have fewer absences than younger workers;
2. they have fewer on-the-job injuries;
3. they are more satisfied with their jobs;

4. they experience less job related stress than younger workers;
5. they show lower rates of admission to psychiatric facilities;  
and
6. they use psychotropic drugs less often than the general public  
(Rosow and Zager, 1980).

#### Work Performance

There is a widely held stereotype that a worker's performance decreases with age; however, this is not supported by the literature. Research has led to mixed results with some deterioration of performance in some cases (Greenberg, 1961) while others noted increased performance as workers grew older (Maher, 1955). In general, motor skills decline somewhat with age. Simple tests involving reaction time to stimuli show little change in speed or accuracy, however, when more complex or a continuous series of motor movements are required, there are significant age-related differences (Casey and Sheppard, 1980).

Meier and Kerr (1976) reported on a study conducted in a light manufacturing setting for the Department of Labor, concluding that output per manhour remained steady through age 54 and thereafter declined slightly. Furthermore, attendance was the same for all groups and separations were much lower for the 45-64 age group. Meier and Kerr (1976) also reported on a study which concluded that: (1) many older workers performed better than the average younger worker; (2) workers in the older age group had a steadier rate of output; (3) older workers were as accurate in their work as younger workers; and

(4) differences in output among age groups were insignificant. Finally, Meier and Kerr (1976) reported on a study involving 3,077 subjects aged 60 and over representing 81 organizations in retailing, industrial, office and managerial positions. The conclusions of the study indicated that superiors considered a majority of their older workers to be on average equal or superior to younger workers with reference to absenteeism, dependability, judgment, work quality, work volume, and human relations. Second, there was no specific age after which workers declined in performance; the study noted several cases of workers remaining productive into their 80s.

Casey and Sheppard (1980) noted that the greatest differences in performance exist within age groups rather than between age groups proposed that future research should be aimed at developing a systematic framework for matching individual characteristics with job relevant qualifications, certainly no simple task. The researchers proposed that the government should develop a set of national norms for cognitive, perceptual, psycho-motor and physical abilities as they relate to occupational-specific tasks. If this were accomplished, workers of varying ages could be compared both within and between groups.

#### Learning Ability and Training

One stereotype which is held by many individuals is that older workers are slow learners and that training is more difficult and time consuming. This is not supported by the literature. Rather, younger workers initially perform at a higher level than older workers, but

older workers quickly close the gap and match the performance of the younger worker. One study involving 100 workers being retrained by a petroleum company concluded that following 120 hours of retraining, workers over the age of 40 outperformed those under 40. Following retraining, older workers have a survival rate which was higher than younger workers (Meier and Kerr, 1976).

Under most circumstances, there is little change in learning ability as age increases. When age differences occur, they are attributed to differences in perception, motivation and other factors not directly related to age. Older workers have been shown to have lower scores on tests involving immediate memory and non-verbal abstract thinking, but higher scores on tests involving mathematics and verbal ability (Casey and Sheppard, 1980)

#### Absenteeism, Accidents and Illness

Contrary to commonly held stereotypes, older workers are not subject to increased rates of absenteeism, accidents and illness. Rather, the opposite is true. A study conducted in 1948 concluded that the only disadvantage that older workers must face is that when injured, their disabilities cause them to be away from the job for a longer period of time (Doering, et. al., 1983).

Root (1981) studied more than one million workers from 30 states who were injured during a 12 month period. The study concluded that older workers have a lower accident rate than younger workers; the accident rate declined steadily up to the age of 64 at which point it declined even more sharply. Root developed a work injury ratio which

indicated the relationship between work injuries and the employment of a particular age group within the total population. A ratio of more than 1.0 indicates that the injury rate is higher than the employment rate, a ratio of less than 1.0 indicates the opposite. The ratios for selected age groups are shown in table 2.6.

It was also noted that a strong relationship exists between the injury rate and the length of employment, with more than 40 percent of the injuries suffered by those under 35 occurring within the first year of employment. This perhaps indicates the need for improved training and orientation. When injuries do occur on the job, however, older workers exhibit a higher rate of long term disability and fatalities than do younger workers. Also, the average cost associated with compensation and medical care increases with age (Root, 1981).

Table 2.6 Work Injury Ratios for Selected Age Groups

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Age Group	Work Injury Ratio
20-24 years	1.38
25-34 years	1.15
35-44 years	0.89
45-54 years	0.77
55-64 years	0.77
Over 64 years	0.41

Source: Root, 1981

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There are differences in the types of injuries which afflict older workers. Older workers are more likely than younger workers to be injured by falls and by falling objects, but are less likely to be injured by machines or other equipment. Older workers are less likely to be injured in situations which require judgement and are more likely to be injured in situations requiring quick evasive action (Casey and Sheppard, 1980). With regard to other factors, older workers are less likely to be away from the job for whatever reason (Meier and Kerr, 1976). Casey and Sheppard (1980) expressed one caution, older workers who have accidents or who are unable to cope with the pressures and stressors of the work environment are likely to self-select themselves out of the job, leaving only those workers who can perform more effectively. The impact of this variable has not been assessed adequately.

#### Attitudes of Older Workers Toward Employment

The attitudes that individuals hold may affect their performance on the job, therefore, understanding these attitudes should be of concern to any employer. What attitudes do older workers have about their jobs? Do the attitudes of older workers differ in any meaningful way from those of younger workers? This section will examine the attitudes held by older workers toward their jobs.

#### Job Satisfaction, Job Involvement and Organizational Commitment

Job satisfaction has been defined as a positive or pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience (Locke, 1969). Several factors have been shown to affect

job satisfaction including: (1) the work itself; (2) compensation and benefits; (3) recognition; (4) promotions; (5) supervision; (6) co-workers; (7) working conditions; and (8) company policies and management (Doering et. al., 1983). Job satisfaction is an important issue for management, as those individuals who express a high overall job satisfaction are less likely to leave the organization (Doering et. al., 1983). Job satisfaction may also be linked with life satisfaction, self-confidence, physical health and longevity, and mental health (Locke, 1969). Job satisfaction has not, however, been linked with productivity in any empirical research, although it has been advanced in theory (Doering et. al., 1983).

In general, there seems to be a positive linear relationship between age and job satisfaction until age 60 when it begins to decrease (Saleh and Otis, 1964). It should be noted, however, that job satisfaction across all age groups has declined in each of three studies conducted since 1969. The positive relationship between job satisfaction and age is not affected by the type of individuals selected for the sample in different studies. The relationship being roughly the same for blue and white collar workers, males and females, and organization specific samples.(Doering et. al., 1983).

Siassi et. al. (1975) reported that within a sample of 558 blue collar workers, job satisfaction was higher for workers over the age of 40 than for those under the age of 40, regardless of the length of job tenure, a factor which is also positively related to job satisfaction. The researchers suggested that the higher levels of job

satisfaction among older workers were related to increased coping ability, greater stability and higher ego strength.

Job involvement has been defined as the degree to which a person has identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). Job involvement is positively related to job satisfaction and individuals who express higher levels of job involvement are less likely to leave the organization (Doering et. al., 1983). Doering et. al. (1983) reported that older workers were significantly more involved in their jobs than younger workers.

Organizational commitment is another important variable, for it has been associated with lower absenteeism and is also a better predictor of turnover than job satisfaction. Age has been positively associated with job commitment, but the relationship is weak (Doering et. al., 1983).

Absenteeism is a serious problem today, as it has been estimated that the cost of absenteeism in the United States is \$26.4 billion annually (Steers and Rhodes, 1978). This figure is based upon the cost of \$66 per day per employee and includes costs for: lost productivity; downtime; fringe benefits paid to the absent worker; replacement labor force costs; and unabsorbed fixed costs (Doering et. al., 1983).

Doering et. al. (1983) reported that there is a relationship between age and absenteeism. In general, older workers have lower rates of avoidable absence than younger workers. It is believed that

this may be the result of the older worker's attitude toward work, attendance motivation, and increasing stability associated with age. Conversely, the rates of unavoidable absence is higher for older workers than younger workers. It is thought that this may be a function of deteriorating health and longer recuperative periods following accidents and illness for older workers.

High rates of turnover among both management and hourly employees in the foodservice industry have been the norm for many years. Only in recent years have the costs associated with turnover been studied more closely. Wasmuth and Davis (1983) estimated that the average cost of each incident of employee turnover in the foodservice industry is \$2,500, while the range of turnover costs per incident were \$500 to \$5,000. Given these staggering costs, it is easily seen that the impact on the profitability of any foodservice organization is substantial. For example, assuming that a foodservice organization employing 300 full-time employees was able to reduce its turnover rate from 60% to 30%, the resulting impact on profitability would be \$225,000 in the first year alone.

Doering et. al. (1983) reported that there is an inverse relationship between age and turnover, but that the relationship is not a strong one. Only 6 percent of the variance associated with turnover can be attributed to age. Wanous et. al. (1979) reported that organizational factors such as compensation and training are better predictors of job survival than age, sex, race and education. Older workers, however, were found to be less likely than younger

workers to leave an organization following the completion of the training period, but were more likely to leave during the training period. Based upon these results, it is important for an organization employing older workers to pay particular attention to the critical orientation and training period at the outset of employment. It is believed that older workers are less likely to terminate their employment for two reasons: (1) they are more satisfied; and (2) they believe that there is a low probability of finding an acceptable employment alternative (Doering et. al., 1983).

#### Employment Problems Confronting Older Workers

In order to conduct research concerning the employment of older workers, it is important to possess an understanding of how they are perceived by younger individuals both in the work environment and within the general environment in which they function.

Rosen and Jerdee (1976a) reported that age related stereotypes may account for much of the declining status of older workers. Utilizing a sample of realtors and undergraduate business administration students, Rosen and Jerdee demonstrated that older workers are perceived to be less capable of effective performance with respect to creative, motivational and productive job demands. In addition, older workers were perceived to offer less potential for professional development. Older workers were, however, rated higher on job stability and in job situations which emphasized quality, reliability and integrity.

In a second study, Rosen and Jerdee (1976b) used an in basket

exercise involving 142 undergraduate business administration students. Each subject was presented with six key decisions involving an employee. Each of the in-basket decisions were the same, age being the independent variable. In each situation, the respondents were asked to evaluate the situation and make a recommendation concerning action which should be taken. The results of the study indicated that older workers were seen as more resistant to change and managerial influence. Older workers were also perceived to be less creative, a perception which would clearly limit promotability. They were also perceived to be less interested in technical change and learning new technical developments which were relevant to the job. The respondents perceived older workers to be more cautious on the job and to have a lower physical capacity. Finally, the study concluded that managers are less likely to support the retraining of older workers, thereby limiting their chances for professional development.

In a third study, Rosen and Jerdee (1977) again demonstrated the nature of managerial stereotypes and the impact which they might have upon the careers of older workers. The subjects of the study were 6,000 subscribers to the Harvard Business Review of which a total of 1,570 responded. The results of this study were consistent with previous research. First, managers perceived older workers to be relatively inflexible and resistant to change. As a result, managers were much less likely to give older workers feedback about their job performance. Second, few managers would provide organizational support for professional development and retraining for older workers.

Third, promotional opportunities for older workers are somewhat restricted, especially when the position demanded creativity, mental alertness or the ability to deal with a crisis situation. In these cases, because of the perceptions held by the respondent managers, older workers promotional opportunities would be restricted.

Older workers face a unique set of problems when they attempt to enter, re-enter the labor force or simply try to change employment. Sheppard (1976) identified five areas in which older workers encounter problems. They include: (1) changes in the economy; (2) educational attainment; (3) health status; (4) job performance and training; and (5) discrimination.

Older workers are often slower to be re-employed when the economy picks up following a recession. In addition, there have been significant changes in the longterm employment picture which adversely affects older workers. New and emerging industries which often involve high technology recruit younger and often white collar employees. Sheppard (1980) reported that more than half of those individuals over the age of 45 were employed in traditional industries such as agriculture, mining, construction, and other so called heavy industries. Conversely, there has been a gradual concentration of workers under 45 in high technology industries.

Educational deficiencies are related to the length of time that an individual is unemployed. When a worker over 45 is unemployed, these

deficiencies can adversely impact the mean length of unemployment (Sheppard, 1976).

Health status has, in some cases, been related with employment of older workers because it is of primary concern to those trying to make a retirement decision. Sheppard (1976) reported that over 60 percent of those individuals 45 to 54 years of age who were nonparticipants in the labor force left their jobs for health related reasons. It was also demonstrated that once these workers left their jobs, less than 15 percent sought other employment.

The final two aspects of Sheppard's study focused on job performance, training and discrimination as problems which confront older workers. Each of these issues is addressed in greater detail elsewhere in this review.

Butler (1980) noted that in many ways ageism is similar to racism and sexism. Butler identified three aspects of the problem which impact directly on the older individual, both in the workplace and in the larger society. These are: (1) prejudicial attitudes toward the elderly; (2) discriminatory practices against the elderly; and (3) institutional practices and policies which perpetuate age related stereotypes. Butler indicated that it is these three factors which work together in a cyclical fashion that often create still more problems for the older individual.

In a study funded by The National Council on the Aging and conducted by Louis Harris and Associates (1981), several problems which confront the elderly were identified. Many of these problems

were related to the cost of living and high rates of inflation which existed at that time. It was noted, however, that a substantial percentage of older individuals rely on income from sources other than social security to cover daily living expenses. One-third of those responding to the survey received income from savings and 22 percent received income from other investments. One-third received pensions and 5 percent received financial assistance from their children. It was noteworthy that only 13 percent received a part of their income from a current job.

A previous study conducted by Harris (1976) offers some interesting comparisons with the later study. The cost of living and the difficulties related to transportation were perceived as more serious problems in 1981 than in 1974. In addition, the picture of the elderly portrayed by the media was seen as less fair in 1981.

#### Age Discrimination

The literature indicates that older individuals frequently encounter employment discrimination because of their age, but this discrimination is often difficult to pinpoint. It can take many forms, sometimes being quite subtle and almost subconscious, while in other instances, it is very blatant. In an attempt to eliminate discrimination in job placement and hiring, the federal government passed into law in 1967 the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA).

The Department of Labor (1965) published a study which perhaps served as the basis for the ADEA proposal. The study was conducted in

five states which did not bar age discrimination in employment. A total of more than 500 employers were interviewed and the results of the study indicated widespread discrimination. By the age of 40 many individuals found that their employment possibilities were being restricted; by age 45 they contracted sharply; and they continued to decline until age 65 when they virtually vanished. The study documented widespread discrimination as well as mixed results concerning perceptions held by employers. In many instances, employers stated that they did not hire older workers for specific reasons such as, they required longer training periods and they cannot work under pressure. Yet, other employers stated that they did in fact hire older workers for just the opposite reasons. The study concluded that perhaps those employers who had set up age barriers and did not employ older workers were being guided by preconceptions rather than relevant experiences.

Briefly, the ADEA initially protected individuals between the age of 40 and 65, but this was amended in 1978 to include those up to 70 years of age. The intent to the law is to protect individuals from age discrimination by private employers employing more than 20 persons, public employers, employment agencies, and labor organizations with more than 25 members. The ADEA stated that it was against the law to discriminate because of age in: hiring, discharging, promotion, wages and salaries, and any other conditions or privileges of employment. In 1978 amendments raised the age for mandatory retirement to 70 (Meier and Ditter, 1980).

Britton and Thomas (1973) reported on age and sex as employment variables. The sample consisted of 56 employment interviewers, individuals whom it was believed would represent the attitudes and opinions of the business community and the larger community as well. The study resulted in significant main effects related to age in the following areas: (1) how difficult workers would be to place on jobs during an economic recession; (2) how difficult they would be to train; (3) how slow they would be in maintaining production schedules; (4) how accident prone they would be on the job; (5) how frequently they would be absent from work; and (6) how likely they would be to have the skills an employer would want. The questionnaire used in the study asked respondents to rank order men and women in four different age groups with regard to eight question areas.

Haefner (1977) interviewed 286 employers from the midwest and concluded that several factors affected the selection process. One of the factors was age; the respondents indicated that younger workers were preferred to older workers. The results of this study indicated that competence was the most common predictor of employment, but that age was the second best predictor of employment. Other variables considered within the study included sex and race.

