

DIETITIANS' PERCEPTIONS OF OLDER
WORKERS' JOB PERFORMANCE IN
FOODSERVICE FACILITIES

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Stereotyping is probably one of the most important and at the same time, most abused concepts in the field of psychology and sociology. Stereotyping is important because it is one of the main avenues for expression of social and cultural attitudes, i.e. the products of socialization. In a somewhat consistent manner, the abuse arises because none has seen fit to attempt a vigorous definition of the concept since it was popularized by Lippmann in 1922, allowing it to be employed in the most cavalier of fashions.

An important determiner of human behavior is the existence of socially created norms which define the behaviors which may be elicited by any given situation. These norms, or stereotypes, arise both from cultural perceptions of how people are supposed to perform on their job. They enable an individual to determine when certain responses are appropriate and to adjust his behavior accordingly (Rosen & Jerdee, 1985).

If such norms exist with regard to personality change as a function of aging, they might be expected at least to modify the course of performance change by stipulating the range and extent of permissible performance during the life

process. This study is an attempt to identify some existing stereotypes of job performance of older workers (Stewart, Powell, & Chetwynd, 1979).

Nature of the Problem

Changing age characteristics of the United States population including those in the workforce are creating increasing concerns among administrators (Cowan, 1982). The number of people age 65 or older is growing in the general population. The Bureau of the Census estimated the 1982 U. S. population at 232 million, with a median age of nearly 31 years, compared with 29 in 1976. More than one of five persons (48 million) were age 55 or over, and of these individuals 26 million were age 65 or older. Over the next 30 years, the population age 55 and over is expected to increase nearly 70 million. Representing about one in four persons, 35 million people, 60 percent of them women, will be at least 65 years old (Meier, 1980; Morrison, 1983).

The combined effect of decreased fertility levels and increased number of elderly persons will result in the ratio of elderly persons to persons of working age (16 to 64 years of age). In 1900, there were about seven elderly persons for every 1,000 persons 18 to 63 years; by 1982, that ratio was almost 19 elderly persons per 100 of working age. By 2010, that ratio is expected to be 22 per 100 and to increase rapidly to 38 per 100 by 2050. This ratio is often referred to as a "support ratio" (Table I) (Taeuber, 1983).

TABLE I
TOTAL SUPPORT RATIO, AGED SUPPORT RATIO,
AND YOUNG SUPPORT RATIO

(Number of persons per 100 aged 18 to 64 years)

Support ratio	1900	1920	1940	1960	1980	1982 ¹	1990	2000	2025	2050
Total support ratio (under 18 and 65 and over)	83.65	75.69	62.84	81.95	64.39	62.86	62.57	61.86	71.00	74.46
Aged support ratio (65 years and over)	7.35	7.99	10.90	16.84	18.59	18.82	20.70	21.16	33.31	37.85
Young support ratio (under 18)	76.30	67.70	51.94	65.11	45.80	44.04	41.87	40.70	37.69	36.61

¹Based on estimates

Source: American In Transition: An Aging Society Series
P-23:6, 1983.

These trends are expected to have a major impact on Social Security and Pension Plans, as well as on employee retirement, discharge practices and office administration (Lyons, 1981; Parnes, 1980; Worne, 1980). Because of current economic conditions--especially inflation, many more older people may be compelled to work beyond retirement age in order to support themselves (Copperman, 1981; Mallon, 1980; Roones, 1978; U. S. News and World Report, 1980). Policies now encouraging early retirement have to be reversed and companies have to develop benefit plans to attract and maintain older workers. Also, the quality of work life concerning working conditions has to be adjusted for the older worker for the benefit of its employer-employee relationship .

(Kaminski, 1983; Bogart, 1983).

Purpose and Objective

The purpose in this study was to discover how dietitians with management responsibility in health care delivery systems perceive the older workers' performance in food-service tasks as compared with younger employees doing the same tasks. The specific objective was to measure how older workers compare with the younger workers are perceived as performing the same tasks based on four qualification dimensions: a) performance capacity, b) potential for development, c) stability, d) interpersonal skills.

Hypotheses of Research

The following hypotheses were examined:

H₁. There will be no significant difference in the performance capacity scores of older workers as compared to younger workers as perceived by dietitians based on selected personal variables

- a) age
- b) sex
- c) degree attained
- d) registration status
- e) route to ADA membership
- f) position title
- g) number of years experience

H₂. There will be no significant difference in the

potential for development scores of older workers as compared to younger workers as perceived by dietitians based on selected personal variables as listed in hypothesis one.

H₃. There will no significant difference in the stability scores of older workers as compared to younger workers as perceived by dietitians based on selected personal variables as listed in hypothesis one.

H₄. There will be no significant difference in the interpersonal skills scores of older workers as compared to younger workers as perceived by dietitians based on selected personal variables listed in hypothesis one.

H₅. There will no significant difference in the performance capacity scores of older workers as compared to younger workers based on selected institutional variables

- a) state where institution is located
- b) size of institution
- c) type of facilities
- d) financial goals of institutions

H₆. There will be no significant difference in the potential for development scores of older workers as compared to younger workers based on selected institutional variables as listed in hypothesis five.

H₇. There will be no significant difference in the stability scores of older workers as compared to younger workers based on selected institutional variables as listed in hypothesis five.

H₈. There will be no significant difference in the

interpersonal skills scores of older workers as compared to younger workers based on selected institutional variables as listed in hypothesis five.

Assumptions

1. Larger hospitals in the sunbelt states would more likely hire older workers, because there is a tendency for the older populations to retire in these states.

2. The dietitians surveyed have easy access to the employees' personal file to obtain data to answer the questionnaire and know all the employees well enough to be able to judge all of the criteria.

3. The dietitians surveyed will objectively answer the questionnaire on "what is" rather than "what it should be."

Limitation

Only hospitals with 500 and above beds as listed in American Hospital Association, 1983, located in the sunbelt were included in the study. In addition, only the dietitians' perceptions towards older workers as compared to younger workers were analyzed.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The past decade has seen a phenomenal increase in interest in the aged and in the aging process, with a consequent rapid increase in scientific literature as well as in popular articles about aging. Educationally, however, little is known about the effects of this information on the opinions and attitudes held by the general population and by those who work with the older members of the population (Arnhoff and Lorge, 1960).

In 1982, over one fifth of the American population was 55 years or over, an estimated 48.9 million persons. Of the total population, about 9.5 percent (22.1 million) were 55 to 65 years old, 7 percent (16.1 million) were 65 to 74 years old, 36 percent (8.2 million) were 75 to 84 years old, and 1.1 percent (2.5 million) were 85 years old and over. About 30,000 persons of the population were aged 100 and over and of these groups, about 60 percent were female. Through the year 2000, the population age 55 and over is expected to remain at just over one-fifth of the total population. By 2010, because of the maturation of the baby boom group, the proportion of older to younger will rise dramatically. One-fourth of the total U. S. population

(74.1 million) is projected to be at least 55 years old. One out of seven Americans is expected to be 65 and over (34.4 million) and the number of persons aged 85 and over could more than double to 6.8 million, 2.4 percent of the total population. By the year 2030, it is likely that one out of five Americans will be 65 or older (65.3 million), which will represent an 87 percent increase in a 20 year span. At the same time, almost three percent of the population will be 85 or older (8.8 million). Finally by 2050, nearly one-third of the population (104.3 million) is expected to be at least age 55. So, while the total U. S. population is projected to increase by a third from its present size between 1982 and 2050, the older element - those persons age 55 and over - is expected to grow 113 percent (Table II, Figure 1) (Taeuber, 1983).

So, as the older people increase and younger people decrease, there will be a greater demand for retaining older workers. As of now, during periods of full employment, restrictions in hiring older workers are relaxed in general only when the supply of younger and presumably more desirable workers has been exhausted (Kieffer, 1980; Mallon, 1980).