Schwab and Heneman (1978) examined the relationship which age stereotyping has on performance appraisal. Within the study, a group of 32 personnel specialists were asked to evaluate written performance appraisals of four hypothetical secretaries. The researchers manipulated age and work experience as independent variables. Each

secretary was evaluated on six job performance dimensions including: cooperation; job knowledge; responsibility; organization; promotability; and salary increase. Contrary to the researcher's expectations, there were no significant main effects related to age of the target secretary. This result is at variance with the Rosen and Jerdee (1977) research discussed earlier. The authors believed that this may have been the result of methodological differences. It was also believed that perhaps the performance appraisals may be different for managerial and secretarial positions and that perhaps age may impact upon the performance appraisals for managers. This was not, however, a part of the study and can not be supported by the data analysis. Within this study, age stereotypes did not have as strong an impact on performance appraisals as had been anticipated.

Unemployment among those individuals over the age of 55 has grown more rapidly than for other age groups and that once unemployed the older worker remains unemployed for a much longer period of time. In June 1983, the average length of unemployment for all age groups was 8.8 weeks while it was 20.2 weeks for those aged 55-64 (Lubin, 1983). Lubin (1983) reported that this may be due to older workers reluctance to accept pay cuts or reduced job responsibilities as well as age discrimination. The longer length of unemployment which older workers must endure also results in other problems. A House of Representatives Committee stated that older workers who remain unemployed for a long period of time are more prone, than younger workers, to develop alcoholism, depression, insomnia, and

stress-related illness (Lubin, 1983).

Rosen (1980) reported that many employers discriminate against older people and make it difficult for them to find jobs. These are certainly not the only problems which older workers must confront, but they are ones which nearly all must face and overcome if they are to be successful in the labor force. Discrimination related to age in employment would seem to be quite widespread especially in its more subtle forms, thus making the situation confronting the older worker even more difficult.

#### Potential Employment and Training Interventions

If in fact more older Americans are to be successfully employed within the foodservice industry, a variety of lessons can be learned from those who have gained experience in working extensively with this target population. Specifically, attention should be given to employment counseling and job restructuring.

#### Employment Counseling

In the next two decades there will be a decline of approximately one million young entrants into the labor force in the United States each year. This shortage of younger workers will force employment counselors to reassess the manner in which they operate. One target group with whom employment counselors will work more closely with are older adults. Counsellors will need to be trained in specific methods which are successful in dealing with an older adult clientele. Odell

(1980) identified the specific needs as: functions related to employment and vocational guidance services; educational alternatives; preretirement and retirement counseling; and professional development training for those employed by community service agencies such as senior centers, nutrition programs and homes for the aged.

Employment counseling for older workers is not a new phenomenon, it dates back to the depression years of the 1930s. The passage of the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 marked the beginning of a nationwide federal and state employment service system designed to provide employment services for men, women and juniors. Special attention was given to employment services for juniors, those under the age of 21. These services often were operated independently and in some cases competitively with services for adults (Odell, 1980).

As recently as 1970, Odell (1980) reported that there were 100-150 voluntary counseling and placement agencies functioning specifically for older adults in the United States. The majority of these agencies were operated under the aegis of the Center for Community Change and were federally funded by the Administration on Aging. During the 1970s, further legislation was signed into law which provided assistance to older adults. Title IX of the Older Americans Act provided funding for counseling. This was amended in 1978 and is now under Title V of the Older Americans Act. The current assessment of the federal Congress is that interest in the needs and problems of older adults remains high, but that future funding of counseling programs remains in doubt (Odell, 1980).

Sinick (1976) reported on the special counseling needs of older workers as they change careers or prepare for retirement. Sinick identified six counseling emphases for advising older individuals approaching a career change. First is the need to evaluate the motivations which result in the desire to change careers, with the focus on self-evaluation. Second, many individuals contemplating a change in career experience a lack of self-confidence. Third, Sinick recommended that a minimum of testing be done because the traditional vocational tests are not as effective with older individuals. Fourth, old interests and skills should be examined carefully to make transfers of these interests and skills to career clusters in related areas. Fifth, the author recommended that new skills and interests may need to be developed and linked with the new motivations which have been identified. Finally, job finding assistance will need to be provided. This will entail building upon the individual successes of the past and overcoming the stereotypes held by potential employers. It will involve informational and educational efforts directed at potential employers.

Both Sinick (1976) and Lundgren (1965) reported on the need for pre-retirement counseling by business organizations. Sinick outlined three major areas of concern: role adjustments, use of time and other matters such as budgeting. Lundgren (1965) conducted a study involving 404 men retired from 13 companies representing both office and factory work settings. The subjects represented both salaried and hourly personnel. Satisfaction with retirement was higher among those

individuals who had worked for companies which had a counseling program. Retirement satisfaction was also higher among those subjects that had thought about retirement before the age of 59, although many of the subjects had not given a great deal of thought prior to retirement and found the company sponsored pre-retirement programs not to be of much value.

Many older individuals do not want to retire and in fact desire to continue to remain in the labor force. Smith and Golden (1982) reported on field based research conducted to assess the success of a vocational services workshop conducted for 121 older individuals who were disadvantaged. Within the context of this study, disadvantaged individuals were defined as those who desired to work and who were either unemployed or underemployed. The objectives of the program were to:

1. disseminate vocational guidance information to disadvantaged individuals over the age of 55 who were either unemployed or underemployed;
2. assist older individuals in finding gainful employment or volunteer work;
3. develop vocational guidance materials and disseminate them to those counselors who work with older individuals; and
4. provide information and education to potential employers concerning the abilities of older workers.

Based upon these objectives, the evaluation of the project indicated that of the 121 subjects who participated, 40% actively

sought employment and of this group, 75 percent were successfully placed. The program itself consisted of 12 hours of training aimed at skill identification, self-inventories, developing interviewing skills and creative approaches to the job search process.

Armstrong (1981) reported on the increasing number of mid-life adults who seek to change their careers, often by returning to school to gain new skills. The study examined the manner in which mid-life career changers made their decisions and which job search approaches were most successful. Armstrong (1981) identified two primary methods which were used, incremental and rational. The incremental approach is characterized by a goal of marginal change and choice based on restricted alternatives and limited information. This approach is based on "satisficing" rather than optimizing, an approach which seeks to find an acceptable solution rather than the ideal one. The second approach is a rational one, involving a wider range of alternatives, a broader range of informational sources and the selection of an optimal alternative that may realize the goal of a major career change.

Those individuals who participated in the study most often sought a change in career because they were not satisfied with their current positions. Of the two approaches, two-thirds used the incremental approach, however, this may not be the best approach. The participants were more successful when the rational approach was used, a full 78 percent of the participants using the rational approach were successful in changing their careers, while only 46 percent of those using the incremental approach enjoyed the same success. While the

participants relied on the incremental approach more frequently, they also demonstrated a reluctance to seek professional counseling. Only 14 percent of those changing careers had made use of counseling services in the five year period prior to the study, indicating that they relied on habitual patterns of decision making, an approach which may not be the most successful. A word of caution is, however, necessary. The number of subjects participating in the study was small and the results may not be generalizable to a larger population.

#### Job Restructuring

The mandatory retirement age has now been raised to 70, yet many workers continue to retire at age 65 and earlier. It has been suggested that early retirement is an entrenched practice in the American laborforce, but this may not be the case. Shkop and Shkop (1982) noted that there is evidence that provided with employment alternatives not currently available on a widespread basis, a large proportion of American workers would prefer to remain employed beyond the age of pension eligibility. Early retirement is positively correlated with an individual's educational level and as the educational level of the workforce increases, this may result in a decrease in the number of workers who exercise early retirement options (Shkop and Shkop, 1982).

Shkop and Shkop (1982) reported that over 90 percent of the managerial employees surveyed would continue working if employment modifications were made which would meet their needs and wishes. There are specific modifications which are desired by workers and

these differ for blue and white collar employees. White collar employees indicated a willingness to accept positions of less responsibility and typically were interested in working an eight hour day for a period of less than five days per week. Conversely, blue collar groups, wanted to work fewer hours per day. This difference may be due to the physical nature of most blue collar occupations. Both white and blue collar groups were interested in part-time work, longer vacations and seasonal employment.

Managerial employees were also more inclined to mention specific changes in job content, including special assignments which would make use of their expertise, such as consulting, and training younger workers. The concept of training younger workers is supported by the concept of mentoring. Blue collar workers participating in the study did not indicate specific changes that they would recommend in job content (Shkop and Shkop, 1982).

Hackman and Lawler (1971) commented that managers and researchers alike were becoming more interested in the way that jobs were designed. The design of the job can impact upon motivation, satisfaction, and job performance. With this premise in mind, Hackman and Lawler (1971) conducted a study involving 208 subjects performing 13 different jobs within a telephone company. The study was based on the expectancy theory and addressed the problem of how employee motivation can be improved through the design of the job.

The methodology used within this study (Hackman and Lawler, 1971) was quite extensive. Both supervisors and hourly employees were

interviewed and a questionnaire was also used to collect data. The job dimensions examined included variety, autonomy, task identity, feedback, dealing with others, and friendship opportunities. The researchers identified three characteristics of motivating jobs: (1) the job allows a worker to feel personally responsible for a meaningful portion of his work; (2) the job provides outcomes which are intrinsically meaningful or otherwise perceived as worthwhile by the individual; (3) the job must provide feedback about what is accomplished. It was strongly emphasized that even if the first two conditions were met, without adequate feedback employees would not be able to experience higher order need satisfaction.

An implication of this study is that there are important interdependencies among both the characteristics of individuals and their jobs, both of which must be considered. The researchers were critical of both the scientific management and job enlargement schools of thought for having given too little attention to the independencies between job and individual characteristics. The scientific school of thought advances the idea that work should be designed in such a way that it becomes routine, simple and standardized, while the job enlargement school holds that work should be expanded both vertically and horizontally to make it more complex, demanding, challenging and demanding on the individual.

Hackman and Oldham (1976) built upon this research and developed and tested a model of motivation through the design of the work. The model is based upon the interactions of three classes of variables:

(1) the psychological states of the employee; (2) the characteristics of the job which can create these psychological states; and (3) the attributes of the individual that determine how positively an individual will react to a complex and challenging job.

Lawler (1969) cautioned, however, against job enlargement without regard for the impact that it might have on the individual. Job enlargement has both a vertical and horizontal dimension. The vertical dimension involves the extent to which the workers control the planning and execution of their jobs and participate in the establishment of organizational policies. Horizontal job enlargement refers to the number and variety of operations that an individual performs on the job. Lawler (1969) cautions against jobs which are enlarged too greatly on the horizontal dimension, cautioning that over-enlargement in this manner may make it difficult to provide adequate feedback. Rather, an approach which utilizes both vertical and horizontal enlargement will result in the greatest motivation for the employee.

During the 1960s, the Department of Labor undertook a study to determine how jobs might be redesigned to accommodate older workers (Rothberg and Mitnik, 1967). The researchers conducted a direct mail survey to include 500 companies selected from the Fortune Directory of the 1,000 largest U. S. Industrial Corporations. Eventually these companies were screened and detailed case studies were conducted at ten locations. The researchers developed the following conclusions: (1) jobs are constantly being redesigned to improve efficiency; (2)

job redesign with older workers in mind has been carried out in a wide variety of work settings in both manufacturing and service industries; (3) job redesign for older workers has been carried out in all levels of skilled and unskilled jobs; (4) most job redesign efforts are the result of informal actions taken by foremen and plant managers rather than through formal corporate efforts of programs; (5) the content of the jobs was changed in conjunction with equipment improvement, all of which was designed to take advantage of the skills of older workers; (6) job redesign within the companies studied involved very little financial outlays and minimal capital investment; (7) the redesign of the jobs resulted in substantial increases in productivity; (8) redesign of the jobs for older workers was seen as preferable to the common practice of reassignment of older workers to other job assignments; and (9) wider dissemination of information about job redesign for older workers is needed.

#### Training Interventions

During the last several years several congressional committees have examined the employment potential of older workers. The majority of these have focused on the elimination of barriers which prevent the successful employment of older workers. These barriers include the Social Security Earnings Test, mandatory retirement at specific ages, lax enforcement of the Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) and the need to continue the Senior Community Service Employment Program (SCSEP) as a part of Title V (Subcommittee on Aging, Family and Human Services, 1982) (Committee on Ways and Means, 1980).

Siemen (1976) studied the learning performance of both young and older individuals faced with a cognitive task. The sample consisted of 60 subjects, divided into two groups. The mean age of one group was 20.3 years, while the mean age of the second group was 73.0 years. Both groups were presented with the same material and were given a pre and post-test. The instructional method employed was a self-paced programmed module. Previous studies led the researcher to believe that the greatest difference in performance between these two groups would be related to the speed at which the material was presented. It was hypothesized that if a self-paced instructional approach was used that the two groups would not be significantly different in their performance. The results of this study support this hypothesis. The self-paced approach was successful for both groups, as there was a significant difference in pre and post-test scores. Second, the older group did in fact take a longer time period to complete the module, but there were no significant differences in performance between the two age groups. Siemen (1976) suggested that the difference in speed may be due in part to the younger individuals being more familiar with programmed instruction and the multiple choice instrument used as the pre and post-test. It is important to note, however, that programmed instruction can be successfully used to train older individuals and that this format should be considered by an organization faced with the task of training older workers.

Rosow and Zager (1980) examined new options for extending the working life of individuals in the United States and concluded with

several recommendations concerning the training aspects of human resource management. First, they recommended that companies become more elastic in their management of human resources. For example, increased consideration should be given to lateral assignments and job redesign. Companies would be well advised to take a more long term perspective towards their employees, with special emphasis given to promotion from within whenever possible, or the retraining of existing employees rather than simply hiring new employees from outside the organization to fill employment openings. The researchers noted that often the training needs of older workers are not given the same priority as those of younger workers, and as a result, companies fail to take full advantage of the depth of knowledge and skills possessed by the older workers.

#### Options for Extending the Working Life

Several authors have advanced ideas which would facilitate the increased employment of older workers. Rosen (1980) stated that increased emphasis should be placed on part-time work, work sharing between two or more individuals, and flextime working arrangements. Rosen (1980) also stressed the need for increased effort on the part of employers to review their human resource management practices as they related to older workers. Specifically, increased attention should be given to hiring patterns by age for different job levels, the validity and reliability of pre-employment testing, and the organization's training and promotion policies. It was also stressed that there was an increased need for improved employment counseling

and training which was aimed at the specific needs of the older workers (Rosen, 1980).

Tellier (1974) studied 12 organizations that had adopted a four day work week to determine the relationship between this work schedule and the satisfaction level of older workers. A total of 217 subjects participated in the study, each being selected by a stratified sampling procedure. The results of the study indicated that older workers were more satisfied with the four day work week and that job satisfaction also increased. These results are similar to those found in samples of younger individuals.

Hedges (1971) examined both sides of the issue related to switching to a four day work week. Advantages of the four day work week include increased productivity and lower unit costs. Employees who work this type of work week report higher morale and reduced levels of absenteeism, tardiness and turnover. Disadvantages, however, include possible adverse effects on both health and safety of workers due to longer hours worked each day. Neither of these issues has been fully explored. A second argument against the implementation of the four day work week is productivity gains which result from the implementation of the four day week can not be sustained in the long run.

Another employment alternative being explored is part-time employment. The impetus for this change has come primarily from women's groups, but older workers have shown a willingness to participate. Lazer (1975) reported that the number of part-time

non-agricultural workers had increased from 5.8 million in 1950 to more than 11.3 million in 1975. The alternative for many companies today is how to adapt to those workers who want to work on a permanent part-time basis, rather than the more traditional 40 hour week. Permanent part-time employment can be successfully accomplished through a job sharing program in which two or more individuals share the responsibilities of one job. Corporations have, however, shown a reluctance to adopt this approach, even though individuals have expressed a willingness to work in these types of positions. Zippo (1981) reported that 50 percent of the older workers responding to a recent study indicated that they were in favor of working beyond the normal retirement age in some type of part-time or job sharing situation. The primary reasons cited for this preference were: (1) economic necessity; (2) fulfillment and satisfaction derived from the job; and (3) they didn't like the idea of complete retirement.

Flexible work arrangements are generally viewed with favor by those workers over the age of 55 (Harris, 1981). The availability of part-time work, job sharing, the ability to work one or two days a week at home, and the freedom to schedule their own work hours is seen as a positive benefit by well over two-thirds of the older individuals surveyed in this national sample.