Characteristics of Older Workers

Since 1900 the number of persons age 65 and over has grown from about three to nearly 12 million, and those between 45 and 64 years of age from nearly 10-1/2 to 31 million (U. S. Department of Labor, 1950). Life has been

TABLE II
GROWTH OF THE OLDER POPULATION, ACTUAL
AND PROJECTED: 1900-2050

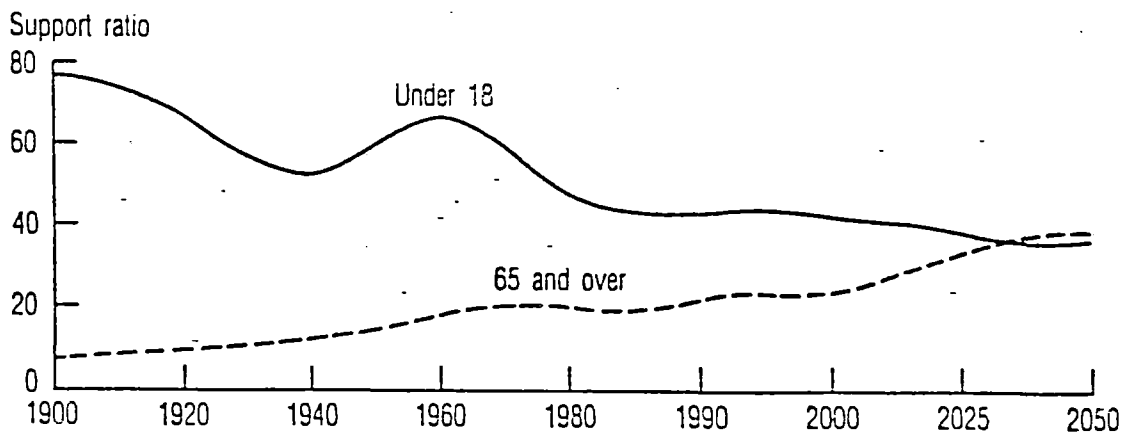
(Numbers in thousands)

Year	Total population all ages	55 to 64 years		65 to 74 years		75 to 84 years		85 years and over		65 years and over	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1900	76,303	4,009	5.3	2,189	2.9	772	1.0	123	0.2	3,084	4.0
1910	91,972	5,054	5.5	2,793	3.0	989	1.1	167	0.2	3,950	4.3
1920	105,711	6,532	6.2	3,464	3.3	1,259	1.2	210	0.2	4,933	4.7
1930	122,775	8,397	6.8	4,721	3.8	1,641	1.3	272	0.2	6,634	5.4
1940	131,669	10,572	8.0	6,375	4.8	2,278	1.7	365	0.3	9,019	6.8
1950	150,697	13,295	8.8	8,415	5.6	3,278	2.2	577	0.4	12,270	8.1
1960	179,323	15,572	8.7	10,997	6.1	4,633	2.6	929	0.5	16,560	9.2
1970	203,302	18,608	9.2	12,447	6.1	6,124	3.0	1,409	0.7	19,980	9.8
1980	226,505	21,700	9.6	15,578	6.9	7,727	3.4	2,240	1.0	25,544	11.3
1990	249,731	21,090	8.4	18,054	7.2	10,284	4.1	3,461	1.4	31,799	12.7
2000	267,990	23,779	8.9	17,693	6.6	12,207	4.6	5,136	1.9	35,036	13.1
2010	283,141	34,828	12.3	20,279	7.2	12,172	4.3	6,818	2.4	39,269	13.9
2020	296,339	40,243	13.6	29,769	10.0	14,280	4.8	7,337	2.5	51,386	17.3
2030	304,330	33,965	11.2	34,416	11.3	21,128	6.9	8,801	2.9	64,345	21.1
2040	307,952	34,664	11.3	29,168	9.5	24,529	8.0	12,946	4.2	66,643	21.6
2050	308,856	37,276	12.1	30,022	9.7	20,976	6.8	16,063	5.2	67,061	21.7

See appendix for source.

made longer, with provision for extending productivity.

These issues are not being ignored. The National Conference on Aging identified numerous problems of older workers (National Conference on Aging, 1951). The Desmond Committee of the New York Legislature has stressed especially employment problems in the older years (New York Joint Legislative Committee on Problems of the Aging, 1951) and a recent issue of the Annals of the American Academy of Political and



Note: "Young" support ratio is the number of persons under 18 per 100 aged 18 to 64 years. "Elderly" support ratio is the number 65 and over per 100 aged 18 to 64 years.

Source: American In Transition: An Aging Society. Series P-23:6, 1983.

Figure 1. Young and Elderly Support Ratio

Social Science dealt with older workers in the community and in industry (Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1952). Continuing studies by the United States Employment Service also concern the employability of older persons. These aforementioned as well as other reports emphasize the undesirability of prevailing practices regarding hiring and retirement in relation to age, and suggest various means by which even a person somewhat handicapped by age may be kept on the job, as by transfer to less exacting duties, part-time employment, or establishment of

departments specifically for older workers (Stanton, 1951; Welford, 1950).

Age stereotypes, that is, widely held beliefs regarding the characteristics of people in various age categories, may account for much of the declining status of older people (Rosen and Jerdee, 1976). Despite recent legislation, American industry has maintained an arbitrary retirement policy that ranges between 65 and 70 years of age. Implicit in this policy is the acceptance of the decremental theory of aging (Botwinick, 1978; Shock, 1962; Welford, 1965). This theory proposes that abilities deteriorate and speed of performance decreases as chronological age increases. Support for this theory was drawn from laboratory investigations measuring speed and dexterity responses. There are many factors that contribute to the difficulties of older workers, such as the loss of agility and the lessening of energies, as well as the increase in illness and dependency. Welford (1977) gave three reasons for slowing with age that are of physiological origin: reduced signal-to-noise ratio in the brain, slowing of electroencephalogram rhythm, and cardiac insufficiency. According to Welford (1958) and Eisdorfer and Wilkie (1977), the elderly seem to have inadequate reserves to cope with production situations requiring continued physical stamina (Giniger, Dispenzieri, and Eisenberg, 1983). Older workers may be seen by employers as slow, increase production cost, have a higher accident rate, are a poor investment, resent younger super-

visors, resist new procedures and work methods, have higher rate of absenteeism, and are hard to get along with (Rosen, 1978; Rosen and Jerdee, 1976). There is very little evidence to justify these judgments. The belief that older workers are more susceptible to industrial accidents or more prone to absenteeism is not corroborated by the facts (Giniger, Dispenzieri, and Eisenberg, 1984).

Older Workers: Who They Are

Older workers encompass a wide age group - 40 years and older according to Age Discrimination in Employment Act, 45 years and older according to the Department of Labor definitions, and 55 years and older (the age group most likely to leave the labor force). Older workers are not homogeneous; they include several special populations facing different problems. There are displaced older workers who have lost their jobs and have no prospects of returning to them; disadvantaged workers (such as minorities, women, and those with health impairments; older workers facing retirement pressures due to skills obsolescence, pension incentives, and work force reduction plans); and retirees seeking to re-enter the work force. The status of older workers in general, and the employment problems faced by special groups, can be important to employers, policy makers, and community groups seeking to address older worker needs, since these needs will be different for each population (Public Policy Center, 1985).

In 1980, over 189 million men and 12.8 million women were older workers according to the U. S. Department of Labor definition, which includes all those over 45 years of age who are employed, self-employed, or looking for work. In general, older workers are considered in three groups: those aged 45-54, who are still high on their earning's curve; those aged 55-64, who are beginning to drop out of the labor force (most for early retirement--planned or as a result of layoff--but some because of ill health); and those aged 65 and over (a much smaller number) (Table III) (Public Policy Center, 1985).

TABLE III
LABOR FORCE

Age (years)	Labor Force Participation, 1980	
	Men	Women
45-54	91.2%	60.9%
55-64	72.3	41.5
65 plus	19.1	8.1

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

Unemployment

Until 1981, unemployment rates for older workers had remained fairly low. In 1980, the rate was four percent, in contrast to seven percent overall. In addition, although special populations within the older group suffered from underemployment (worked part-time or worked for only part of the year), almost all men aged 45-64 who were employed in 1981 worked full time, as did almost three-quarters of employed women in that age group (Public Policy Center, 1985).

This overall pattern of full-time work and lower unemployment, however, does not mean an absence of problems. The unemployment rate does not include those who drop out of the labor force, and the drop out rate is high for older workers, for whom layoff tends to become unplanned retirement (Rupp, Bryant, and Mantovanni, 1983). For those older workers who stay in the labor force, a spell of unemployment typically lasts longer than it does for younger workers. For example, half of the men aged 55 to 64 who were unemployed in late 1982 were out of work for more than 13 weeks (U. S. Department of Labor, 1983) (Table IV).

Some unemployed older workers have exhausted both unemployment benefits and personal savings but are not eligible for any federally funded benefits except Food Stamps. These workers are of great concern to people, not only because of their need for financial support, but also

TABLE IV
DURATION OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Age (years)	Average Duration of Unemployment, 1980 (weeks)	
	Men	Women
55-64	21.6	19.9
65 plus	16.9	13.1

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

because of their higher rate of emotional and medical problems. Disadvantaged workers, particularly those with little education, may be unable to find work unless they can get training in marketable skills. Displaced workers may be limited in their ability to move to areas that have employment opportunities for their existing skills because they have exhausted all assets except their home, for which no buyer can be found.

Employment

When laid-off older workers get new jobs, they tend to get lower wages than they received in the previous job (Shapiro and Sandell, 1983). This is ascribed less to age discrimination than to the fact that they tend to have

company-specific experience, not all of which is relevant to the new firm, rather than recent training in the latest techniques. In addition, older workers who keep their job face one problem that employers see their skills as obsolete because much time has passed since they were trained (Andrisani and Daymont, 1983). Employers also tend to offer older workers fewer opportunities for training, at least in part because most older workers get higher wages than younger ones, and the time taken for training costs the employer more (Table V) (Andrisani and Daymont, 1983).

There are some positive points about older employees that employers must learn according to Worne and Associates (Employment Agency in Medford, New Jersey) for people over

TABLE V
PERCENTAGE OF UNEMPLOYED RECEIVING TRAINING

Age (years)	Percent of Unemployed Receiving Training	
	Men	Women
Displaced workers		
Age 25-44	3.8%	7.2%
Age 45 plus	3.5	1.7
Others		
Age 25-44	4.4	5.5
Age 45 plus	2.3	1.8

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

50. With the mature experienced worker, the company will always get a full day's work. The mature worker is more likely to be well rested and fresh for work in the morning. Older workers do not have to worry about little children anymore or contend with the exhausting schedule of busy family life. People over 50 have the experience in their jobs that only maturity can bring (Worne, 1984). There is no need to educate our older workers but rather the employees about re-employing the mature, experienced person. Experience shows that most older workers are not only on the job every day but also are early for work, that they are healthy and love to teach their younger counterparts (Worne, 1984). Also, older worker is less likely to quit his job and look for a new one (Roones, 1983; Davis, 1980).

The Decision to Retire or Keep Working

The decisions of individuals to keep working past 65, to retire at 65, or to retire early have a very large aggregate effect on the Social Security System and on public and private pension funds. For that reason, considerable attention has been paid to the factors that influence this decision. Factors that appear to have such an influence include size of current wage, the ownership of assets or a vested pension of significant size, expectations about inflation, and availability of desirable alternatives, such

as volunteer work (Public Policy Center, 1985).

The Department of Labor expects older men to continue their pattern of early retirement and declining participation in the work force, and expects that decline for women over 65 as well, but at a slower rate. At the same time, the declining rate of participation by men over 65 is somewhat deceptive, since the number of men alive beyond 65 increased from 7.6 million in 1960 to 10.1 million in 1981, so that a decline in participation is not necessarily a decline in actual numbers. Furthermore, the decline is not constant across all occupations or all wage levels. Low-wage laborers show a greater decline in labor force participation with age that is partly accounted for by the increase in the number receiving disability benefits (Sandell, 1983b). Working beyond 65 is most frequent in wholesale and retail trade and in services and least frequent in mining and transportation, according to Morrison (1983).

Other factors may influence the participation decision. For example, older workers who are laid off, particularly because of the decline of an industry or a plant closing, tend to retire early, not because they planned to but because retirement is preferable to the kinds of jobs available to them (Johnson et al., 1983). Also, Sandell (1983a) points out that, for many older married women, continuing in the labor force will not give them a Social Security retirement benefit above what they would receive as the spouse of a worker covered by Social Security. There-

fore, older wives may have little incentives to continue working if their husbands retire.

Polls indicate that many workers would like to stay on their same job and wage if they could work fewer hours--an option not generally available. Jondrow, Brechling, and Marcus (1983) concluded that employers find part-time workers to be more costly per hour and less productive than full time workers. The most common kind of part-time work is self-employment; part-time work for others is most common in agriculture, finance, insurance, real estate, and in personal service (Table VI).

TABLE VI
SURVEY OF OLDER ADULT ATTITUDES

	Agree
Nobody should be forced to retire if he/she wants to work and can still do a good job	90%
Most employers discriminate against older people and make it hard for them to find work	78%
Would prefer to retire at or after age 65 (asked of those 55-64)	67%
Would prefer working part time instead of retiring completely	
Younger adults	75%
Adults 55-64	79%
Adults 65+ still at work	73%

Source: Louis Harris and Associates (1981)

In a study of volunteerism among older adults, Jusenius (1983) found that the rate of volunteering among older adults was about one in five and that it did not differ by income level, race or ethnicity, but that it did increase among men with level of education and level of income-producing assets, and among women with level of education and previous level of volunteer work. It appears that early retirement does not benefit society by resulting in increased volunteer work.

Incentives for continued work include the absence of any other source of income or possible source of support. For example, Rupp, Bryant and Mantovanni (1983b) found that unemployed eligible adults over 45 tended not to participate in Comprehensive Employment Training Act or Senior Community Service Employment Program (CETA or SCSEP) if they lived in larger families, but did if they were single or widowed, living alone or in a small family.

Disincentives to continued work include Social Security earning test, the ability of companies to deny accrual of pension after age 65, and the legislation that requires employers to provide private health-care coverage for workers aged 65-69 if they provide health-care coverage for any workers. The extra cost of health insurance is not expected to lower the number of jobs available to older workers by more than 1% (Anderson, Kennell, and Sheils, 1983), because employers compensate the added cost (13% of compensation) by wage or benefit reductions. The reduction in wages or

benefits, however, reduces the reward for continuing to work. Those persons who are still working at and beyond 65 are not, in general, those who are in ill health and heavy consumers of Medicare, so that the employer's health-care plan may not be as important to them as it would be to young workers with minor children, who often reject a job without health care benefits.

All these factors that seem to push and pull older workers into early retirement, however, may be less important than expectations of longevity and expectations of inflation. On the average, the 65 year old white male in 1979 could expect to live to be 79 and the 65 year old white female could expect to live to be 83; blacks could expect to live to be 77 and 82, respectively. Because of these increases in longevity and because of expectations of the future rate of inflation, there was a tendency in 1980 for fewer workers to indicate that they planned to retire early (Meier, 1980). In particular, those with fixed pensions see inflation as a severe threat.

If labor force participation rates increase among older workers, the overall immediate effect on the labor force would not be great. Simulations by Storey (1982) suggest that if the mandatory retirement age had been raised from 65 to 70 in 1973, the size of labor force would have increased very little. According to Fields and Mitchell (1983), staying in the labor force would be encouraged most by policies that lowered Social Security for early retirement

and increased the gain from deferred retirement, but these measures would induce the average worker to delay retirement by no more than three months. In addition, such measures would penalize those older workers with a lower life expectancy and a concomitant need to retire early. It appears that measures that change the corporate culture (Paul, 1983) might be more effective in raising the number of individual decisions to keep working.