Rosow and Zager (1980) examined the issue of extending the working life of older workers and made several recommendations. These recommendations while quite numerous can be classified into the following general groups: (1) firms should critically examine their

hiring and separation practices to ensure compliance with the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967; (2) policies concerning pay and benefits should be examined both by the government and private industry; (3) firms should offer more assessment services and counseling for older workers; (4) training and development programs should be expanded to encompass a greater age span; (5) new options and alternatives to extending the work life such as job redesign, reassignment of older workers, and retraining should be explored more fully by employers; and (6) increased mobility in training should be provided for older workers through the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). A wide variety of employment alternatives and recommendations for both the older worker and corporations have been advanced by several research studies.

#### Conceptual Framework

In summary, significant demographic changes are occurring in the United States which may create a distinct labor shortage in the foodservice industry in the coming years. As the number of younger workers, as a percentage of the population and labor force declines, organizations may have to recruit different types of employees; one type suggested are older workers.

Previous research has clearly demonstrated the stereotypes commonly held by the American populous. In contrast to these stereotypes, however, are the results of empirical research dealing with older workers. With regard to the variables measuring learning ability, training and job performance, absenteeism, injury rate, and

turnover, older workers have shown themselves to be roughly equal to and in some instances superior to younger workers.

Several approaches have been utilized in an attempt to increase the labor force participation of older workers and these have been reported in the literature. These include interventions which may be classified under the headings of counseling, job restructuring and adjustments in the training methods used.

With these stereotypes and research results in mind, the present study examined the relationships between foodservice unit variables and several human resource management policies, practices and issues related to the employment of older workers. Among these included: training practices; employment and scheduling practices; unit attributes; and managers' perceptions of older workers.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

As stated earlier, this study had two primary purposes. The first was to describe the relationship between unit managers' attitudes and practices and the employment status of older workers within a portion of the foodservice industry. The second was to derive implications about the educational and training interventions which would be necessary to facilitate the increased labor force participation of older workers in the foodservice industry.

In order to successfully complete each of these purposes, mail survey research methodology was used. The use of mail survey methodology combined with probability sampling offered several advantages, including: (1) a great deal of information could be gathered from a large population; (2) it was less expensive than other forms of survey research such as personal interviews; and (3) within sampling error, the information obtained accurately reflected the values, attitudes and beliefs of the population and the precision of the sample could be calculated (Dillman, 1978). Disadvantages associated with mail survey methodology, included: (1) the information obtained may be superficial because the methodology does not allow for follow-up or clarification of specific questions; (2) survey methodology requires considerable time and money for data collection; and (3) response rates are often quite low, limiting the generalizability of the results (Kerlinger, 1973).

In order to minimize the limitations of mail survey methodology, a systematic approach to methodology was necessary. For this reason, the Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978) was used, with some modifications. These modifications, discussed later in this chapter, were the result of funding limitations. The specifics of this methodology are discussed in a later section of this chapter.

#### Population and Sample

The target population of this study were unit foodservice managers. Unit managers have operational management responsibility for their individual units, be the units independently owned or chain affiliated. As a part of this operational responsibility, unit managers recruit, select, train and supervise hourly employees. For this reason, unit managers represented the best population to provide both quantitative and qualitative data relative to the hourly personnel employed within selected segments of the foodservice industry. In contrast, corporate level managers are too far removed from the unit operational level to be able to provide the data necessary to answer the research questions. In order to fully answer the research questions, it was imperative that data be collected from unit level managers. Policy may be formulated at the corporate level but it is implemented at the unit level, by unit managers.

#### The Sample Frame

The sample frame consisted of unit managers who were members of the National Restaurant Association (NRA). The NRA is the largest professional association representing the foodservice industry in the

United States. Current membership in the NRA exceeds 10,000 and includes a mix of the defined industry segments fast food, institutional and table service foodservice operations.

A content analysis was done on the 1983-84 NRA membership list. The analysis consisted of a page-by-page categorization of the members' industry segment from 20 randomly selected pages of the 162 page membership list. This analysis reflects the highest concentration of members within the table service industry segment. Approximately 7,000 or 70 percent of the NRA members were classified in the table service segment. Of the remaining 3,000 members, approximately 2,000 were classified in the fast food segment and approximately 1,000 were institutional foodservice operations.

The use of the NRA 1983-84 membership list as a sample frame limited the generalizability of the research results. The results are not generalizable to the entire foodservice industry, but rather, to a portion of the industry. This limitation reduces the usefulness of the results, but the results are valuable in assessing the relationships between unit managers' attitudes and practices and the employment of older workers at the unit level.

Due to the nature of the membership of the NRA, that was the relatively high proportion of table service units and lower proportion of fast food and institutional foodservice units, a stratified sampling procedure was used. Stratified sampling offered several advantages, including increased statistical efficiency and providing estimations of both the total population and each of the strata

(Jaeger, 1984).

The units selected for the sample were stratified by industry segment because it was believed that there was a relationship between the labor force participation of older workers and the industry segment. An equal number of foodservice units were selected in each of the three industry segments defined earlier: table service, institutional and fast food. The use of a random sample would be sufficient to generalize to the membership of the NRA; however, it is believed that the industry segment of the unit may be a good predictor of older worker labor force participation. For this reason, an equal number of units in the three industry segments were selected.

A total of 480 units were selected from the membership list of the NRA. These units were selected in equal thirds of table service, fast food and institutional foodservice, that is 160 units of each. The sample size was established by fiscal limits. If a simple random sample had been used a sample size of 370 would have been necessary at the 95 percent confidence level (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). The use of the Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978) resulted in a potential cost of \$1.62 per subject if all four first-class mailings were required. Within the funding limits, a sample of 480 was the largest possible.

The stratified sample was selected in the following manner. The membership list of the NRA was examined and each of the members classified by industry segment. Those members representing large corporations rather than single units were deleted from the sample

frame. Following this, the sample frame was numbered consecutively. The actual sample was selected using the procedure recommended by Jaeger (1984). The procedure was as follows:

1. Open the book of random numbers to any page, alternating between the first third, second third and last third of the book for repeated experiments.
2. With eyes closed, point to a group of four digits.
3. Add one to the last two digits of the four-digit group, and use the resulting value to designate the number of a group of 1000 digits.
4. Use the left most digit of the block of four to designate the number of a row within the designated thousand digits.
5. Starting with the left most block of four digits with the group of 1000 digits and row determined above, read as many consecutive blocks as are needed, going from left to right in each row (Jaeger, 1984, p. 239).

This procedure was used until 160 subjects are selected for each of the three strata identified.

#### Instrumentation

In order to adequately answer the research questions, an instrument was needed which would address all of the research questions. Following a search, no ideal instrument was found. However, an instrument developed by Crouse (1980) was modified for use in the study. Crouse's instrument was developed under contract with the Illinois State Department of Education. It was designed to assess

employers' perceptions of older workers in all segments of industry and retail trade. Crouse (1980) pretested this instrument with 100 employers and subsequently used it in a study involving 2,376 employers. This instrument was modified by the researcher and is shown in Appendix I. The instrument mailed to unit managers was divided into four major sections.

Section I Training Practices Within the Foodservice Unit:

The first section was designed to collect data concerning training practices within the unit. The first two questions, both closed-ended, established whether a formal training program had been established and if this was the case, the length of the training program. In the event that a formal training program had not been established, the respondent was instructed to skip the questions related to training and to proceed to question 8.

The next four questions (Questions 3-6) collected data concerning training methods and flexibility permitted in training programs. Question 3 asked the respondent to indicate the methods used in the training program. Question 3 provided the respondent with a list of 7 training methods which could be used within a foodservice unit. The respondent was asked to indicate which of these methods were currently being used. In addition, the respondent was provided with space to write in other methods which were used. Question 4, a closed-ended question, established whether variations were permitted in the training methods and if so, which individual normally makes the variation decision. Question 5 used a five-point Likert type scale

to assess the extent to which trainees were permitted to set their own pace during the training program. The final question of this section, question 6, used a four-point Likert type scale and asked the respondent to rate the effectiveness of 7 training methods. The respondent was also provided with space to write in and evaluate another method.

Section II Training and Job Performance of Older Workers:

The second section assessed unit managers' perceptions of the training and job performance of older workers. Question 7 used a five-point Likert type rating scale, ranging from poor to excellent, to assess the perceived performance of the typical older worker during the training period. Respondents were asked to rate the training performance on 8 separate characteristics. The five-point rating scale selected was similar to many performance appraisal forms used in the foodservice industry. Question 8 asked the respondent to evaluate the overall job performance of the typical older worker on each of 14 characteristics. Each of the characteristics used the same Likert type five-point rating scale used in the preceeding question.

Section III Characteristics of the Labor Force:

The first question in this section, number 9, asked the respondent to indicate the number of managers and hourly employees currently working within the unit. Question 10 asked the respondent to indicate the percentage of full-time and part-time hourly employees. Question 11 collected data about the percentage of both management and hourly employees in each of four age categories. The next question, number

12, collected data, along with question 10, concerning the scheduling flexibility provided by the foodservice unit. In a closed-ended question, the respondent was asked to indicate which of 8 employment alternatives were used within the foodservice unit. An open-ended selection "other" allowed the respondent to write in any other employment alternatives used within the unit.

Section IV Supplemental Questions:

The fourth and final section consisted of three closed-ended questions (questions 13-15). These questions provided data regarding the industry segment of the unit, the size of the unit as measured by annual sales and the age of the respondent. Question 14 asked the respondent to estimate annual sales for the most recent fiscal year to the nearest \$5,000. The majority of the respondents were unable or unwilling to provide this type of data and a closed-ended set of response choices was provided as an alternative.

Pretest Procedures

The pretest was conducted during a six week period extending from October 15 to November 23, 1984. During this time, four primary activities took place: (1) finalizing the specific questions to include on the questionnaire and sequencing these questions in the best possible manner; (2) presenting the questionnaire with peer groups for review and critique; (3) mailing the questionnaire to non-randomly selected pretest participants for further review and initial data collection; and (4) revising the questionnaire based upon the input from each of these sources.

The pretest questionnaire was refined with the assistance of the members of the researcher's graduate advisory committee and a group of three peers. Each of these individuals, having expertise in questionnaire design or previous research experience with the target population, contributed to the refinement of the questionnaire. Minor changes were made in question formulation, ordering and response choices based upon the input from these individuals.

Following this, a group of subjects were selected to participate in the pretest. These individuals were divided into two groups. The first group consisted of unit foodservice managers from throughout the Commonwealth of Virginia. In most respects, they were very much like the target respondents and were able to review the questionnaire from the perspective of a unit manager. Twenty-five managers were mailed the pretest questionnaire and a cover letter which explained the nature of the study and the importance of the pretest procedure. A copy of the pretest cover letter and questionnaire are shown in Appendix I. The response rate for this portion of the pretest was 72 percent.

The second group which participated in the pretest were faculty members from other universities which support Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management Programs. The questionnaire and cover letter were sent to 10 faculty members from other universities. Of this group 80 percent responded. The combined response rate for the pretest groups was 74.3 percent.

Comments and suggestions from the participants were reviewed by

the researcher and minor changes were made in the questionnaire. The first change was made in question 5. This question dealt with the extent to which trainees were allowed to set their own pace. The response choices on the pretest questionnaire had been: (1) Never; (2) Rarely; (3) Occasionally; (4) Frequently; and (5) Always. Several of the respondents expressed concern about the precise definition of each of these response choices. The response choices were changed to specific ranges of percentages in four responses choices: (1) less than 25 percent of the time; (2) 25 to 50 percent of the time; (3) 51 to 75 percent of the time; and (4) more than 75 percent of the time.

The second change made in the questionnaire was in the layout of questions 6 through 11. Each of these questions asked the respondent to place an "X" in a box which represented a choice on a five point Likert type scale for a listing of several criteria and characteristics. The line which had been on the left of each of the listed criteria and characteristics was removed in order to make the question easier to read and complete. This change was suggested by two of the pretest participants.

#### Data Collection

The Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978) for survey research was used to design the questionnaire and cover letters as well as data collection procedures. The one deviation from this method which was made was in the type of postage used for the final follow-up mailing. The Total Design Method makes use of certified mail for the final mailing but this was not done in order to reduce expenses.

On January 1, 1985 the first mailing was sent to 480 randomly selected foodservice units. Each participant received a mailing which consisted of a cover letter which explained the purpose, importance and implications of the study and a copy of the research questionnaire. A copy of a sample of the cover letter is shown in Appendix II.

One week later, on January 8, 1985, a follow-up postcard was mailed to all of the foodservice units selected for the study. The postcard was sent to encourage respondents to complete the questionnaire if they had not already done so and expressed appreciation to those that had already completed and returned the questionnaire, thereby reinforcing their behavior. A copy of this postcard is shown in Appendix II.

Two weeks later, on January 22, 1985, a second cover letter and questionnaire were sent to all non-respondents. This cover letter was written in much the same manner as the first, stressing the importance of the study and the need for their response in order to assure results which would be representative of the population. A copy of this letter is shown in Appendix II.

The final mailing was sent four weeks later, on March 19, 1985, to all non-respondents. This mailing consisted of a third cover letter (shown in Appendix II) and another copy of the questionnaire. The letter was written in a stronger tone, encouraging the non-respondents to complete the questionnaire and return it immediately. Dillman (1978) recommends that the first three mailings be sent by first class

mail and this procedure was followed. It is recommended that the final mailing be sent by certified mail but this procedure was not followed in the interest of cost containment.

Response rates for the study were significantly higher than those reported previously for similar groups (Tse, 1982; Schnepf, 1982). Of the 480 units included in the sample, 282 responded, resulting in a response rate of 58.8 percent. Of this number, 264 were usable and 18 were eliminated from the study. This resulted in a usable response rate of 55.0 percent. This response rate was not as high as those reported by Dillman (1978), yet it is significantly higher than rates previously reported for samples similar to the one used in the study.

There were several reasons respondents were eliminated from the study. The most common reason was that the respondent represented a corporate office rather than a single unit. When the sample was selected, the researcher screened the sample frame to eliminate potential participants which clearly represented corporate offices. It was not possible to screen all of these from the selected sample and 8 respondents were eliminated for this reason. A second reason for elimination included return of the questionnaire but non-completion of the questions. Four respondents were eliminated for this reason. Five respondents were eliminated because they had changed positions or were no longer employed within the foodservice industry. Finally, one respondent was deleted because the unit was an instructional foodservice facility.

### Follow-up With Non-Respondents

During the period of April 2-16, 1985, the researcher attempted to follow-up with non-respondents. A group of 15 non-respondents were randomly selected and two attempts were made to contact each of them by telephone. Of this number, 12 were successfully contacted and asked an abbreviated series of questions related to the study. Three were not contacted, despite 2 attempts to each them. The last non-successful contact was made with an individual who was no longer in the foodservice industry and did not wish to answer any questions.

Each of the non-respondents contacted was asked an abbreviated series of questions. The first question was whether they had a formal training program in place within their foodservice unit. Of the 12 non-respondents contacted, 9 had a training program established. The is very similar to those that did respond to the previous mailings.

Each of these non-respondents was then asked an open-ended question related to their perception of the overall job performance of older workers. The majority of the non-respondents contacted perceived that older workers performed at a level which was about the same as those who had responded to the questionnaire, that was average to above average. This is similar to those that did respond to the previous mailings, although the respondents perceived that the training and work performance of older workers was average to above average. Four of the non-respondents contacted indicated that they had never had an older worker apply for a position within their unit and were not in a position to evaluate the performance of older

workers within a foodservice unit. Instead, they provided overall impressions based upon non-foodservice situations.

The third question posed to the non-respondents asked them to provide two or three adjectives which would describe the positive and negative aspects of employing older workers. The responses were similar to the stereotypes which were discussed in Chapter Two, The Review of Literature.

The fourth question was asked in a hypothetical manner and asked the non-respondent if he would change the training methods used for hourly employees if more older workers were hired within the foodservice unit. Eleven of the 12 unit managers indicated that no changes were likely to be made and one indicated that perhaps changes would have to be made, but he was not sure what those changes might be.

Based upon this follow-up with non-respondents, it appears they do not differ in any significant way from those who did respond to the questionnaire.