Special Population and

Double Jeopardy

Although older workers face some common problems (longer unemployment, obstacles to post-retirement employment, lack of part-time work at the same job and wage), it is often charged that special population face double jeopardy. Displaced workers, women minorities, and the handicapped are cited as examples (National Commission for Employment Policy, 1985).

Displaced Workers

Recent research suggest that displaced workers do face more severe problems as they become older (Shapiro and Sandell, 1983). Displaced workers of all ages are more likely to engage in job search than workers laid off for cause or those who quit a job. Managers and clerical personnel generally can shift to different industries, or even different occupations; craftsmen are more likely to find a

new job in the same industry, and even with laborers, there is some indication that those who are 45-54 years old are as likely to find new jobs as those at the youngest end of the labor force. There is some wage reduction in the new job, but it appears to be related more to the discount applied to their company-specific experience rather than being a matter of age discrimination. Men over 65, however, do experience a decline in wages in the new job that is not accounted for by the discounting of their company-specific experience (Shapiro and Sandell, 1983).

Women Workers

The evidence is less clear for women (Kohen, 1983; Clark, 1983). Women's earnings on the average never rise as men's earnings; the earnings curve is more flat throughout their working life, however, it peaks later than the curve for men (ages 55 rather than age 50) and declines slowly. There is disagreement over whether this pattern results from a combination of age discrimination and discrimination against women, or whether it results from the cumulative effect that women's historical lack of access to training opportunities on the job has over a working life. Working women may also have different work patterns. In a population of Michigan workers, 43% of the men but only 16% of the women worked more than 40 hours a week (Jondrow, Berchling and Marcus, 1983).

Minorities

Earning's curves for minority men appear to have the same shape as those for white men, but appear to be lower at all points along the curve. This trend is ascribed to the initial effects of racism on education and on early experience on the job. There is some evidence that the disparity between the earnings of minority men and those of white men decreases slightly for older workers. What appears to happen is that valued minority men are kept on and treated in ways that are statistically similar to the ways white men are treated, while the less valued minority workers either drop out altogether or find themselves in a succession of low-wage jobs. The effect, then, is not one of a combination of age discrimination and racism, but racism primarily (Kohen, 1983; Clark, 1983).

Handicapped

The evidence for the handicapped is scant, but it does tend to confirm an increasing penalty (lower wages, decreased employability) with age (Kohen, 1983). The reason for this effect is not clear, however, Clark (1983) finds that the earnings of those with health limitations peak sooner and decline more with age than the average. In addition, although being physically handicapped is positively associated with CETA eligibility, it is negatively associated with CETA participation among those over 45 (Rupp,

Bryant, and Mantovanni, 1983b).

Older People in a Mobile Society

It has become commonplace for people to travel or to move great distances in the United States. Technology and life styles have produced a variety of factors which facilitate the movement of people. Significant redistribution of population have resulted in the United States and, in fact, throughout the world, but perhaps a more important result has been to make moving an accepted way of life.

Locations attractive to people for one reason or another have experienced rapid growth, while unattractive areas have declined in population. Movements of people and the resultant redistribution of population are allied with a range of social and economic problems as well as benefits for society (Center for Gerontological Studies and Programs, 1974). Although elderly persons as a group are generally thought to be highly rooted, their mobility rate has been increasing steadily. With 28 percent of the population aged 60 and over reporting a change of residence between 1903 and 1970, migration rates for this group are now more than half the national average. The passive role of the older cohort in producing elderly concentration appears to be changing as elderly migration involves more people. During the period from 1950 and 1976 mobility rates of the elderly have more than doubled, from 2.6 to 5.6 percent. Instead of quietly aging-in-place in areas of limited attractiveness, older

Americans are in the vanguard of migrants who are relocating to some desirable areas in the sunbelt (Graff and Wiseman, 1978).

Florida is still the number one state in attracting older migrants, but the popularity of North Carolina has soared, Arizona may overtake California as the number two state in attracting older movers, and Texas may become the third most popular sunbelt destination for older migrants by 1990. The number of older migrants moving to Arizona, North Carolina, and South Carolina more than doubled during the last decade, and New Mexico and Texas nearly doubled, Mississippi experienced an 80 percent increase, Alabama a 77 percent increase and Georgia a 70 percent increase in their number of older migrants. Louisiana's volume of older migrants grew the least, up only by 45 percent (Table VII, VIII) (Biggar, Flynn, Longino and Wiseman, 1984).

Not all older movers head for the Sunbelt. Older people leaving Florida between 1975 and 1980 headed for Michigan, Pennsylvania, New York and Ohio. Some of these people had moved south in the 1950's and 1960's and have been returning to their former states of residence, perhaps at the onset of physical or financial problems, or at the death of their spouses. California sent large streams of older people to Oklahoma, Utah, Washington, Arkansas, Colorado, Idaho and Missouri. The out-migration streams from California may be composed of long-term California residents who are moving away to retirement homes elsewhere--in the Ozarks

TABLE VII
MIGRATION TO THE SUNBELT: 1975-1980

Sunbelt state	in-migrants of all ages (aged 5+)	older in-migrants (aged 60+)	share of national interstate migration				older migrants as a percent of all migrants
			aged 5+	(rank)	aged 60+	(rank)	
Alabama	320,000	20,000	1.6%	(25)	1.2%	(27)	6.3%
Arizona	598,000	94,000	2.9	(8)	5.7	(3)	15.7
California	1,877,000	145,000	9.2	(1)	8.8	(2)	7.7
Florida	1,801,000	429,000	8.9	(2)	25.9	(1)	23.8
Georgia	582,000	26,000	2.9	(9)	1.6	(14)	4.5
Louisiana	325,000	13,000	1.6	(24)	0.8	(35)	4.0
Mississippi	213,000	15,000	1.0	(33)	0.9	(31)	6.9
New Mexico	207,000	17,000	1.0	(34)	1.0	(30)	8.3
North Carolina	538,000	38,000	2.6	(14)	2.3	(7)	7.0
South Carolina	332,000	20,000	1.6	(23)	1.2	(25)	6.1
Texas	1,436,000	75,000	7.1	(3)	4.5	(4)	5.2
Virginia	695,000	34,000	3.4	(4)	2.1	(11)	4.9
Total Sunbelt in-migrants	8,924,000	926,000	43.8		56.0		10.4
Total other interstate migrants	11,434,000	728,000	56.2		44.0		6.4
Total interstate migrants	20,358,000	1,654,000	100.0		100.0		8.1

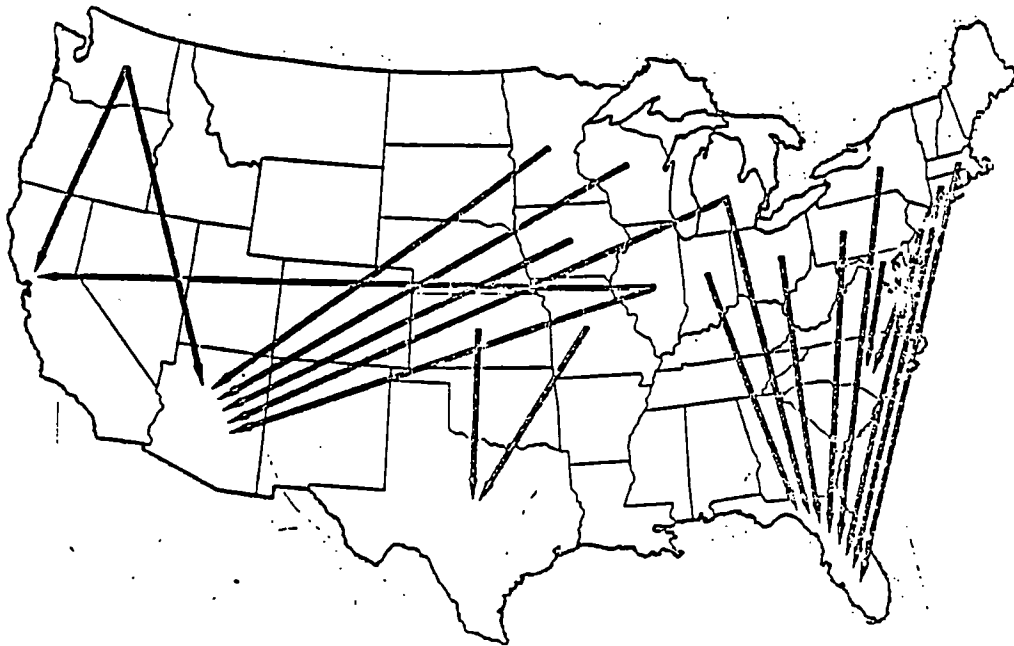
Fifty-six percent of older interstate migrants moved from Frostbelt to Sunbelt between 1975 to 1980, compared to less than half of all interstate migrants. Florida received 26 percent of all older migrants.

Source: American Demographics, December 1984.

TABLE VIII

MIGRATION STREAMS

(major interstate streams of older migrants from
the frostbelt to the sunbelt states: 1975-80)



From 1975 to 1980, the 20 largest Frostbelt to Sunbelt migration streams of older migrants went to Florida, California, Arizona, Texas, and North Carolina.

Source: American Demographics, December 1984.

of northern Arkansas or southern Missouri, for example (Biggar, Flynn, Longino and Wiseman, 1984).

There is no question that the older movers of the 1980's will benefit the communities where they settle by increasing the demand for housing, retail goods, and adult recreational facilities. At the same time, while few will work or depend on welfare, they will force the expansion of local utilities, transportation networks, and health and protective services.

The new older residents will bring with them the more conservative attitudes typical of the older generation. In the future, local bond issues for school construction in sunbelt communities may gain fewer votes than legislation creating new adult recreation programs. If Florida is an example of political change in store for the sunbelt states, increased conservatism can be expected. Recently, Florida voters supported a proposition to cut the state budget by \$2.4 million. While local sunbelt government will enjoy the economic growth brought by the influx of relative affluent older consumers, they will be challenged to expand governmental services in political climate that is becoming resistant to expansion of public sector (Biggar, Flynn, Longino and Wiseman, 1984).

Research on Older Workers

For the past few years, studies of the opinions and attitudes about aging and the aged have been made with dif-

ferent age, occupational, and socioeconomic groups. Usually attitudes were appraised by questionnaires based upon statements regarding the older persons' physical and mental decline, personality change, learning, resistance to new ideas and methods, attitudes toward younger persons and flexibility in thinking. Most of the statements are oriented towards disability, although some deal with positive, over-idealized aspects of old age. The factual basis for most of the statements is scant, but there is evidence for physical decline. Even for physical aspects, the evidence indicates that changes are gradual with wide variability among individuals over the life span; and of course, some physical and sensory losses may be compensated by glasses and hearing aids, by modification of work tasks and work habits and by changes in psychological orientation. Basically, however, the statements are stereotypes representing beliefs or opinion rather than facts (Arnhoff and Lorge, 1960).

Job Performance

Measurement of job performance, age and experience have also been widely studied. With the projected growing numbers of middle-aged and elderly Americans in the population and the labor force, business organizations, governmental institutions and unions have good reason to be interested in the relationship between age and its effect on the work place. From a managerial viewpoint, the problem is how much an older worker still can offer and how the organization can

contribute to ensure that his/her human resources continue to be most effectively used (Graff and Wiseman, 1978).

The belief is widespread that work performance declines as age increases, although the relationship between age and work performance is a subject on which little factual information is available. This conviction constitute one of the most important barriers to the employment of older workers most frequently cited in studies of employers' attitude toward older workers (Mark, 1956). Investigators undertook research designed to test the decremental theory of aging that proposes a general age-related decline in worker performance. This theory was based on laboratory investigations that have been interpreted to show that older workers lack adequate reserves to cope with production situations requiring continued physical stamina (Welford, 1958). The authors assumed that job tasks could be differentiated on the basis of being primarily speed-oriented or skill-oriented. It was hypothesized that workers in speed jobs would show that typical performance declines by decremental theory, while those in skill jobs would continue to function at optimal levels for extended periods of time (Giniger, Dispenzieri and Eisenberg, 1983; 1984). But, contrary to predictors, older workers surpassed the younger ones in both job categories. Partial correlation between experience and performance, which removed the influence of age, demonstrated that experience rather than age determines performance (Giniger, Dispenzieri and Eisenberg, 1983).

All studies regarding older workers measure speed, skill, accidents, turnover as affected by both experience and age (Kroh-Wagner Co., 1954; Mark, 1956; Clay, 1956 and Kutscher and Walder, 1960). The decremental theory of aging may lead readers to infer that older workers in speed jobs would have poorer performance, greater absenteeism, more accidents, and average turnover rates compared with other workers. The findings, however, go against the theory. The older workers generally earned more, were absent less, had fewer accidents and had less turnover than younger workers (Kutscher and Walden, 1960). Most research studies in this area have demonstrated the existence of some relationship between accidents and both experience and age. General conclusions arrived at in these experiments is that frequency of accidents tends to decline with increasing age and/or experience (Clay, 1956; Kutscher and Walder, 1960).

The question remains as to how the older men are able to maintain their performance. No certain answers can be given on this point, but the work would seem to have three characteristics favoring older men. First, the skills are learned in youth and practiced continuously throughout their working lives. Second, the skills are not too rigid to allow some variations in working methods, either of the time taken or the serial order of operations, and compensation factors of speed may be found in their wider knowledge of the job and in greater accuracy. Third, in a craft the standard of performance is of higher importance relative to

rate of work than it is on some other jobs (Clay, 1956).

Stereotyping

Stereotyping is making judgements about others on the basis of their membership in a particular group. Once group membership has been established, assigning a specific individual traits or characteristics thought to be descriptive of most or all members of the group is almost a reflexive response (Rosen and Jerdee, 1985).

In a business context, decisions based on race, sex, or age stereotypes run the risk of ignoring or misjudging individual differences in talents, capabilities and motivations. Accordingly, business decisions based on stereotypical assumptions about various categories of employees can prove both erroneous and costly, impairing self esteem, impeding career progress, and resulting in an underutilization of human resources. Stereotyping may lead to illegal differential treatment of particular employee groups. Cliche's are commonly used to describe older workers and organizational responses to the problems surrounding work and retirement. Expression such as the following, have become part of everyone's vocabulary:

- You can't teach an old dog new tricks
- Over the hill
- Fading fast
- On the shelf
- Marking time

- Frail and fragile
- Out to pasture
- Ready for the scrap heap
- Ready for the gold watch
- The old man, pops, dad, old foggy, geezer
- One foot in the grave
- Old as the hills
- Slightly senile
- She drives like a little old lady from Pasadena.

Not all cliché's used in connection with older workers are not always negative:

- The wisdom of age
- Loyal to the end
- Not older, but better
- Aging like fine wine
- Never too old to learn

Stereotypes about aging and the aged affect even the judgements of individuals involved with the study of Gerontology (Kutscher and Walder, 1960). These stereotypes become more important in younger people when they are asked to judge the characteristics of those older than themselves (Walker, 1964), but tend to be mitigated with the aged (Arnhoff and Lorge, 1960). Stereotyping tend to become increasingly negative for the later decades (Axelrod and Eisdorfer, 1961; Tuckman and Lorge, 1958a) and on an individual level seem to some extent a distortion of negative personality characteristics of the particular rater (Tuckman

and Lorge, 1956). As stereotyping tend to remain stable through out the lifespan (Knapp and Jackson, 1963), stereotyping provide a norm against which ones own behavior and that of others maybe evaluated for its appropriateness and effectiveness. There are certain identifiable stereotypes subdivided into three groups which recall the traditional subdivision of the life span into childhood, adulthood, and senescence (Tuckman and Lorge, 1958b). Findings in some studies showed that even a sophisticated group of graduate students agree substantially with the beliefs and generalization about old people and the older workers, indicating that old age is looked upon as a period of economic insecurity, poor health, loneliness and failing physical and mental powers. These findings would suggest that old people and older workers are living in a social climate which is not conducive to good adjustment in their later years and points up the need for objective data to prove or disprove the prejudices and misconceptions about the abilities and physical and personality characteristics of old people and older workers (Tuckman and Lorge, 1958b; Kogan and Shelton, 1962).