#### Weighting the Data

Industry segment was a key variable in the study. It was believed that the industry segment might be related to the percentage of older workers employed within foodservice units. The industry was divided into three segments for the purpose of this study: fast food; institutional; and table service. Within the sample frame, membership in the National Restaurant Association, there are approximately 2,000 fast food members, 1,000 insitutional members and 7,000 tableservice

members. When the sample was selected, a stratified sample was done with equal representation from all three segments. Of the 480 units selected for participation in the study, 160 were selected from each of the three industry segments.

The response rates for the three segments were not exactly equal, that is 33 percent for each segment. The percentage of respondents were divided as follows: 37.1 percent fast food; 28.6 percent institutional; and 33.8 tableservice units.

In order that the results would accurately represent the actual segmentation within the sample frame, the results were weighted. In order to do this the probability of selection for units in each of the three segments was calculated. The reciprocal of this was used as the assigned weight for each segment. The probability of selection for each segment was as follows: Fast food  $1/12.5$ ; institutional  $1/6.25$ ; and table service  $1/43.75$ . The reciprocal of each of these resulted in weighting factors of 12.5, 6.25 and 43.75 for the fast food, institutional and table service segments respectively. These weights were then reduced to the lowest possible level. The lowest of the weighting factors, 6.25 for the institutional segment was divided into each of the three factors, resulting in final weights as follows: 1.0 for the institutional segment, 2.0 for the fast food segment and 7.0 for the table service segment. Using the SPSS-X command for weight, the data were adjusted to reflect the proportion of each of three segments in the sample frame. All of the results reported in Chapter Four, Results represent the relative weighted results.

### Methods of Analysis

Following data collection, the data were coded and analyzed using the SPSS-X Statistical Program (SPSS, 1983). The specific statistical techniques used to answer each research question are discussed in the sections which follow.

Research Question 1a: What is the relationship between the training methods used and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

Frequencies were reported for the variables which dealt with whether a formal training program had been established and the length of such programs (Questions 1 and 2, Appendix III). The mean length of the training program was also reported (Question 2, Appendix III) using the mid-point of each response. The frequencies for each of the training methods used were reported (Question 3, Appendix III). The mean, median and standard deviation were reported for the perceived effectiveness of the training methods (Question 6, Appendix III). A series of Pearson correlation coefficients were computed to determine the extent of the relationship between the variables percentage of hourly workers over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III) and each of the training methods used (Question 3, Appendix III).

Research Question 1b: What is the relationship between training program flexibility and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

Frequencies were calculated for the variable extent to which self-paced methods were used (Question 5, Appendix III). A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to determine the extent of the relationship between the variables percentage of hourly workers over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III) and the extent to which self-paced methods were used (Question 5, Appendix III).

Research Question 1c: What is the relationship between scheduling flexibility and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

The mean, median and range were reported for the number of management and hourly employees (Question 9, Appendix III). Frequencies were calculated for the use of each of the employment alternatives, including, allowances, incentives and non-traditional work patterns (Question 12, Appendix III). A Chi Square statistic was computed between the variable percentage part-time employees (Question 10, Appendix III) and the percentage of hourly employees over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III). Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between the percentage of hourly workers over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III) and the use of employment alternatives (Question 12, Appendix III). Another Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated between the variables percentage of hourly workers over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III) and the percentage of part-time employees (Question 10, Appendix III).

The labor force participation for hourly workers over 50 was categorized as no hourly workers over 50 employed, equal to or below

the median percentage of hourly workers over 50, and above the median percentage of hourly workers over 50. A Crosstabulation was then reported for the variables labor force participation of hourly workers over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III), classified as no older workers, equal to or below the median percentage of hourly workers over 50, and above the median percentage of hourly workers over 50 and the use of employment alternatives. (Question 12, Appendix III).

A Chi Square statistic was reported for the variables: percentage of hourly workers over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III) and the use of employment alternatives (Question 12, Appendix III). The use of employment alternatives (Question 12, Appendix III) was categorized as either none of the employment alternatives were used, or some of the employment alternatives were used. If the respondent indicated that one or more of the employment alternatives were used, those responses were categorized as some.

Research Question 2a: What is the relationship between the industry segment and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

Using the labor participation rate for hourly workers over 50 a crosstabulation and contingency coefficient were reported for the variables percentage of hourly workers over 50 and the industry segment (Question 13, Appendix III).

A crosstabulation, contingency coefficient and a Chi-Square were also computed for the variables percentage of managers over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III) and the industry segment (Question 13,

Appendix III).

Research Question 2b: What is the relationship between the size of the unit, as measured by annual sales and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

To determine the extent of the relationship between these two variables, a Chi-Square was computed for the percentage of hourly workers over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III) and the size of the foodservice unit, as measured by annual sales (Question 14, Appendix III).

Research Question 2c: What is the relationship between the age of the unit foodservice managers and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

A series of Pearson correlation coefficients was reported for the variables percentage of hourly workers over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III) and the percentage of managers employed within the unit in each of three age categories, under 25, 26 to 49, and 50 and older. (Question 11, Appendix III).

Research Question 3a: What is the relationship between the managers' perception of the performance of older workers during the training period and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

The mean, median and standard deviation were computed for each of the eight evaluative criteria (Question 7, Appendix III). These scores were then added together and divided by eight to create a new variable, overall training performance of hourly workers over 50. A

Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the extent of the relationship between training period performance and the percentage of hourly workers over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III).

Research Question 3b: What is the relationship between the managers' perception of the overall job performance of older workers and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

The mean, median and standard deviation were computed for each of the fourteen evaluative criteria (Question 8, Appendix III). These scores were then added together and divided by fourteen to create a new variable, overall job performance of hourly workers over 50. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the extent of the relationship between the overall job performance of hourly workers over 50 and the percentage of hourly workers over 50 (Question 11, Appendix III).

#### Summary

This chapter presented the methodology related to a primary purpose of the study, specifically to describe the relationship between unit manager's attitudes and practices and the employment status of older workers within a portion of the foodservice industry. The population and sample were discussed and the sample frame was identified as unit managers who were members of the NRA. The sampling methodology was reviewed and the stratified sampling technique data weighting procedures were discussed. Data collection involved the use of the Total Design Method (Dillman, 1978), with slight modification. Instrumentation involved the use of Crouse's (1980) instrument as a

model. The questionnaire used in this study contained four sections: (1) training practices within the foodservice unit; (2) training and job performance of older workers; (3) characteristics of the labor force; and (4) supplemental questions. The final section of the chapter presented the specific data analysis techniques which were used to answer each of the 8 research questions.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

#### Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present detailed results of the study. These results are organized into sub-sections related to the three primary research questions. Each of the research questions is stated and the sub-questions and results follow.

The results reported in this chapter are weighted. The data were weighted based on the industry segment of each respondent. The total number of usable responses was 264 divided among the three industry segments, fast food, institutional and table service. Following the weighting procedure, discussed in Chapter 3, the total number of usable responses reported was 734. Differential non-response to questions resulted in fewer than 734 responses for some questions. During the data analysis and interpretation process of this study, the alpha level was set at .05.

#### Profile of Employees in the Foodservice Industry

A wide variety of individuals are employed within the foodservice industry and this was also true of the responding firms. The mix of full and part-time employees employed by the responding units was 50.6 percent full-time and 49.4 percent part-time. The mean number of managers employed within each unit was 7.5 and the mean number of hourly employees was 84.7. Combined, the mean number of employees within each unit was 92.2.

A large percentage of these employees are young individuals. The National Restaurant Association (1984) previously reported that 24 percent of the industry's labor force were teenagers. Results from the present study support this finding. Within the hourly employee category, the mean percentage of employees younger than 25 was 49.50 percent. The mean percentage between the ages of 25 and 49 was 40.75 percent. The mean percentage of employees reported between the ages of 50 and 64 was 8.9 percent. Few hourly employees work beyond the age of 65 in the foodservice industry. The mean percentage of employees 65 and over was 0.85. Combining the last two age groups, the mean percentage of hourly employees over 50 is 9.75 percent.

Among management ranks the results were similar. There was a smaller percentage of managers under the age of 25, but the largest percentage are less than 50 years of age. The mean percentage reported for managers less than 25 years of age was 17.20 percent; the mean percentage for managers between the ages of 25 and 49 was 68.96 percent; the mean percentage between the ages of 50 and 64 was 12.92 percent; and finally, the mean percentage for managers age 65 and over was 0.92 percent. A visual profile of the labor force of NRA members is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Profile of the Labor Force of National Restaurant Association Members: Mean Percentage of Employees in Selected Age Groups in the Hourly and Management Category  
(n=699 units reporting, representing 644,478 employees)

Employee Category and Age Group	Mean Percentage	
Hourly employees under 25	49.50	
Hourly employees 25 to 49	40.75	
Hourly employees 50 to 64	8.90	
Hourly employees 65 and older	0.85	
	100.00	
<hr/>		
Managers under 25	17.20	
Managers 25 to 49	68.96	
Managers 50 to 64	12.92	
Managers 65 and older	0.92	
	100.00	

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between specific unit training and management practices and the percentage of older workers employed within foodservice units?

Research Question 1a: What is the relationship between the training methods used and the percentage of older workers employed in the foodservice units?

The weighted responses indicate that 69.3 percent have established a formal training program. The average length of the training programs is 7.36 days. The largest percentage (44.8 percent) of the training programs, last 1 to 5 days. Less than 5 percent of the training programs are completed in one day and 7.9 percent of the units have programs which last more than 15 days. Table 4.2 provides further information about the length of the training programs within foodservice units.

A wide variety of training methods are used within the foodservice industry. The methods most frequently used listed in descending order were: (1) training conducted by a manager or specific supervisor; (2) training conducted by a peer employee; (3) training which makes use of a training manual for the trainee to study; (4) training which utilizes a video cassette recorder; (5) training conducted in formal classes; (6) training utilizing slide tape sets; and (7) training by audio cassettes. A summary of the use of each of these methods is shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.2 Length of Training Programs Within Foodservice Units  
(n=734)

Length of the Training Program	Frequency	Percent
No formal training program	226	30.7
Less Than one day	29	4.0
1-5 days	300	40.9
6-10 days	79	10.8
11-15 days	42	5.7
More than 15 days	58	7.9

Table 4.3 Utilization of Training Methods Within Foodservice Units  
(n=734)

Training Method		Frequency	Percentage of Respondents Utilizing Method	
Training supervisor or manager		449	61.2	
Training by a peer employee		366	49.9	
Training by training manual		225	30.7	
Training by VCR		145	19.8	
Training by formal classes		71	9.7	
Training by slide tapes		56	7.6	
Training by audio cassettes		43	5.9	

Respondents were asked to evaluate the effectiveness of the five most commonly used training methods on a five point Likert type scale, ranging from poor to excellent. In descending order of perceived effectiveness, the training methods were: (1) training conducted by a supervisor or manager; (2) training utilizing a video cassette recorder; (3) training conducted by a peer employee; (4) training which utilizes formal classes; (5) training which uses a training manual; (6) training utilizing slide tapes; and (7) training which uses audio cassettes. Specific ranking and standard deviations reported by the respondents are shown in Table 4.4.

In order to determine if there were relationships between the use of specific training methods and the percentage of older workers employed, a Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated between each of the variables related to training methods used and the percentage of hourly workers over the age of 50. There was a slight positive correlation between the establishment of a formal training program and the percentage of hourly workers over 50 as shown by the correlation coefficient of  $+0.1291$  ( $p$ -value  $< .05$ ). There was a slight negative correlation between the percentage of hourly workers over 50 and training programs which were conducted by a manager or supervisor as shown by the correlation coefficient of  $-0.2288$  ( $p$ -value  $< .05$ ).

Table 4.4 Perceived Effectiveness of Training Methods  
(n=519)

Training Method	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation
Training by supervisor or manager	3.77	4.0	.564
Training by VCR	3.19	3.0	.758
Training by a peer employee	3.12	3.0	.768
Training by formal classes	2.96	3.0	.861
Training by training manual	2.93	3.0	.909
Training by slide tapes	2.75	3.0	.792
Training by audio cassettes	2.46	3.0	.888

There was little or no correlation between the percentage of hourly workers over 50 and the other training methods used with the exception of training conducted by slide and audio tapes which was slightly negatively correlated with the percentage of hourly workers over 50. The specific correlation coefficients are shown in Table 4.5. There appears to be little or no correlation between the percentage of workers over 50 and the length of training program as shown by the Pearson correlation coefficient of .0019 (p-value >.05).

Research Question 1-b: What is the relationship between training program flexibility and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

The respondents indicated that trainees have very little control over the training methods used or pace with which the material is presented in the training program. There is very little self-paced training being done by the responding foodservice units. Over 60 percent (64.6 percent) of the respondents indicated that all trainees are trained in the same method. When variations are permitted, it is at the discretion of the trainer rather than the trainee. In 24.4 percent of the cases the trainer makes the selection of the training method, while the trainee selects the training method in 1.1 percent of the cases. In 6.5 percent of the cases, the method was determined jointly by the trainer and the trainee.

Trainees are rarely permitted to set their own pace when being trained. Table 4.6 illustrates the extent to which trainees may set their own pace during the training program.

Table 4.5 Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between Training Methods Used and the Percentage of Hourly Workers Over 50 (n=699)

Training Method	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	Level of Significance
Established formal training program	.1291	<.05 *
Training conducted by a manager or supervisor	-.2288	<.05 *
Training conducted by another hourly employee	-.0141	>.05
Training conducted by audio tapes	.0560	>.05
Training conducted by slides and audio tapes	-.0984	<.05 *
Training conducted by video cassette tapes	-.0716	>.05
Training conducted within a formal class	-.0298	>.05

\* Significant at the 0.05 level

Table 4.6 Extent to Which Trainees Set Their Own Pace  
(n=510)

	Frequency	Percent
Less than 25 percent of the time	275	53.92
25 -- 50 percent of the time	155	30.39
51 -- 75 percent of the time	47	9.21
Over 75 percent of the time	33	6.47

A series of Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between the variables hourly workers over 50, the flexibility permitted in training programs and the extent to which trainees were able set their own pace. There is little or no correlation between the two variables hourly workers over 50 and the flexibility permitted in training programs as shown by the correlation coefficient of .0140 (p-value  $>.05$ ). There is a very slight positive correlation between the percentage of workers over 50 and the extent to which self-paced training programs are used as shown by the correlation coefficient of .1109 (p-value  $<.05$ ).

Research Question 1c: What is the relationship between scheduling flexibility and the percentage of older workers employed in the foodservice units?

The results indicate a very slight relationship between the percentage of part-time employees and the percentage of hourly workers over age 50. The Pearson correlation coefficient computed between the variables percentage of part-time employees and percentage of hourly workers over 50 was  $-.2150$  (p-value  $<.05$ ). This correlation coefficient indicates a slight relationship between the percentage of hourly workers over 50 and the percentage of part-time employees within the unit. As the percentage of part-time employees increases, there is a decrease in the percentage of hourly workers over 50 employed. The variable percentage of part-time employees explains less than 5 percent of the variance in the percentage of hourly

employees over 50 employed.

In addition to the use of a substantial percentage of part-time employees, the foodservice industry also makes use of allowances, incentives and non-traditional work patterns. The weighted responses indicate that 54.3 percent of foodservice units make use of one of these employment alternatives.

The most commonly used employment alternative was flex-time scheduling. This is defined as developing an employee's work schedule around the times that the employee is available for work or desires to work. This alternative was used by 42.9 percent of foodservice units.

The second most commonly used employment alternative was the use of shortened work weeks. Over 20 percent of the foodservice units reported the utilization of this approach.

The third most frequently used employment alternative was work sharing in which a position is shared on a permanent basis between two or more individuals. This method is used by 16.5 percent of foodservice units.

The fourth most frequently used employment alternative was the development of a program to recruit and hire an increased number of older workers. The weighted response indicate that 15.4 percent make use of this method. Several of the respondents offered open-ended comments concerning the programs which had been developed or were being developed. One of the respondents summarized the perceptions of many when he stated, "We are exploring the use of part-time older workers using a flex-time schedule. Perhaps the most dependable and

loyal employees are over 55."

Intermittent employment, defined as employment which is initiated, terminated and reinitiated at the employee's choice, is the fifth most commonly used employment alternative. Slightly more than 10 percent use this approach.

The remaining employment alternatives, using car pooling incentives, tapered employment and child care allowances, are used by less than 2.5 percent of the respondents. Table 4.7 provides further detail concerning the use of employment alternatives by foodservice units.