Policy Concerning Older Workers

Until recent times people worked as long as they were able to do so or when they have amassed sufficient savings to enable them to retire. The decision to retire was based on health and wealth, not on age. With the advent of Social

Security and various government and private pension plans, large numbers of people began aiming for retirement at age 65 or earlier (Rosen and Jerdee, 1985).

Now, however, workers are beginning to see the economic wisdom of reversing this trend toward early retirement. Even for those who can count on government pensions or on Social Security supplemented by private pensions or savings, frequently there is no assurance that retirement income will be an adequate shield against the ravages of inflation. As a result, many older employees are strongly interested in finding ways to sustain their real income. Some may even be desperate to keep on working for financial reasons (Rosen and Jerdee, 1985).

The eligibility age for full benefits will gradually be raised to 67 by the year 2027. Early retirement benefits at age 62, currently at 80 percent, will be reduced to 70%. The earnings penalty taken out of Social Security benefits for retired workers earning over \$6,600 per year will be reduced in 1990 to 33%, from the current 50% (Rosen and Jerdee, 1985).

It is clear from surveys that employers do not believe that age discrimination exists in their companies. It is interesting, however, that more than half believe that older workers are discriminated against the marketplace (Mercers Incorporated, 1981). The pressures for delaying retirement are pressures from younger employees to "clear out the dead-wood" or make room on the ladder. Managers often find them-

selves caught in the middle between those opposing points of view. Delaying retirement should win out because it makes sense from the basic economic standpoint of getting more people to contribute to the streams of goods and services that are available for consumption. Others argue that in the coming two decades changing population demographics will produce worker shortages that can be met only by delaying the retirement of older employees. These shortages, however, may be confined to the talented elite among senior employees, those with highly valued experience and know-how (Rosen and Jerdee, 1985).

Government Interests

State and local governments are interested in the older worker for a variety of reasons. First, as policy makers, they are concerned with the economic and social well-being of older persons while at the same time, they must manage public expenditure in a time of continued fiscal constraint. Second, state and local governments are major employers. As employers who are also policymakers, government bodies are sometimes able to use their own internal resources to address public needs, while also meeting organizational requirements. Although they are not always known for using their powers in new ways, governments--including administrative and service components--have the capacity to respond to new perceptions of older workers' needs and can establish patterns for others to adopt (National Commission for

Employment Policy, n.d.).

Because of the breadth of responsibility that is characteristic of government, there are a number of sources of motivation for change. At the state level, the drive to respond to older worker issues may stem from legislative concern for both the rights and the needs of older workers. In addition, executive agenda for change can stimulate actions in legislatures and within operating departments. Individual departments themselves can offer special arrangements, as well as be advocates to the legislative or executive level for reforms.

Similar potential exists at local level, but not as extensively. Local government executives, representatives and agencies can examine how public pensions affect older workers, how work place organization and management affect employment options, and how local public resources can be combined with other state, private sector or community skills and resources to introduce desired employment opportunities. State and local governments control their own employment policies and the practices of their public institution, such as schools and hospitals. They also have discretion over policies that affect the private sector-- such as regulation, deregulation, taxation and administrative practices (such as what companies they buy from). All of these represent important forces that can be brought to bear on older worker employment issues (National Commission for Employment Policy, n.d.).

Benefits and Compensation

States and local governments typically have their own systems of benefits and compensation. In some instances, state pension systems are also used by special-purpose agencies, such as public utilities, and are available to school systems. These benefit the programs and consequently define the limits of change at levels below legislative reform.

State governments, in particular, are able to legislate pension policy changes that affect not only their own employees but also those of local governments and in some instances, those of private sector employers. It is in this area that some useful new reform actions have taken place. States have legislated changes in pension policies that enable state governments and often local governments, to offer their employees continued work after retirement, with continued eligibility for part or full pension benefits. Such policies, from the state level, may enable public employees from one agency to move to another agency without completely losing pension income. In most instances, the use of flexible pension policies is limited and still developing. Other benefits, such as health insurance, have not received much attention and are not usually perceived as constraining employment, despite new federal legislation requiring employers to cover older workers' costs (National Commission for Employment Policy, n.d).

Benefits Retention

In Ohio, public employees and teachers can find temporary part-time work and retain their pension benefits. Retired Ohio policemen, firemen and highway patrolmen may not be reemployed in enforcement position, although they can take other jobs under a different retirement system (Gollub, 1983).

In Connecticut and California, reemployment of retired public workers who concurrently receive retirement income is permitted if they work less than 90 days a year. In Connecticut, the retired employee who works more than 90 days must reimburse the state for the full amount of retirement benefits received (Gollub, 1983).

Pension Problem

State and local government employee union are particularly concerned about having their former members work in the same system and in many situations prefer to see retirement rather than continue employment under work options because of costs to retirement systems. To some degree, the issue of pension benefits and continued employment is not well understood by unions (or by employees).

In Washington, the state has been behind on contributions to the pension system. In California, the pension system is known to be far more generous than that of other states. In Indiana, the constitutionally mandated balanced

budget has crowded out older worker issues; the prospect of a large state deficit reduced the incentive of policymakers to introduce reforms enabling flexible employment (Gollub, 1983).

Work Arrangements

State and local governments have been motivated to explore alternative work arrangements in recent years because of the increase in the number of working parents in their labor force. In addition, some intention has been brought to this issue by local organization concerned about broadening the availability of work options to older adults in the community. State and local actions to enable alternative work arrangements within government and in the private sector encompass a range of regulatory and administrative practices and policies.

Before the passage of the Federal Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA), many states had human rights, anti-discrimination, and fair employment practices laws that covered persons up to 65 years old. Subsequently, many states legislatively or administratively amended their existing laws to specify the age of 70 as the upper limit of coverage. Some states have extended protection for the rights of older workers to employment categories not protected by ADEA. Others have introduced laws that reaffirmed protection of workers in the public sector. A few have passed laws enabling flexible employment, including part-

time work, or protecting benefits under part-time employment (Lister, n.d).

State Policy On Age Discrimination

Although the laws protecting older workers are rapidly changing, there are at least minimum protections (in addition to federal law) in almost every state. Several states have eliminated mandatory retirement, including California, Florida, Iowa, Maine, New Hampshire and Tennessee. A number of states, on the other hand, have not yet revised their age discrimination laws to attain the ADEA levels for either the public or private sector. Missouri, Pennsylvania, Texas, West Virginia, and Wyoming retain prior age limits for public employees. Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Washington, West Virginia and Wisconsin retain prior age limits for private sector employees. Also, 26 states allow mandatory retirement of executives in the private sector. California, Missouri, Pennsylvania, and Texas allow their local governments to set their own retirement policies by law (Table IX) (National Commission for Employment Policies, 1985).

To some extent, legislative awareness of older worker issues in these states--which resulted in the initial laws eliminating mandatory retirement in the public and private sectors -- was stimulated by strong activism in communities with older constituents (Gollub, 1983). In several states, including California and Connecticut, laws enable workers

to continue in the public sector beyond age 70 if they petition the commissioner of administrative services or their department director (Lister, n.d).

State Work Arrangement Policy

Legislation on flexible scheduling and permanent part-time work, developed for workers in general, also addresses the needs of older workers. California, Colorado, Iowa, New Jersey, Wisconsin, Massachusetts, and Maryland are among those that have instituted flexible work arrangements.

In 1982, the Florida legislature required the state's Department of Administration to establish a plan for shared employment in the Florida Career Service System. Florida Agency may designate up to 10% of positions for shared employment. Although job sharing has been possible for several years under administrative policies, this laws provide formal recognition of an emerging trend in shared work for older workers (Lister, n.d).

State Policy Development

The development of employment policy for older workers tends to be influenced by the economic setting. For example, Massachusetts has experienced a decline in its employment base. The Massachusetts legislature authorized its Committee on Commerce and Labor to study a variety of issues in the field of older worker employment, in part to address poverty among those not eligible for federal benefit pro-

TABLE IX
HOW THE STATES ADDRESS
MANDATORY RETIREMENT

Retirement Policies	Number of States
Abolished mandatory retirement altogether	8
Set public sector mandatory retirement age at	
70 years	29
65 years	4
62 years	1
No age given	13
No statute	3
Set private sector mandatory retirement age at	
70 years	11
65 years	6
62 years	1
No age given	17
No statute	15

Source: New York State Commission on Interstate Cooperation, 1981.

grams. The committee looked at elimination of mandatory retirement, increasing the pool of jobs available, redefining the types of jobs available, and redefining age as a basis for unlawful discrimination. Officials feel the study can establish the basis for future policy development in the state. As in New York, California and Washington, Massachusetts policymakers require not only evidence of public interest in setting new policy for older workers, but also substantiation of appropriateness and necessity (Gollub, 1983).

Local Policy on Work Arrangement

Human rights laws protecting persons from discrimination predominate. A number of progressive cities and counties have ordinances that specifically address age discrimination in employment or elimination of the retirement age, but most defer to the state (National Commission for Employment Policy, 1985).

Increasing local awareness of the needs of older adults and strong advocacy by older adult organizations have helped change laws in some communities, such as Los Angeles. In 1975, the Los Angeles Area Agency on Aging (AAA) led an effort to abolish mandatory retirement in the city civil service system. In this case, research by AAA staff indicated that the change in local law would benefit older worker employment. The AAA Advisory Council made the elimination of mandatory retirement policy a high priority for

its legislative program, and the city council introduced a motion that adopted this change. During council consideration, a task force composed of actuarial and pension experts, industrial relations and civil service specialist, and advocacy groups for both older adults and youth was established to support the change in policy. When the city council decided to put the issue to a public vote, the coalition of concerned parties actively advocated for its passage among voters. The outcome was passage of Charter Amendment I in 1977 (by a 58% margin), abolishing mandatory retirement in the city civil service (Gollub, 1983).

Other communities with a leadership aware of the needs of older constituents have had older worker legislation initiated by mayors or county supervisors. This was the case in Seattle, Boston, Chicago, Cleveland, Kansas City, New York and Dade County. The impact of these laws on access to jobs for older workers is not known. Very few cases of employment discrimination were brought to the attention of local human resource, civil rights, or fair practices offices until recently, although the numbers are growing (Gollub, 1983).

Elimination of mandatory retirement has increased retention of older workers past age 65, but has not slowed the rate of early retirement. In the private sector, local laws outlawing age discrimination in employment have had less impact than broader state legislation and the changing attitudes of employers (Paul, 1983).

Local governments have been active in adopting flexible work schedule to accommodate the changing needs of families, although older workers can benefit also. Most flexible work and permanent part-time arrangements are being implemented through administrative reforms rather than by law. The mayor of Seattle, for example, introduced the use of permanent part-time work through an executive order (Gollub, 1983).

Local administrative reforms are frequently less complex policy decisions than those at the state level. At the same time, the lack of an agenda for reform means that most actions have developed on an ad hoc or elective basis. Simple reforms have been observed, such as locating job counselors in more accessible locations, as well as efforts to rethink employment application forms and job classification.

Baltimore, Boston, Chicago, Cleveland, Dade County, Los Angeles, Philadelphia, and Seattle are among the jurisdiction that have reported such changes (Gollub, 1983).

Education and Retraining

More than 10% of Americans over the age of 45, or more than 7 million people are eligible for public employment and training programs, using the criteria of low income and unemployment or underemployment (1980). Only about 1% of all those who were eligible, however, use CETA II-B. Even for the Senior Community Service Employment Program, participation is well below 1% of those eligible. (Limited par-

ticipation is partly the result of funding constraints). The Job Training Partnership Act may develop more effective ways of reaching older persons, through direct business employment and training programs as well as through the 3% set aside (National Commission for Employment Policy, 1985).

State governments, however, have a number of resources under their control that can be applied in the training and retraining of older workers. These include state universities and colleges and state control of (or influence over) community colleges, vocational schools and high school districts. Cities, school districts, community college districts, and the like also have the ability to increase access to needed education and retraining programs. It is primarily in adult education programs that attention has been paid to designing courses to suit ways older people learn.

Many states have already modified tuition and entrance requirements for older adults, although primarily with the aim of life enrichment rather than improved employment prospects. Some states are experimenting with specialized education and training programs that will model for future Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) initiatives (National Commission for Employment Policy, 1985).

Marketing and Placement

States and local governments can play an important role in using their policy tools and relations with local busi-

ness to stimulate employment of older persons. Some states and local governments have started to examine how they could use diverse sources of assistance in new ways. Marriage fees to support employment services for displaced homemakers is an example of a potential but rarely used source. Some Federal Tax incentives have been used in a limited way, such as the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit for employers. To some degree, local governments are offering employers-- particularly new ones--economic assistance in exchange for hiring or training disadvantaged and displaced workers. This creates a "win-win" situation for all concerned (Gollub, 1983).

States and local initiatives in marketing and placement of older workers range from marketing devices such as tax incentives to hire disadvantaged or displaced workers. Others include the introduction and support of job clubs that offer training of job search for displaced workers (Gollub, 1983).

Incentives to Hire Older Workers

A tax incentive not used in the majority of states and local governments reviewed is the Targeted Jobs Tax Credit (TJTC). A Cleveland placement agency for older workers, Skills Available, reported using TJTC whenever firms were willing to take advantage of it (Gollub, 1983). The Agency has found it cumbersome, however, to administer it in the past. Four other jurisdictions have also used the TJTC to

encourage employment of older disadvantaged workers. In most cases, it was not seen as an important incentive since managers base hiring decisions on other criteria (Paul, 1983). Tax and subsidy incentives to encourage employment of older workers are likely to be a policy tool of limited potential.

Other incentives to hire older workers may be more feasible. For example, many cities and counties are now negotiating agreements with business that link the provision of public assistance, such as mortgage revenue bonds, land write-downs, tax abatement, and publicly financed land improvements, to agreement by the business to hire disadvantaged workers. This has been done in Portland (Oregon), San Francisco, Jamestown (New York), San Antonio, Buffalo, and Boston. These agreements have not focused specifically, however, on older workers (Gollub, 1983).

Marketing and Information

In many cities, the Mayor's Office has helped to organize corporate support for job fair for older or displaced workers. Having someone from the Mayor's Office solicit corporate participation in a job fair is a way of using the power and prestige of the office in place of (or to supplement) city funds.

Florida's Bureau of Employment Services, in the Department of Labor and Employment Security, is establishing a statewide information bank, which will list available

older workers with their skills. Each local Aging and Adult Services office in the state will receive a computer print-out listing all persons aged 55 and older who are registered (Paul, 1983).

State and local governments have some policy tools that can be used in marketing and placing older workers. Their chief resource lies in supporting new roles by employers and facilitating development of programs by community groups (Davis, 1980).

Innovations For Older Worker

Changing demographics pose an emerging challenge for U.S. managers: the management of an aging workforce. Forward looking personnel and human resources managers are already helping their line organizations prepare for changes expressing that both older and younger employees are motivated and rewarded. The workshop content focuses on these items: the changing national and laboratory employee demographics, stereotypes about aging; the physical, intellectual, and emotional realities of aging and the differences between older and younger workers in terms of their attitudes and values (Kaminski, 1984).

Employers are interested in older workers for several reasons. First, retired employees who can be hired for peak loads, fill-ins, or part-time work require less training than new hires. Second, employers are aware that inflation has altered the retirement expectation of some of their

older workers, who may now be reluctant to retire early. Third, ADEA has altered the way many employers view older workers.