A series of Pearson correlation coefficients were computed between the variables hourly workers over the age of 50 and each of the employment alternatives (allowances, incentives and non-traditional work patterns). Several are noteworthy.

There was a slight correlation between the percentage of hourly workers over 50 and the establishment of a program or policy to specifically recruit older workers. The Pearson correlation coefficient between these two variables was .3082 (p-value <.05). This would indicate that in those cases when an employer has specifically tried to recruit older workers, there is a slight relationship between these recruiting efforts and the percentage of older workers employed.

Table 4.7 Extent to Which Allowances, Incentives and Non-Traditional Work Patterns (Employment Alternatives) Are Used (n=714)

	Frequency	Percentage of Respondents	
Some type of employment alternative used	387	54.2	
Flex-time scheduling	306	42.8	
Shortened work week	147	20.5	
Work sharing between two or more individuals	118	16.5	
Seeking older workers	110	15.4	
Intermittent employment	75	10.5	
Car pooling incentives	19	2.7	
Tapered employment	15	2.1	
Child care allowances	2	0.3	

There was also a slight relationship between the variables hourly workers over 50 and the availability of employment alternatives in general and the availability of work sharing specifically. The Pearson correlation coefficient between the variables hourly workers over 50 and the availability of one or more employment alternatives was .1539 (p-value <.05). The Pearson correlation coefficient between the variables hourly workers over 50 and the specific employment alternative of a work sharing program was .1607 (p-value <.05).

The remaining correlation coefficients are quite low, indicating little or no meaningful relationship between each of the employment alternatives available and the percentage of hourly workers over 50 which were employed. The individual correlation coefficients are shown in Table 4.8.

A crosstabulation between the variables use of employment alternatives and hourly workers over 50 indicates that 45.5 percent of foodservice units which make some use of employment alternatives employ more than the median percentage of hourly older workers over 50, whereas 22.2 percent employ a percentage of older workers which is less than the median and 32.3 percent employ no older workers. Of those units which do not make available any type of employment alternative 26.8 percent employ no older workers, 36.0 percent employ less than or equal to the median percentage of older workers and 37.2 percent employ above the median percentage of older workers.

Table 4.8 Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Employment Alternatives and the Percentage of Hourly Workers Over 50 (n=682)

	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	Significance
Employment alternatives available	+ .1539	p < .05 *
Flexible scheduling available	+ .0573	p > .05
Work sharing available	+ .1607	p < .05 *
Older workers specifically recruited	+ .3082	p < .05 *
Car pooling incentives available	+ .0757	p < .05 *
Child care allowances available	+ .0842	p < .05 *
Shortened work week available	- .0453	p > .05
Intermittened employment available	+ .0687	p < .05 *
Tapered employment available	- .0425	p > .05

\* Significant at the 0.05 level

The Chi-square value for the variables use of employment alternatives and percentage of hourly employees over 50 was 15.76160 (p-value <.05) with 2 degrees of freedom. This indicates a significant difference between the observed and expected frequencies. Further detail concerning the relationship between these two variables is shown in Table 4.9.

It had been the intention of the researcher to divide the range for the percentage of hourly workers over 50 by 3 and assign the values of low, moderate and high labor force participation to the three categories. Given the skewed nature of the distribution of age for hourly workers over 50, this was not the best method to use. Of the responding units, 29.0 percent did not employ any hourly workers over 50. Instead, the labor force participation for hourly workers over 50 was categorized into three categories. The first category was no hourly workers over 50 employed. The second category was hourly workers over 50 employed at a level equal to or below the median percentage of 5.0 percent. The third category was hourly workers over 50 employed at a level above the median percentage of 5.0 percent. The frequencies for the labor force participation for hourly workers over 50 is shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.9 Crosstabulation of Employment Alternatives and Hourly Employees Over 50 (n=682)

Row Pct.	Hourly Employee over 50			Row Total
	None Employed	Equal or Below the Median	Above the Median	
-----				
Employment Alternatives Used				
None Used	26.8	36.0	37.2	46.5
Some Used	32.3	22.2	45.5	53.5
-----				

Chi-Square = 15.76160 df = 2 p-value <.05

The percentage of part-time employees was also categorized. The categorization was done by dividing the range of 99 for both the percentage of part-time by 3. The resulting three categories were assigned a value of low, moderate and high to the equal thirds respectively. This categorization allowed the researcher to analyze the data using a crosstabulation between the percentage of part-time employees and the percentage of hourly employees over 50.

A crosstabulation and Chi-square were calculated for the variables percentage of part-time employees and the percentage of hourly employees over 50. The results are shown in Tables 4.11. Of those units which employ no older workers, 19.7 percent employ a low percentage of part-time employees, 35.5 percent employ a moderate percentage of part-time employees, and 44.8 percent employ a large percent of part-time employees. Of those units which employ a percentage of older workers above the median, 50.3 percent employ a low percentage of part-time employees, 18.7 percent employ a moderate percentage of part-time employees and 31.0 percent employ a high percentage of part-time employees.

Table 4.10 Labor Force Participation of Older Workers  
(n=699)

Labor force participation rate	Range of values, percent of the labor force for each category	Frequency	Percentage
No hourly workers over 50 employed	0-0	203	29.0
Equal to or below the median percentage	1-5	202	28.9
Above the median percentage	Above 5	294	42.1

Table 4.11 Crosstabulation of Percentage of Part-time Employees By Percentage of Hourly Employees Over 50 (n=699)

Col Pct.	Hourly Employees Over 50			
	None	Equal or Below the Median	Above the Median	
Percentage of Part-time Employees				
Low	19.7	34.2	50.3	
Moderate	35.5	28.2	18.7	
High	44.8	37.6	31.0	
Column Total	29.0	28.9	42.1	100.00

Chi-Square = 50.68492 df = 4 p-value <.05

Contrary to what the literature would indicate, in the responding foodservice units, there is a slight negative correlation between the percentage of part-time employees and the percentage of hourly employees over age 50. The Pearson correlation coefficient was  $-.216$  (p-value  $<.05$ ) and the contingency coefficient is  $-.260$  (p-value  $<.05$ ).

Units which employ relatively few part-time employees are more likely to employ a higher percentage of hourly workers over 50.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between specific unit attributes and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

Research Question 2a: What is the relationship between the industry segment and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

Table 4.12 illustrates the crosstabulation between the variables industry segment and percentage of hourly workers over 50. Older workers are least likely to be employed by fast food units. Fast food units reported the employment of no hourly workers over 50, equal to or below the median percentage of hourly workers over 50 and above the median percentage of hourly workers over 50 as 46.6, 28.8 and 24.7 percent respectively. Table service units reported no hourly workers over 50, equal to or below the median percentage of hourly workers over 50 and above the median percentage of hourly workers over 50 as 27.5, 31.9 and 40.4 percent respectively. The institutional segment

of the foodservice industry was more likely to employ a higher percentage of hourly older workers, with 90.9 percent of the institutional units reporting the employment of hourly older workers at a percentage above the median, while 9.1 percent of the institutional units reported employment of hourly workers over 50 at a percentage equal to or below the median. No institutional units reported employing no older workers. This was not the case for either the fast food or table service respondents.

The Chi-square value was of 82.85859 (p-value <.05) with 2 degrees of freedom. The contingency correlation coefficient between the two variables was .32871 (p-value.001), indicating a clear relationship between the variables hourly workers over 50 and industry segment. The variable industry segment explains 10.8 percent of the variance in the variable hourly workers over 50.

Table 4.12 Crosstabulation Industry Segment By Percentage of Hourly Employees Over 50 (n=684)

Row Pct.	Hourly Employees over 50			Row Total
	None Employed	Equal to or Below the Median	Above the Median	
Industry Segment				
Fast Food	46.6	28.8	24.7	21.3
Institutional		9.1	90.9	8.0
Table Service	27.5	31.9	40.6	70.6
				100.00

Chi-Square = 82.85859 df = 2 p-value <.05

Table 4.13 illustrates the crosstabulation between the variables percentage of managers over 50 and industry segment. Older managers are most likely to be employed within the institutional segment of the foodservice industry and are less likely to be employed within fast food and table service units. The weighted responses indicate that 75.5 percent of the institutional units employed some older managers, while 34.7 and 33.8 percent of the fast food and table service units reported employing at least one older manager within the unit. The Chi-square value is 35.69855 (p-value <.05) with 2 degrees of freedom. A contingency coefficient of .22784 (p-value <.05) indicates that there is a slight relationship between the variable industry segment and the percentage of managers over 50.

Data were also collected via open-ended questions about experiences which the managers have had with older workers, as well as other comments they wished to share. A content analysis was done on the responses and they were categorized on a four point Likert-type scale. The following comments summarize the perceptions of many. All of the comments can be found in Appendix IV.

"They have difficulty adapting to a fast food operation." (Fast food manager)

"We have been working in conjunction with the Senior Citizens organization in our city. We try to provide employment for as many seniors as our unit can. We have been doing so for the past three years with very good results. Our experience has been very gratifying." (Institutional foodservice manager)

Table 4.13 Crosstabulation Industry Segment By Percentage of Managers Over 50 (n=652)

Row Pct.	Managers over 50		Row Total
	None Employed	Some Managers Over 50	
Industry Segment			
Fast Food	65.3	34.7	22.1
Institutional	24.5	75.5	8.1
Table Service	66.2	33.8	69.8
			100.00

Chi-Square = 35.69855 df = 2 p-value <.05

Research Question 2b: What is the relationship between the size of the unit, as measured by annual sales and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

A Chi-Square value of 36.85243 (p-value <.05) with 8 degrees of freedom indicates a significant relationship between the variables size of the unit and the percentage of hourly workers over 50. In general, as the unit sales increase, the percentage of hourly workers over 50 also increases, as shown in Table 4.14. The percentage of hourly employees over 50 increases as the size of the unit increases. conversely, the percentage of units employing no older workers decreases as the size of the unit increases. This may be influenced by the number of hourly older workers employed by institutional units. Institutional units tend to have higher sales per unit than either table service or fast food units.

Research Question 2c: What is the relationship between the age of the managers and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

A series of Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to determine an answer to this research question. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between the variables percentage of hourly workers over 50 and the percentage of managers in three different age categories. The variables for the three age categories for the percentage of managers employed within the unit were:

percentage of managers under 25; percentage of managers 25 to 49; percentage of managers 50 and over.

As shown in Table 4.15, there is a negative correlation between the variable percentage of managers working within the unit who are less than 25 years of age and the percentage of hourly workers over 50 employed within the unit. The Pearson correlation coefficient is  $-.3042$  (p-value  $<.05$ ). There is a positive relationship between the percentage of managers working within the unit who are 50 or older and the percentage of hourly workers over 50 employed within the unit. The Pearson correlation coefficient is  $+.4152$  (p-value  $<.05$ ). These correlations indicate a non-linear relationship between the age of managers employed within the unit and the percentage of older workers.

Table 4.14 Crosstabulation Size of the Foodservice Unit in Annual Sales By Percentage of Hourly Employees Over 50 (n=669)

Row Pct.	Hourly Employees over 50			Row Total
	None Employed	Equal to or Below the Median	Above the Median	
-----				
Sales in thousands of dollars				
Less than \$250	38.7	18.7	42.7	11.2
\$250--500	32.2	21.7	46.1	22.7
\$501--1,000	28.2	42.4	29.4	25.4
\$1,000--3,000	23.6	27.3	49.1	24.1
Over \$3,000	18.9	27.0	54.1	16.6
				100.00

Chi-Square = 36.85243 df = 8 p-value <.05

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between manager's perception of older workers and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

Research Question 3a: What is the relationship between the managers' perception of the performance of older workers during the training period and the percentage of older workers in foodservice units?

The respondent foodservice managers were asked to evaluate the training performance of older workers based upon evaluation scores on eight criteria. The training performance criteria were: flexibility to adapt to new tasks; speed with which they learned new skills and tasks; self-confidence; quality of work; volume of work; appropriateness of prior training and experience; ability to cope with job stress; and ability to adjust the changes in work demands. The respondents were asked to evaluate the training performance of older workers in each of these criteria using a five point Likert type scale ranging from poor (1) to excellent (5).

Table 4.15 Pearson Correlation Coefficients Between the Percentage of Hourly Workers Over 50 and Percentage of Managers in Selected Age Brackets Employed Within Foodservice Units (n=655)

Managers in Selected Age Brackets	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	Level of Significance
Under 25	-.3043	p <.05 *
25 -- 49	.0007	p >.05
Over 50	.4152	p <.05 *

\* Significant at the 0.05 level

The mean and standard deviation for each of these criteria are shown in Table 4.16. Older workers were rated highest in the areas of quality of work and self-confidence. The lowest evaluation scores were in the areas of ability to adjust to changes in work demands and ability to cope with job stress.

In order to determine an overall training performance score for hourly workers over 50, the scores for each of the eight criteria then added together and divided by eight. This new variable, overall training performance, represents the combined training performance evaluation scores for hourly workers over 50. The mean value for the overall training performance of hourly workers over 50 was 3.27; the standard deviation was .569; and the median was 3.25. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed between the variables overall training performance for hourly workers over 50 and the percentage of hourly workers over 50 employed within the unit. There was no relationship between these two variables, as shown by the Pearson correlation coefficient of .0364 (p-value >.05).

Table 4.16 Foodservice Managers' Perception of Training Performance of Older Workers (n=471)

Performance Criteria	Mean Score (1--5 Scale)	Median	Standard Deviation
Flexibility to adapt to new tasks	3.068	3.0	.834
Speed with which they learned new skills/tasks	3.154	3.0	.797
Self-confidence	3.401	3.0	.806
Quality of work **	3.941	4.0	.709
Volume of work	3.224	3.0	.800
Appropriateness of prior training and experience	3.185	3.0	.818
Ability to cope with job stress	3.146	3.0	.808
Ability to adjust to changes in work demands *	2.974	3.0	.981
Overall training performance	3.27	3.25	.569

Rating Scale:

- 1 = Poor
- 2 = Fair
- 3 = Average
- 4 = Very Good
- 5 = Excellent

- \*\* Highest
- \* Lowest

Research Question 3b: What is the relationship between the managers' perception of the overall job performance of older workers and the percentage of older workers employed in foodservice units?

The managers in the sample were asked to complete an evaluation of the work performance of hourly workers over 50 consisting of 14 performance criteria. The 14 criteria were: guest relations; relations with fellow employees; dependability; quality of work; volume of work; leadership; perseverance and drive; self-confidence; assertiveness; adaptability; analytical ability and judgement; creativity; emotional maturity; and attitude. The respondents were asked to evaluate the work performance of hourly workers over 50 on each of these criteria using a five point Likert type scale which ranged from poor (1) to excellent (5). The specific evaluation scores for each of the criteria are shown in Table 4.17.

The evaluation scores were similar to the ones reported for training performance. Older workers were rated most highly in dependability and emotional maturity. Older workers received the lowest evaluation scores in creativity and adaptability.

In order to determine an overall performance score for hourly workers over 50, the scores for each of the fourteen performance criteria were added together and divided by fourteen. This new variable, overall performance for hourly workers over 50, represents the combined performance evaluation scores. The mean value for the overall performance of hourly workers over 50 was 3.62; the standard

deviation was .459; and the median was 3.64. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed between the new variable overall work performance and the percentage of hourly workers over 50. There was no relationship between these variables as shown by the correlation coefficient of .0242 ( $p > .05$ ).

In addition to the quantitative data the respondents provided many responses to open-ended questions. A content analysis was conducted and the responses which follow represent the perceptions of the respondents. A complete list of the responses is in Appendix IV.

"Due to the pressure of some jobs (line cook or waitress) the older worker seems to have quite a problem. However in the position of host/hostess where there is less pressure, they perform well and the reaction from the guests is favorable." (Table foodservice manager)

"Most of our older employees are dependable and flexible. They are a pleasure to employ." (Table foodservice manager)

"I have found that the older worker is not looking for a ladder to climb, but simply want to work, to feel needed." (Institutional foodservice manager)

"Our's is a high volume operation and some older workers think it may be too much for them." (Fast food manager)

"One older woman, in her 60s was scared off by the pace and decided not to stay. She was good about it, she didn't just disappear like some younger workers." (Table foodservice manager)

"They understand the value of a buck and will work for it." (Table foodservice manager)

Table 4.17 Foodservice Managers' Perceptions of the Work Performance of Older Workers (n=689)

Performance Criteria	Mean Score (1--5 Scale)	Median	Standard Deviation
Guest relations	3.868	4.0	.704
Relations with fellow employees	3.640	4.0	.749
Dependability **	4.353	4.0	.636
Quality of work	3.939	4.0	.631
Volume of work	3.354	3.0	.776
Leadership	3.499	3.0	.767
Perseverance/Drive	3.383	3.0	.766
Self-confidence	3.594	4.0	.734
Assertiveness	3.438	3.0	.701
Adaptability *	3.052	3.0	.868
Analytical ability/judgement	3.512	4.0	.746
Creativity	3.085	3.0	.792
Emotional maturity	3.949	4.0	.759
Attitude	3.962	4.0	.758
Overall performance	3.62	3.643	.459

Rating Scale:

- 1 = Poor
- 2 = Fair
- 3 = Average
- 4 = Very Good
- 5 = Excellent

- \*\* Highest
- \* Lowest

### Summary

This chapter presented detailed results of the research study. The results were presented and discussed as they related to the eight research questions. The next chapter compares and contrasts the findings of the present study with the literature in order to draw conclusions related to the eight research questions which have guided the study.

First, the relationship between the use of specific training practices and the employment of older workers was discussed in light of the literature. The use of specific training methods appears to be related to the employment of older workers.

The second research question dealt with the relationship between training program flexibility and the employment of older workers. Flexibility and trainee input into the pace with which the training material is presented have been shown to be related to the employment of older individuals.

Third, scheduling flexibility in the areas of scheduling and employment alternatives were related to the employment of older individuals. When fewer part-time employees are employed the percentage of older workers increases. When employment alternatives are available, the percentage of older workers also increases.

Fourth, the relationship between the labor force participation of older workers and the industry segment was examined. The results indicate that older workers are more likely to be employed in the institutional segment.

The fifth research question examines the relationship between the size of the unit and the labor force participation of older workers. Previous research indicates that the work environment is related to the labor force participation of older workers.

The sixth research question examined the relationship between the age of the unit managers and the labor force participation of older workers. Prior research has shown that the environment which a potential older worker perceives within a potential work setting is related to the labor force participation of older workers. Morrison (1984) indicated that older workers desire a more stable and predictable work environment.

The last two research questions examined the relationships between the labor force participation of older workers and the managers' perceptions of training and job performance of older workers. Myths and stereotypes related to older workers have been well documented in the literature.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, INTERVENTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

#### Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the research study presented in the previous chapters. First, it summarizes the study, including purpose, background, research questions, research methodology and results. Second, conclusions, educational and training interventions and recommendations for future research are discussed.

#### Summary

##### Purpose

The study was undertaken to achieve two major purposes. The first was to describe the relationship between unit foodservice managers' attitudes and practices and the employment status of older workers in a portion of the foodservice industry. The second was to derive implications about the educational and training interventions would be necessary to facilitate the increased labor force participation of older workers in the foodservice industry.

##### Background

Significant demographic shifts combined with the reliance within the foodservice industry on young workers, the largest percentage of whom are under age 25, have raised concerns about whether the industry will be able to satisfy adequately its labor force needs in the years ahead. As the number of younger workers as a percentage of the labor force declines, foodservice organizations may have to recruit different types of employees. Older workers, those over age 50, have

been proposed as an alternative labor pool (Morrison, 1984).

Both positive and negative factors related to the labor force participation of older workers have been well documented in the literature. Factors which are incentives to continued employment of older workers include: federal government Social Security policies; human resource management policies which reduce the incentive for early retirement; economic necessity to continue work; psychological needs; and the expansion of employment alternatives. Factors which are disincentives include: age discrimination; the youth culture of our society; inflation of labor costs which provides employers with an incentive to hire younger workers who are less costly; and negative stereotypes about older workers held by management personnel (Rosow, 1980).

Prior research has documented the age related stereotypes held by the American population. The most common stereotypes support the belief that older workers, in comparison with younger workers, perform their jobs at a lower level of performance, are more stubborn and resist change, are more likely to be injured on the job, are unwilling to adapt to novel situations, lack creativity and are more difficult to train. In contrast to these stereotypes, however, are the results of prior research focused on the job performance of older workers. When placed in a training situation, older workers initially perform at a lower level than younger workers, but this gap is quickly closed (Rosow, 1980). There is little change in learning ability as age increases at least until age 75 (Cross, 1981). Older workers are not

subject to increased rates of absenteeism, accidents and illness. (Doering et. al., 1983). Root (1981) reported that older workers are less likely to be injured than younger workers and that the accident rate decreases with age. Older workers are also more satisfied with their jobs (Siassi et. at., 1975), they have fewer absences from work and are less likely to leave a job resulting in expensive turnover (Doering et. al, 1983; Wasmuth and Davis, 1983).

The initial training period appears to be a critical factor in the successful employment of older workers. The use of self-paced training methods results in improved training performance among older workers (Dodd, 1967; Jamieson, 1969; Sieman, 1976; Cross, 1981). The turnover rate for older workers is lower than that for younger workers, except during the training period. Older workers are more likely to drop out of traditional training programs, ones in which the trainer controls the pace of the training and the content of the material being presented (Sieman, 1976).

Several approaches have been used in an attempt to increase the labor force participation of older workers and these have been reported in the literature. Two commonly cited interventions include job restructuring and scheduling flexibility. Human resource management practices which provide alternatives to the traditional five-day work week are preferred by older workers. Job restructuring alternatives which have been proposed include part-time employment, job sharing between two or more individuals and shortened work weeks (Rosen, 1980; Tellier, 1974; Hedges, 1971; Zippo, 1981; Harris, 1981;

Rosow and Zager, 1980).

With these stereotypes and research results in mind, the present study examined the relationships between unit foodservice managers' attitudes and practices and the employment of older workers in a segment of the foodservice industry.

While considerable prior research has been reported in the literature, conducted both in the service and manufacturing segments of the economy, no previous research related to the labor force participation of older workers had been reported for the foodservice industry. The foodservice industry, as a part of the hospitality industry, represents the second largest industry in the Commonwealth of Virginia and in the United States. It is the largest industry in the service sector of the economy (NRA, 1984).

#### Research Questions

Within the conceptual framework of the present study, a series of eight research questions guided the investigation. The first three questions represented dimensions of training program flexibility and methods, as well as human resource management practices used by foodservice units. The research questions focused on determining if there were significant relationships between these variables and the labor force participation of older workers.

The next three research questions focused on determining if there were significant relationships between foodservice unit attributes and the labor force participation of older workers.

The last two research questions focused on the perceptions held by unit managers about the training and job performance of older workers. The questions were developed to determine if there were significant relationships between these perceptions and the labor force participation of older workers.

#### Research Methodology

The population for this study consisted of 480 foodservice units selected from the 1983-84 membership list of National Restaurant Association (NRA). The NRA is the nation's largest professional association representing the foodservice industry.

Current NRA membership exceeds 10,000 and represents the three identified industry segments, fast food, table service and institutional foodservice units. The sample was selected based on a stratification by industry segment. It was believed that industry segment might be related to the labor force participation of older workers. An equal number of units (160) were selected randomly from each of the three segments.

The research questionnaire was developed by the researcher and was refined with input from the researcher's graduate advisory committee and a group of Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management faculty prior to being pretested. The pretest participants consisted of 25 foodservice managers from Virginia and 10 faculty members who had prior survey research experience with groups similar to the selected sample..

Data were collected using the Total Design Method for direct mail survey research with minor modifications (Dillman, 1978). Four separate mailings were sent in the sequence recommended by Dillman (1978). The final mailing to non-respondents was sent by first class mail rather than certified mail as a means of cost reduction.

The response rate for the study was significantly higher than those reported previously for similar groups (Tse, 1982; Schnepf, 1982). Out of the 480 sampled, 282 foodservice unit managers responded, resulting in a response rate of 58.8 percent. Of this number, 264 were usable, producing a usable response rate of 55.0 percent. The researcher conducted a telephone follow-up with 15 selected non-respondents. Each of the non-respondents successfully contacted by the researcher were asked a series of questions to determine if they differed in any significant manner from the respondents. It was determined that they did not differ.

### Results

Prior to conducting the data analysis, the results were weighted. Based upon the industry segmentation of fast food, table service and institutional, the results were weighted so that each of the three industry segments would be represented in the same relative proportion as they occurred in the membership of the NRA. Following the weighting procedure, the adjusted number of respondents was 734. Eight research questions were used as the framework for data analysis and reporting of the results. These results are summarized in the paragraphs which follow.

The labor force participation of older workers within the membership of the NRA is below the participation rate for the remainder of the American labor force, 9.75 percent versus over 15 percent (Doering et. al., 1983). The percentage of part-time employees employed by members of the NRA stands at nearly 50 percent, a figure which is higher than the 5.5 percent within the labor force nationwide (Wise et. al., 1985).

While most (71.7 percent) of the foodservice units responding have established formal training programs, these programs do not make use of sophisticated training methods. The most commonly used method to train newly hired hourly employees is on-the-job training conducted by a manager, supervisor or a fellow hourly employee. When this approach is used, the trainer usually establishes the content of the training and determines the manner in which the training material is presented to the trainee. The average training program lasts 7.4 days, while 64.8 percent of the training programs last five or fewer days. The use of self-paced training methods is limited among members of the NRA. Within the context of this study, training conducted by a manager or supervisor is negatively correlated with the labor force participation of older workers. There is a positive relationship between the establishment of a formal training program and the labor force participation of older workers. There was little or no relationship between the use of self-paced methods and the employment of older workers.

Several NRA members have initiated programs designed specifically

to recruit older workers and these programs have been successful. There was a positive relationship between the use of these programs and the percentage of older workers employed.

Prior to initiating the study, it was believed that industry segment would be a predictor variable for the labor force participation of older workers. This hypothesis was supported by the results. Older workers are most likely to be employed in institutional foodservice units and are least likely to be employed in fast food units. Older workers are employed in moderate numbers in table service units.

When an NRA member foodservice unit employs more managers under age 25, the number of older hourly workers decreases. Conversely, when a larger number of managers over 50 are employed, the percentage of older workers increases.

The stable and consistent performance of older workers, both on-the-job and in training programs has been well documented in the literature (Cross, 1981; Meier and Kerr, 1976; Rosow and Zager, 1980). Both the training performance and the overall job performance of older workers were rated as being above average to very good, 3.27 and 3.62 out of a possible 5.00 respectively. Of the 22 separate criteria used in the evaluation, older workers were rated as being average or better in all areas. Despite these favorable evaluation scores, there was little or no relationship between the perceptions held by managers concerning the performance of older workers and the percentage of older workers employed within foodservice units.

### Conclusions

The initiation of the study was influenced by trends. First, significant demographic shifts are occurring, one of which is the aging of the population. This has been referred to as the "greying of America." During the period of 1982 until 2010, the median age of the United States population will increase from 30.7 to 36.6 years. While this may not seem like a significant increase, when contrasted with the stable median age of 28.0 to 30.0 for the period 1960-80, it is dramatic (Morrison, 1984). Along with these demographic trends are other trends, notably, the lowering of the birth rate and increasing life expectancy of the population. Individuals who were 65 years of age in 1982 would be expected to live 14.3 and 18.7 more years for men and women respectively (Morrison, 1984).

Given the foodservice industry's heavy reliance on younger workers (NRA, 1984) and the reports of potential shortages in the future labor market (Beale, 1982; Carlson, 1983; Labor Letter, 1984; Labor: Cost and Supply, 1983; Lindroth, 1982; Lubin, 1983; Scheer, 1978), the foodservice industry, as the largest retail employer in the country, may have to reduce its dependence on younger workers (NRA, 1984). Older workers may become a more important segment of the industry's labor force.

The conclusions are presented as they relate to the eight research questions.

The first research question focused on the relationship between the labor force participation of older workers and the use of specific

training methods. The study found that establishment of a formal training program is positively related to the labor force participation of older workers. In those units which had established a formal training program, older workers were more likely to be employed. Training which was conducted by a supervisor or manager was found to be negatively related to the labor force participation of older workers. When training is conducted in this manner, older workers are less likely to be employed. Other training methods, which used audio-visual approaches and training conducted by peers, examined by the study were not related to the labor force participation of older workers.

Based on the results of the study it is concluded that establishment of well planned and organized formal training programs of a longer duration would facilitate the increased labor force participation of older workers. Training provided by managers and supervisors is often haphazard and rushed because their energies are diverted by other operational responsibilities and the long work hours inherent to the industry (Ransom and Berger, 1984). It appears that training conducted by managers and supervisors represents the least desirable training methodology for older workers and that other methods should be used.

The literature indicates that older workers are likely to be more successfully trained in an environment which provides minimal outside disruptions during training and well organized material presented in a step-by-step fashion (Morrison, 1984). Despite this, foodservice

training programs are often poorly planned and implemented (Powers, 1984). Training is usually directed towards technical skills and interpersonal skills are not adequately addressed despite their importance in a service industry (Ransom and Berger, 1984). Managers typically lack training skills and training conducted by managers is often very poor. Ransom and Berger (1984) reported that only 10 percent of hospitality managers possessed appropriate training skills.

Training is more successful when the material is presented as a series of tasks to be accomplished in stages rather than covering all required steps at one time (Morrison, 1985). The American Association of Retired Persons suggested the adoption of the following principles for training older individuals: (1) instruction should be limited to the occupational objectives of the participants; (2) instruction that provides practical training is preferred over passive learning; (3) learning styles and experiential differences among older individuals are best accommodated by self-paced instruction (Morrison, 1984).

Meier and Kerr (1976) suggested that older workers may require a longer training period than younger workers, but the length of most training programs of NRA members is quite short. The hectic nature of the foodservice industry, particularly at the unit or operations level, is often not conducive to well planned and implemented training programs (Powers, 1984). A more favorable work environment has been linked with improved employee performance (Mill, 1985).

The second research question focused on the relationship between training program flexibility and the labor force participation of

older workers. Results of the study indicate that the use of self-paced methods are related to the labor force participation of older workers. It is concluded that the more widespread use of self-paced training methods and providing employees with the opportunity to select the training method would increase the labor force participation of older workers in the foodservice industry.

Foodservice trainees rarely have input into training decisions such as the training methods used or the pace with which material is presented. Very little self-paced training is being conducted by NRA members, despite the slight positive relationship between the use of self-paced training and the labor force participation of older workers. The literature suggests that trainers should provide a training environment in which the trainee takes a more active role in determining training methods used and pace with which the material is presented (Morrison, 1984). Trainee involvement in planning and implementing the training are believed to be associated with achievement (Long, 1983). This involvement can take the form of having input or decision making responsibilities about both the method and pace with which training is presented. The literature suggests that a self-paced approach to training is likely to be a more successful method to use to train older workers (Sieman, 1976) (Morrison, 1984).

The third research question focused on the relationship between the scheduling flexibility and the labor force participation of older workers. Results of the study support the conclusion that programs

which were designed to specifically recruit older workers have been successful. There was a positive relationship between these programs and the labor force participation of older workers. As expected, those units with established recruiting programs directed towards older individuals employ more older workers. The study also found that the availability of employment alternatives in the form of incentives, allowances or non-traditional work patterns were positively related to the labor force participation of older workers. The use of employment alternatives was quite widespread among NRA members. Of these employment alternatives, job sharing was the most highly correlated with the labor force participation of older workers. It is concluded that increased utilization of employment alternatives, especially job sharing programs, would facilitate increased labor force participation among older workers.

The employment alternatives most commonly used in the foodservice industry -- flex-time scheduling, shortened work weeks, job sharing, part-time employment, and intermittent employment -- have been supported in the literature as fostering employment of older workers (Harris, 1981) (Zippo, 1981).

An increase in the use of part-time employees was negatively correlated with older worker labor force participation. This does not support previous research which indicated that older workers preferred part-time employment, phased retirement and flexible working schedules (Harris, 1974; 1981). Part-time employment opportunities are numerous in the foodservice industry, but older workers are not attracted to

these opportunities. It is possible that older workers do not find these part-time positions attractive because they are often staffed by younger workers. This results in a work environment which potential older workers would find unattractive, thereby discouraging them from seeking employment.

The fourth research question focused on the relationship between labor force participation of older workers and the industry segments. The study found that older workers, both managers and hourly, are most likely to be employed in institutional foodservice units. Hourly older workers are least likely to be employed in fast food units and are moderately likely to be employed in table service foodservice units. Older managers are most likely to be employed in institutional units and are equally likely to be employed in both fast food units and table service foodservice units. It is concluded that the more stable and predictable work environment of institutional foodservice is attractive to older workers. The demand patterns of institutional foodservice do not have the often cyclical demand curve of table service and fast food units. The literature indicates that older workers desire a stable and predictable work environment, one in which they feel comfortable and needed (Morrison, 1984).

The fifth research question focused on the relationship between the size of the foodservice unit and the labor force participation of older workers. As the size of the unit, as measured by annual sales, increases the labor force participation of older workers also increases. Those units with annual sales in excess of \$3.0 million

employ the highest percentage of older workers above the median percentage of older workers. It is probable that this relationship is influenced by the number of hourly workers employed within institutional foodservice units, which tend to have higher unit sales than units in other segments.

The sixth research question focused on the relationship between the age of the unit managers and the labor force participation of older workers. The study found that the age of the manager was related to the labor force participation of older workers. As the percentage of younger managers (under 25) employed within units increased, the labor force participation of older workers decreased. Conversely, when the percentage of older managers (50 and over) employed within units increased, the labor force participation of older workers increased. It is likely that a more stable and supportive work environment is perceived by potential older workers in foodservice units in which more older managers are employed because older managers are less likely to hold age related stereotypes. Potential older workers may be more comfortable seeking employment in an environment in which the manager is someone closer to their own age. It is possible that older workers do not seek employment in units dominated by younger managers and workers because they perceive a non-supportive environment. It is also likely that younger managers are more comfortable hiring hourly workers who are closer to their own age and if given the alternative of hiring a younger worker or an older one would select the younger one. The increase in the number of

age discrimination suits as well as previous research indicates that a job applicant's age does affect recruiting and selection decisions (Haefner, 1977; Britten and Thomas, 1973).

The seventh research question focused on the relationship between the managers' perception of the training performance of older workers and the labor force participation of older workers. In this study, the respondents' perceptions of the training performance of older workers was average or better (3.27 out of a possible 5.00), but there were no relationships between the managers' perceptions and the labor force participation of older workers. Managers do not hold stereotypes about the learning or training ability of older workers and it is speculated that other factors influence selection decisions. In some instances, older workers may not seek employment in the foodservice industry and managers may select a younger worker over an older one.

The literature has documented the learning ability of older individuals, indicating that learning ability is not related to age, at least until the age of 75 (Cross, 1981). Meier and Kerr (1976) concluded that older workers may require a longer training period than younger workers, but that performance was not significantly different between age groups.

The final research question focused on the relationship between the managers' perception of job performance and the labor force participation of older workers. The managers' perceptions of the overall job performance of older workers was average to above average (3.62 out of a possible 5.00) but there were no relationships between

the managers' perceptions and the labor force participation of older workers. While managers do not appear to hold stereotypes about the job performance of older workers, older workers are not employed in great numbers in the foodservice industry. The results support the conclusion that older workers are very capable of performing the tasks involved in foodservice operations as shown by the job performance evaluation provided by the respondents. This supports previous research (Casey and Sheppard, 1980; Welford, 1977; Craik, 1977; Morrison, 1984).

In summary, this study examined several variables which are related to the labor force participation of older workers in the foodservice industry. The methods used to train hourly workers are related to the employment of older workers. When training programs are established, older workers are more likely to be employed. When training is not conducted by a manager or supervisor, older workers are more likely to be employed. The degree of trainee involvement in the selection of the method and pace with which the material is presented is related to the employment of older workers. The availability of employment alternatives is positively related to the employment of older workers. Several unit attributes are related to the employment of older workers. Among these are the age of the managers employed, the size and the industry segment of the unit. Managers do not appear to hold stereotypes about the training or job performance of older workers.

### Training and Educational Interventions

As one of the service sector growth industries, the foodservice industry offers employment potential for older workers. Based on the results of the study and previous research it is possible to derive implications about the types of training and educational interventions which would facilitate the employment of older workers in the foodservice industry. These interventions would be most appropriate for the fast food and table service segments of the industry. The institutional segment currently employs the largest percentage of older workers and the need for training and educational intervention is not as great.

There are at least three areas in which training and educational interventions could increase the labor force participation of older workers.

#### Training for Managers

Foodservice managers do not appear to hold stereotypes about older individuals, but older workers are not employed in the same proportion as in the rest of the labor force. It is proposed that training for managers should be directed towards attaining three goals. The first goal would be to increase managers' awareness of the positive attributes associated with older workers. While managers do not appear to hold stereotypes, this apparent absence of prejudice has not resulted in hiring of older workers in the same proportion as in the balance of the labor force. The second goal would be to increase the

managers' understanding of the needs of older workers as they relate to stable, predictable and secure work environments. Older workers desire more information about job requirements and activities (Morrison, 1984). The third, and perhaps most important goal, would be to provide managers with "train the trainer" education. Ransom and Berger (1984) reported that only 10 percent of hospitality managers possess satisfactory training skills. It is unlikely that more older workers will be attracted to the foodservice industry if the training continues to be poorly developed and implemented.

#### Training Programs for Older Workers

If more older workers are to be successfully employed, it is proposed that the training programs available within the foodservice industry will need to be changed and improved. To appeal to the needs of older workers, several adjustments appear to be desirable. First, trainees should have more input into the manner in which training is conducted. This would include input into both the methods used and the pace with which this material is presented. More self-paced training should be made available. Second, less training should be conducted by managers and supervisors. The use of this method was negatively correlated with the employment of older workers. If managers continue to conduct training they should receive adequate training skills training as discussed in the preceding intervention. Perhaps specific individuals should be designated as trainers and given more specific responsibilities for training. If this were done, the identified trainers should be provided with release time from

their other responsibilities so that they would have adequate time to conduct training sessions and provide feedback to trainees. Merely adding training responsibilities to a list of job responsibilities is not likely to result in improved training within the foodservice industry.

#### Employment Alternatives for Older Workers

It has been clearly shown by previous research that older workers are attracted to work environments which provide employment alternatives in the form of incentives, allowances or non-traditional work patterns. Employers should be encouraged to provide more of these types of alternatives. Specific programs which promote job sharing between two or more individuals have been successful.

Not only should the employment alternatives be made available, but more importantly, efforts should be made to provide a supportive job environment, one which older workers would find attractive. It is likely that older workers do not currently seek employment in the foodservice industry because they do not perceive the environment to be supportive or physically tolerable (Morrison, 1984)..

Increased communication and coordination with agencies which deal specifically or exclusively with older workers would increase the employment of older workers. These agencies could provide the necessary recruiting links with older workers. In addition, these agencies have credibility with older workers, something that many foodservice units do not currently enjoy. Agencies could also provide specific assistance to both the employer and the older workers thereby

increasing the chances for successful employment.

There is potential for increased employment of older workers in the foodservice industry. Managers do not appear to hold stereotypes which would inhibit the entry of older workers into the labor force. A higher percentage of older workers are already employed in the institutional segment, offering potential for more employment. Recruiting and training efforts may need to be adjusted to successfully employ more older workers, but these adjustments would be relatively minor.

#### Recommendations for Further Research

There are at least four different ways to build on the research presented in this dissertation. First, the project should be extended to examine the employment of older workers from the perspective of older workers. Factors which encourage or discourage the potential older worker from seeking employment in the foodservice industry should be examined to determine the specific changes in human resource management practices necessary to facilitate the increased employment of older workers. Managers do not appear to hold stereotypes about older workers, yet older workers are not employed in the foodservice industry in the same proportion as in the total labor force. It would be useful to learn the extent to which older workers apply for employment in the foodservice industry and the factors which result in selection of employees by managers.

Second, the study should be extended to examine those units in the three industry segments which have most and least successfully

employed older workers. What are the critical factors which have lead to their success or failure and are these factors consistent with the literature? The case study nature of this type of study could provide valuable insights into the successful employment of older workers.

Third, the study should be expanded to include a cross section of the foodservice industry which is broader in scope than the members of the NRA. Restricting the sample frame to the membership of the NRA limits the generalizability of the results. By selecting a more broadly defined sample, the results could be generalized to the entire industry. In addition, this further study would serve to support or contradict the findings of the present study.

Fourth, the study should be expanded to include other industries, both in the service and manufacturing sectors of the economy. Each of the variables identified in the present study, such as training programs, managers' perception of older workers' performance and work site attributes should be addressed more closely to determine the impact which these, and perhaps other factors, have on the labor force participation of older workers.

This study has hopefully provided the groundwork for further study concerning the employment of older workers, in the foodservice industry, as well as in the service and manufacturing sectors.

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APPENDIX I

Pre-test Cover Letter and Questionnaire

October 24, 1984

(Address)

Dear (Name):

Changing demographics are resulting in a "greying of America." The "Baby Boom" generation is moving into their 30s and 40s and each year there are more individuals over age 65. Demographic changes may result in subsequent shifts in the labor force composition in the foodservice industry.

You have been selected to be a part of the pre-test for an important research study about the employment of older workers in the foodservice industry. The study will focus on the employment status of older workers, those over age 50, in the foodservice industry. Specifically, we are interested in your perceptions about the training and job performance of hourly employees over age 50.

Your responses will help us to refine the questionnaire prior to sending it to foodservice managers across the United States. Please complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the postage paid envelope. In addition to completing each of the questions, please make notes in the margins concerning any questions which were not clear or were difficult to answer.

Results of this study will be made available to foodservice managers by means of trade publications, professional associations and other industry publications.

I would be most happy to answer any questions that you may have. Please call me at .

Thank you in advance for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Robert D. Reid  
Associate Director  
Center for Hospitality Research and Service

CRITICAL ISSUES:  
UNIT MANAGEMENT PRACTICES RELATED TO THE EMPLOYMENT OF OLDER WORKERS  
IN THE FOODSERVICE INDUSTRY

This survey is one of many conducted by Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University's Center for Hospitality Research and Service to better understand the manner in which foodservice operations are managed. Please answer all of the questions. If you wish to comment on any questions or qualify your answers, please feel free to use the space in the margins. Your comments will be read and taken into account.

Thank you in advance for your help.

SECTION I TRAINING PRACTICES WITHIN YOUR FOODSERVICE UNIT

A. Training Program

Q-1 Do you have a formal training program for new hourly employees?  
(Circle the number)

1. YES
2. NO (Skip to Q-8)

Q-2 How long does your training program last for the typical employee?  
(Circle the number)

1. LESS THAN 1 DAY
2. 1 TO 5 DAYS
3. 6 TO 10 DAYS
4. 11 TO 15 DAYS
5. MORE THAN 15 DAYS

B. Training Methods and Flexibility

Q-3 Which of the following methods do you use to train new hourly employees? (Circle the number for all that apply)

1. ONE ON ONE TRAINING CONDUCTED BY A SUPERVISOR OR MANAGER
2. ONE ON ONE TRAINING CONDUCTED BY AN HOURLY EMPLOYEE
3. AUDIO CASSETTES
4. SLIDE TAPE PRESENTATIONS
5. VIDEO CASSETTE PRESENTATIONS
6. FORMAL CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION
7. WRITTEN MANUAL
8. OTHER:  
-----

Q-4 Of the methods used, are any variations permitted? (Circle the number)

1. ALL TRAINEES ARE TRAINED USING THE SAME METHOD
2. TRAINEES MAY SELECT THE DESIRED METHOD
3. THE TRAINER SELECTS OR RECOMMENDS THE BEST METHOD
4. OTHER:  
-----

Q-5 To what extent do trainees set their own pace during the training period? (Circle the number)

1. NEVER
2. RARELY
3. OCCASIONALLY
4. FREQUENTLY
5. ALWAYS

Q-6 To what extent do you believe each of the following methods would be effective in training new hourly employees? (Place an "X" in the appropriate box)

1 = Ineffective                      3 = Somewhat Effective  
 2 = Somewhat Ineffective        4 = Effective

	1	2	3	4
ONE ON ONE TRAINING CONDUCTED BY A SUPERVISOR OR MANAGER				
ONE ON ONE TRAINING CONDUCTED BY AN HOURLY EMPLOYEE				
AUDIO CASSETTES				
SLIDE TAPE PRESENTATIONS				
VIDEO CASSETTE PRESENTATIONS				
FORMAL CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION				
WRITTEN MANUAL				

SECTION II. TRAINING AND JOB PERFORMANCE OF OLDER WORKERS

Q-7 Based upon your experiences within the foodservice industry, how would you rate the performance during the training period for the typical employee over age 50 on each of the characteristics below? (Place an "X" in the appropriate box)

	POOR	FAIR	AVERAGE	VERY GOOD	EXCELL- ENT
FLEXIBILITY TO ADAPT TO NEW TASKS					
SPEED WITH WHICH THEY LEARNED NEW SKILLS					
LEVEL OF SELF-CONFIDENCE					
QUALITY OF WORK					
VOLUME OF WORK					
APPROPRIATENESS OF PRIOR TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE					
ABILITY TO COPE WITH JOB STRESS					
ABILITY TO ADJUST TO CHANGES IN WORK DEMANDS					

Q-8 Based upon your experiences within the foodservice industry, how would you rate the overall job performance for the typical employee over age 50 on each of the characteristics below? (Place an "X" in the appropriate box)

	POOR	FAIR	AVERAGE	VERY GOOD	EXCELL- ENT
GUEST RELATIONS					
RELATIONS WITH FELLOW   EMPLOYEES					
DEPENDABILITY					
QUALITY OF WORK					
VOLUME OF WORK					
LEADERSHIP					
PERSEVERENCE/DRIVE					
SELF-CONFIDENCE					
ASSERTIVENESS					
ADAPTABILITY					
ANALYTICAL ABILITY/   JUDGEMENT					
CREATIVITY					
EMOTIONAL MATURITY					
ATTITUDE					

**SECTION III. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LABOR FORCE**

Q-9 Complete the following chart, indicating the number of employees currently employed within your foodservice unit?

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES	
MANAGERS	
HOURLY EMPLOYEES	

Q-10 Within your unit, what is the percentage of full-time and part-time hourly employees in all positions?

PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES	
FULL-TIME	
PART-TIME	
TOTAL	100 %

Q-11 Complete the following chart, indicating the approximate percentage of employees currently employed within your foodservice unit.

	Percentage of Hourly Employees Within Unit	Percentage of Management Employees Within Unit
LESS THAN 25 YEARS		
26-49 YEARS		
50-64 YEARS		
65 YEARS AND OVER		
TOTALS	100%	100%

Q-12 Which of the following non-traditional work patterns are employed by your company? (Circle the number for all that apply)

1. NONE
2. FLEX-TIME SCHEDULING
3. WORK SHARING (two people sharing one job)
4. SEEKING OLDER EMPLOYEES
5. CAR POOLING INCENTIVES
6. CHILD CARE ALLOWANCES
7. SHORTENED WORK WEEK
8. INTERMITTENT JOBS (jobs which may be started and stopped at the employee's choice)
9. TAPERED EMPLOYMENT
10. OTHER \_\_\_\_\_

SECTION IV. SUPPLEMENTAL QUESTIONS

Q-13 Which of the following best describes the unit in which you work? (Circle the number)

1. FAST FOOD
2. INSTITUTIONAL OR CAFETERIA FOODSERVICE
3. TABLE SERVICE
4. OTHER: \_\_\_\_\_

Q-14 What were the annual sales of the foodservice unit which you manage during the most recent fiscal year? (Estimate to the nearest \$5,000. If this isn't possible, use the scale provided)

Annual Sales: \$ \_\_\_\_\_

1. LESS THAN \$250,000
2. \$250,001--500,000
3. \$500,001--1,000,000
4. \$1,000,001--3,000,000
5. \$3,000,001--5,000,000
6. MORE THAN \$5,000,000

Q-15 What is your age? (Write your age in the space provided)

AGE: \_\_\_\_\_

Is there anything else you would like to tell us about your experiences with older employees? If so, please use the space below.

APPENDIX II

Three Letters and Post Card Sent to Unit  
Foodservice Managers in the Sample



A LAND-GRANT UNIVERSITY

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

Center for Hospitality Research and Service

December 28, 1984

Mr. Next Address  
Address  
Address  
City, State Zip

Dear Mr. Name:

Changing demographics are resulting in a "greying of America." The "Baby Boom" generation is moving into their 30s and 40s and each year there are more individuals over age 65. These demographic changes are likely to result in subsequent shifts in the types of workers employed in the foodservice industry.

You are one of a small number of foodservice unit managers who are being asked to give opinions about training practices and older workers. Your name was drawn from a random sample of the entire nation. In order that the results will truly represent the thinking of foodservice managers across the nation, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned.

This study focuses on the employment of older workers, those over age 50. Specifically, we are interested in your perceptions about the training and job performance of hourly employees over age 50. We are also seeking information about issues related to training for all hourly employees.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only. This is so that we may check your name off the mailing list when your completed questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire.

Results of this study will be made available to other foodservice managers by means of trade publications, professional associations and other industry publications.

I would be most happy to answer any questions that you may have. Please call or write. The telephone number is . Thank you in advance for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Robert D. Reid, Director  
Center for Hospitality Research and Service

Enclosure

Last week a questionnaire seeking information about older workers in the foodservice industry was mailed to you. Your name was selected in a random sample of foodservice managers from across the United States.

If you have already completed and returned it to us please accept our sincere thanks. If not, please do so today. Because it has been sent to only a small, but representative, sample of foodservice managers it is extremely important that yours be included in the study if the results are to accurately represent the opinions of foodservice managers.

If by some chance, you did not receive the questionnaire, or it got misplaced, please call me right away, collect  
and I will get another one in the mail to  
you today.

Sincerely,

Robert D. Reid  
Director, Center for Hospitality Research and Service



A LAND-GRANT UNIVERSITY

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

Center for Hospitality Research and Service

January 21, 1985

Mr. Next Address  
Address  
Address  
City, State Zip

Dear Mr. Name:

About three weeks ago I wrote to you seeking your opinion about training practices and older workers. As of today, we have not received your completed questionnaire.

In light of the "greying of America", the Center for Hospitality Research and Service has undertaken this study to examine the employment of older workers, those over age 50. We are also interested in seeking information related to training for all hourly employees.

I am writing to you again because of the significance each questionnaire has to the usefulness of the study. Your name was drawn through a scientific sampling process in which foodservice managers from across the United States had an equal chance of being selected. In order for the results of this study to be truly representative of the opinions of all foodservice managers, it is essential that each person in the sample return their questionnaire.

In the event that your questionnaire has been misplaced, a replacement is enclosed.

Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Robert D. Reid, Director  
Center for Hospitality Research and Service

Enclosure



VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

A LAND-GRANT UNIVERSITY

Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

Center for Hospitality Research and Service

February 18, 1985

Mr. Next Address  
Address  
Address  
City, State Zip

Dear Mr. Name:

I am writing to you about our study concerning training practices and older workers in the foodservice industry. We have not yet received your completed questionnaire.

The large number of questionnaires returned is very encouraging. But whether we will be able to describe accurately how foodservice managers feel on these important issues depends upon you and others who have not yet responded. This is because our past experiences suggest that those of you who have not yet sent in your questionnaire may hold quite different opinions about training practices and older workers.

This is the first nationwide study of this type that has ever been done. Therefore, the results are of particular interest to foodservice managers and professional associations. The usefulness of our results depends on how accurately we are able to describe what foodservice managers think.

It is for these reasons that I am sending this questionnaire. May I urge you to complete it and return it as quickly as possible.

I'll be happy to send you a copy of the results if you want one. Simply circle the code number on the return address portion of the survey. We expect to have the results ready by the Spring.

Your contribution is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Robert D. Reid, Director  
Center for Hospitality Research and Service

Enclosure

APPENDIX III

Questionnaire Used for the Research Project

CRITICAL ISSUES:  
UNIT MANAGEMENT PRACTICES RELATED TO THE EMPLOYMENT OF OLDER WORKERS  
IN THE FOODSERVICE INDUSTRY

This survey is one of many conducted by Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University's Center for Hospitality Research and Service to better understand the manner in which foodservice operations are managed. Please answer all of the questions. If you wish to comment on any questions or qualify your answers, please feel free to use the space in the margins. Your comments will be read and taken into account.

Thank you in advance for your help.

SECTION I: TRAINING PRACTICES WITHIN YOUR FOODSERVICE UNIT

A. Training Program

Q-1 Do you have a formal training program for new hourly employees? (Circle the number)

1. YES
2. NO (skip to Q-8)

Q-2 How long does your training program last for the typical employee? (Circle the number)

1. LESS THAN 1 DAY
2. 1 TO 5 DAYS
3. 6 TO 10 DAYS
4. 11 TO 15 DAYS
5. MORE THAN 15 DAYS

B. Training Methods and Flexibility

Q-3 Which of the following methods do you use to train new hourly employees? (Circle the number for all that apply)

1. ONE ON ONE TRAINING CONDUCTED BY A SUPERVISOR OR MANAGER
2. ONE ON ONE TRAINING CONDUCTED BY AN HOURLY EMPLOYEE
3. AUDIO CASSETTES
4. SLIDE TAPE PRESENTATIONS
5. VIDEO CASSETTE PRESENTATIONS
6. FORMAL CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION
7. WRITTEN MANUAL
8. OTHER: \_\_\_\_\_

Q-4 Of the methods used, are any variations permitted? (Circle the number)

1. ALL TRAINEES ARE TRAINED USING THE SAME METHOD
2. TRAINEES MAY SELECT THE DESIRED METHOD
3. THE TRAINER SELECTS OR RECOMMENDS THE BEST METHOD
4. OTHER: \_\_\_\_\_

Q-5 To what extent do trainees set their own pace during the training period? (Circle the number)

1. LESS THAN 25% OF THE TIME
2. 25 TO 50% OF THE TIME
3. 51 TO 75% OF THE TIME
4. MORE THAN 75% OF THE TIME

Q-6 To what extent do you believe each of the following methods would be effective in training new hourly employees? (Place an "X" in the appropriate box)

1=Ineffective; 2=Somewhat Ineffective; 3=Somewhat Effective; 4=Effective

	1	2	3	4
ONE ON ONE TRAINING CONDUCTED BY A SUPERVISOR OR MANAGER				
ONE ON ONE TRAINING CONDUCTED BY AN HOURLY EMPLOYEE				
AUDIO CASSETTES				
SLIDE TAPE PRESENTATIONS				
VIDEO CASSETTE PRESENTATIONS				
FORMAL CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION				
WRITTEN MANUAL				

SECTION II: TRAINING AND JOB PERFORMANCE OF OLDER WORKERS

Q-7 Based upon your experiences within the foodservice industry, how would you rate the performance during the training period for the typical employee over age 50 on each of the characteristics below? (Place an "X" in the appropriate box)

	POOR	FAIR	AVERAGE	VERY GOOD	EXCELL- ENT
FLEXIBILITY TO ADAPT TO NEW TASKS					
SPEED WITH WHICH THEY LEARNED NEW SKILLS					
LEVEL OF SELF-CONFIDENCE					
QUALITY OF WORK					
VOLUME OF WORK					
APPROPRIATENESS OF PRIOR TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE					
ABILITY TO COPE WITH JOB STRESS					
ABILITY TO ADJUST TO CHANGES IN WORK DEMANDS					

Q-8 Based upon your experiences within the foodservice industry, how would you rate the overall job performance for the typical employee over age 50 on each of the characteristics below? (Place an "X" in the appropriate box)

	POOR	FAIR	AVERAGE	VERY GOOD	EXCELL- ENT
<u>GUEST RELATIONS</u>					
<u>RELATIONS WITH FELLOW EMPLOYEES</u>					
<u>DEPENDABILITY</u>					
<u>QUALITY OF WORK</u>					
<u>VOLUME OF WORK</u>					
<u>LEADERSHIP</u>					
<u>PERSEVERENCE/DRIVE</u>					
<u>SELF-CONFIDENCE</u>					
<u>ASSERTIVENESS</u>					
<u>ADAPTABILITY</u>					
<u>ANALYTICAL ABILITY/JUDGEMENT</u>					
<u>CREATIVITY</u>					
<u>EMOTIONAL MATURITY</u>					
<u>ATTITUDE</u>					

SECTION III: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE LABOR FORCE

Q-9 Complete the following chart, indicating the number of employees currently employed within your foodservice unit?

	NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES
MANAGERS	
HOURLY EMPLOYEES	

Q-10 Within your unit, what is the percentage of full-time and part-time hourly employees in all positions?

	PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYEES
FULL-TIME	
PART-TIME	
TOTAL	100%

Q-11 Complete the following chart, indicating the approximate percentage of employees currently employed within your foodservice unit.

AGE OF EMPLOYEE	PERCENTAGE OF HOURLY EMPLOYEES WITHIN UNIT	PERCENTAGE OF MANAGEMENT EMPLOYEES WITHIN UNIT
LESS THAN 25 YEARS		
26-49 YEARS		
50-64 YEARS		
65 YEARS AND OVER		
TOTALS	100%	100%

Q-12 Which of the following non-traditional work patterns are employed by your company? (Circle the number for all that apply)

1. NONE
2. FLEX-TIME SCHEDULING (flexible working hours)
3. WORK SHARING (two people sharing one job)
4. SEEKING OLDER EMPLOYEES
5. CAR POOLING INCENTIVES
6. CHILD CARE ALLOWANCES
7. SHORTENED WORK WEEK
8. INTERMITTENT JOBS (jobs which may be started and stopped at the employee's choice)
9. TAPERED EMPLOYMENT
10. OTHER \_\_\_\_\_

SECTION IV. SUPPLEMENTAL QUESTIONS

Q-13 Which of the following best describes the unit in which you work? (Circle the number)

1. FAST FOOD
2. INSTITUTIONAL OR CAFETERIA FOODSERVICE
3. TABLE SERVICE
4. OTHER \_\_\_\_\_

Q-14 What were the annual sales of the foodservice unit which you manage during the most recent fiscal year? (Estimate to the nearest \$10,000. If this isn't possible, use the scale provided)

Annual Sales: \$ \_\_\_\_\_

1. LESS THAN \$250,000
2. \$250,000--500,000
3. \$500,001--1,000,000
4. \$1,000,001--3,000,000
5. \$3,000,001--5,000,000
6. MORE THAN \$5,000,000

Q-15 What is your age? (Write your age in the space provided)

AGE: \_\_\_\_\_

Is there anything else you would like to tell us about your experiences with older employees? If so, please use the space below.

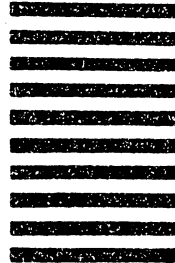


NO POSTAGE  
NECESSARY  
IF MAILED  
IN THE  
UNITED STATES

**BUSINESS REPLY MAIL**  
FIRST CLASS PERMIT NO. 10 BLACKSBURG, VA.

POSTAGE WILL BE PAID BY ADDRESSEE

CENTER FOR HOSPITALITY RESEARCH AND SERVICES  
VPI & SU  
HRIM Division  
Blacksburg, VA 24060  
Att'n: Robert D. Reid



APPENDIX V

Responses to Open-ended Questions

The following are the open-ended responses provided by the respondents.

I've been in a position in which I've had to deal with older people for the last 6 years. I wish I had more of them, they take their jobs more seriously and are extremely loyal.

I find them to be extremely reliable, very dependable, and able to cope and adapt to situations as needed.

The employees I have found to be most reliable, receptive to new ideas and genuinely concerned about quality and service are between menopause and medicare.

Usually have an excellent attendance record; work at a deliberate pace. They often have a hard time keeping up with new procedures and the pace of the trayline. Good job attitude -- appreciate having a job and doing it.

In my opinion older workers are more dependable, are more apt to carry more of a work load than others. Their attitude is better and they take less sick leave.

Every age group has pluses and minuses, but youth and speed are often balanced by maturity and knowledge.

Most of my workers compensation cases have involved workers in the 28-40 year bracket.

They are less likely to have conflict with other employees and normally are quiet efficient workers. They have confidence and tend to stay in their assigned work areas and get the job done.

The older worker is a product of the 3Rs and the hard times of the 30s and 40s. They understand the value of a buck and will work for it.

We have only had 1 employee in her 60s apply in 2 1/2 years of business. No others have applied, mainly because we seem to be a young people business. I would hire anyone qualified at any age. One older worker we had was nervous and maybe a little slow to train, but I believe that was more because she hadn't worked for 20 years.

They have difficulty adapting to a fast food operation.

Being in the fast food industry, very few older people apply with us. In the few instances I know of, they have become some of our most dependable employees.

They rarely show the ability to learn more than a few work stations.

Very few are willing to work. If they do -- they want cash and refuse to go on payroll which we refuse to do.

Older workers seem to have their way set and are a little slow in picking up your way to cook and serve food. But in the long run they last longer than younger workers.

I feel the older person has been taught how to work. They have no axe to grind and want to contribute and feel wanted and needed in today's society. When I have a choice, I will hire the older person because of their stability.

Older workers seem to be more patient and understanding than younger workers.

Our experience with older workers has not been that good. They have some good capabilities but are usually too set in their own ways for our operation.

I have found the older employee is not looking for ladders to climb but simply want to work, to feel needed, be part of something and given a chance always seem to shine head and shoulders above the rest. The younger ones are like a tumbleweed, don't know where they are going.

Older workers are the backbone of our firm.

Due to the pressure of some jobs -- line cook or waitress -- the older worker seems to have quite a problem. However, in the position of host/hostess delivery driver etc. where there is less pressure, they perform well and the reaction from the customers is very favorable.

They are much more likely to have a work related injury; this is not a small item. The idea of older people is great and there are a lot of them. But the risk is not worth it.

I have found that older workers are more dependable and take greater pride in the work they perform than younger

employees. At times there are problems in getting them to accept changes in procedures or policies. I have found that by using the right approach even the most steadfast employee can be convinced to accept change.

We have never been able to attract anyone over 50 that either had any experience in foodservice or was capable of handling the rush hour pace. The physical demands in restaurant work are extreme during short periods of time and older people just aren't interested at the typical wage. I have never found an exceptional employee from this age group.

In general the attitude is, I've paid my dues over the years, I should not have to be subjected to this sort of elementary training. There seems to be a problem in being told what and how to do something by a younger manager or crew leader.

Most older workers are very dependable and flexible, consistency and procedures you can always rely on. They are a pleasure to employ.

They are more cost conscious, most have had to operate on a budget. They are more careful around equipment as a rule.

My experience has been that the key is the individual no matter what the age of the employee. I feel it is important to have employees of all ages. It helps to keep a balance.

We have been working in conjunction with the senior citizens organization. We try to provide employment for as many seniors as our unit can in the non-skilled positions. We have been doing so for the past three years with very good results. Our experience with them has been very gratifying and we intend to follow the same course in the future.

Generally good experiences because we are careful in selection. However, the safety factor must be considered because accidents can be devastating to them and costly to you.

Those seeking employment in the foodservice industry for the first time are usually shocked by the low wage scale and long hours.

Would love to employ more older workers -- they don't apply.

Most older workers are more dependable and responsible than younger workers, but, it is hard to keep them in an hourly position because of the low wages.

Older workers tend to be better employees in most every situation. I wish I had more of them, but they are the least likely to answer an ad in the paper etc.

The greatest problem is finding them.

Older workers need more encouragement to enter the labor force. We would hire more if they would respond to our ads.

Excellent -- can always use more. The only problem is speed, they tend to be slower.

I think older employees do the best job possible. They have already gone through the maturity cycles of life.

Our experiences with older employees has been mixed. We have several who are aggressive, innovative and possess the flair needed to keep the operation in constant change. However, as is the case with all employees, we have some older employees who are complacent, totally satisfied with the status quo and who have only one ambition in life...don't rock the boat!

They generally perform at a better rate than younger employees.

The older the employee the more likely the existence of prejudice...harder to get equal service for all customers. Their attitude hurts business.

If they are healthy and can stand on their feet for 4-7 hours per day I have found older workers to be very dependable and very satisfying employees.

For the majority of jobs they perform very well.

Problems with relationships with younger employees sometimes develop.

Experiences with older workers is limited. Our restaurant attracts younger workers who enter as part-time and develop into full-time.

Older workers don't have as many personal problems.

**The vita has been removed from  
the scanned document**