Both the population as a whole and the work force in some industries (such as financial industry) are aging. In time, a larger proportion of the workforce in many industries will be made up of older workers. Also, in some cases, older workers may have valuable skills that are difficult to replace. At the same time, employers are rethinking their pension and benefit programs, as cost of these programs escalate. Government regulation of pensions and benefits (particularly the Employment Retirement Income Security Act [ERISA] and the Tax Equity and Fiscal Responsibility [TEFRA] provides yet another reason for employers to rethink their policies regarding older workers. Unions generally are in favor of retirement by their members at age 55 to 65 to increase employment opportunities for new members. "Thirty years and out" justice has been a long-time philosophy of union members. Today, however, labor unions are also interested in assisting older workers as the work force represented by union ages, and as industry restructuring threatens displacement of workers of all ages. Such issues as income security and training/retraining have attracted special attention. Unions have actively sought to introduce incentives for maintaining income security and disincentives for bypassing older workers or ignoring seniority considerations in new labor agreement (National

Commission for Employment Policy, 1985).

Work Arrangement

The most common type of work arrangement tailored for the older worker is part-time work. Other types are job sharing, phased retirement, retiree labor pools, job redesign and transfers and job retraining. Out of 228 programs for older workers in the National Older Worker Information System (NOWIS) maintained by the University of Michigan, 117 are for part-time work (Root and Zarraugh, 1983). Only 20 job redesign and 28 training programs are listed. A number of firms, such as Bankers Life and Casualty, Aerospace Corporation, and Travelers, have utilized preretirement counseling to help explain and plan for different work options for retirement-age workers. Many more options are undoubtedly provided by small businesses but are not documented.

Part-time work, as documented by The National Older Worker Information System lists 48 part-time work programs for clerical and white-collar workers, 37 for professional and managerial employees, 19 for semiskilled or unskilled blue-collar workers, 7 for skilled blue-collar workers, and 5 for the general work force (Root and Zarraugh, 1983). In addition, about one-half of the New York companies with 100 or more employees surveyed by the New York Chamber of Commerce and Industry offered part-time work to retired employees.

Other firms, such as Tektronix, have policies that permit individuals to retire and return to work if they do not find satisfactory alternatives or do not like retirement. Sometimes, less demanding jobs are offered, depending on individual need and opportunity. Many of these options, however, are germane only to industries where skills of workers are valued and hard to replace. They do not apply as well to less demanding or less skilled work. New jobs in less demanding roles, however, may still be satisfying. Commercial State Bank in St. Paul, Minnesota, hires retirees as messengers, parking attendants, and file clerks. These jobs often are well suited to locations where there are high concentrations of low-income elderly, such as inner cities (Lister, n.d).

Job sharing involves the sharing of one full-time job by two or more workers. It has been most frequently used by public schools in team teaching situations. Very few job-sharing programs are designed for specific use of retirement-age personnel.

One public school district developed job sharing to avoid laying off young or minority teachers (Paul, 1983). Teachers over 50 were offered a continuation of full fringe benefits for sharing a job with a 50% reduction in pay, but with accrual of pension credit at the full-time rate. Thus, lay offs were avoided. Principals, who had been skeptical, found benefits in having two teachers teach one class, and students benefited as well. In addition, if one teacher

was ill, continuity was maintained by the other teacher and no substitute is needed. Overall, labor costs have been reduced. Similar arrangements could be developed in other situations that make use of older workers (Lister, n.d).

Northern Natural Gas Company has developed job sharing options that provide reduced work schedules for older workers who help provide on-the-job training to younger, less experienced workers with whom they share jobs (National Commission for Employment Policy, 1985). Phased retirement is a relatively new but fast-growing option for older workers in industry. It involves a part-time work schedule that usually allows for a gradual reduction in work hours, permitting the retirement age employee to "phase into retirement." Frequently, the work hour reduction process takes place over 2 or 3 years. Jondrow, Brechling, and Marcus (1983), however, found that gradual redirection of hours, even where available, tends to be less attractive to workers than sudden retirement.

Four nationally recognized phased-retirement programs were analyzed by Paul (1983). The organizations offering these programs included one public university, one life insurance company, and two high-technology product manufacturers.

A large public set up a phased retirement program to promote faculty retirement so that young, non-tenured professors would be better able to receive promotions. Employees (faculty of staff) who are 60 years old and have

20 or more years of service may apply for the program, either as a stepped reduction in work schedule (two-thirds time, then half-time, then one-third time) or as a reduced appointment (one-half or one-third time) that stays constant. Those using the option continue to be eligible for fringe benefits as part-time workers and can draw some pension (Paul, 1983).

Some firms make special efforts to help older workers adapt to changing business operations and new work processes. In R. H. Macy Company, the New York retail chain, transitional schedules have been used to prepare individuals for retirement.

Retiree Labor Pools as part-time jobs was one of the first options to be offered by industry. In most cases, employees will be asked on retiring if they are interested in returning to work for the organization on a temporary, part-week, part-month, or part-year schedule. Generally, retirees are permitted to work no more than 1,000 hours during a given year to avoid having to provide fringe benefits (Paul, 1983).

Retirees who indicated an interest in being rehired are often put on a "temporary work" list maintained by personnel department, when their skills are needed by the organization for special assignments or during peak work periods, they are called to work. In many cases the retiree continues to receive a pension while being paid for part-time employment, but no employee benefits are provided other than those the

worker has already been receiving in retirement (Root and Zarraugh, 1983).

Most companies that have some type of retiree labor pool prefer to rehire their own retirees, only rarely hiring those of other companies. Management considers the major benefit of such reemployment to be that a company retiree is a "known quantity" to the organization (Root and Zarraugh, 1983).

Twelve organization have become nationally known for their rehiring of retirees. Example of companies using these approaches include banks, aircraft\ aerospace engineering firms, insurance companies and municipal government agencies (Root and Zarraugh, 1983).

Continental Illinois National Bank and Trust Company in Chicago employs older workers on a part-time basis through its own temporary-help firm, Ready Work Force. About half of those in the Ready Work Force are over 65; job assignments and schedules vary, depending on the workload in the different parts of the business and times of year (Paul, 1983).

The bank developed the pool of retirees to provide knowledgeable workers who would be quickly available to work on temporary, part-time work assignments (Paul, 1983). These employees are offered no fringe benefits but do continue to receive full pension benefits while they work. About 200 retirees are being used. The major cost to the bank has been to provide liability insurance for the retired

workers. The retiree pool provides a stable, in-house source of temporary labor that is less expensive than agency labor (Paul, 1983).

Job redesign and job transfers are the options least commonly available to older employees. Very few employers have been identified as offering these options specifically to assist older worker (Paul, 1983). In general, the programs require the greatest expenditure of managers' time, money and creativity. Root and Zarraugh (1983) note that job redesign has its greatest use in putting those who have been receiving long-term disability or workers' compensation back to work.

Job redesign and job transfers are generally used to change some or all of the tasks being performed on a given job for the worker who is having problems dealing with the physical or mental demands of the job. Among organizations that use redesign and job transfers are aerospace engineering firms, high technology manufacturers, and mail delivery firms (Paul, 1983).

By monitoring claims, a high technology manufacturer discovered that middle-aged and older employees receiving extended disability and workers' compensation tended not to return to work but to continue claiming full disability. A retired employee was hired as a job placement worker to encourage employees to return to work by redesigning their job to make them less physically or mentally stressful. This may be done by providing equipment to assist in

physical aspects of the job or by eliminating certain duties. The recession has had some impact on the program in that more workers want help, while managers are less flexible in approving job alterations (Paul, 1983).

In another high-technology manufacturing firm, the union asked that older employees in physically taxing jobs be provided with job alternatives. This option was eventually written into the contract. To be eligible, an employee must be age 55 or over with 15 years of service, or 50 with 20 years of service, and must be able to perform the new job or be available to be trained to perform it. The worker gives up promotion prospects on transfer but is still paid at a rate that is midway between the rate for the old job and that for the new one. Labor costs are associated with the transfer, and there has been some resentment among the work crews that receive the transferred worker. The probability of time lost in accidents, however, has decreased (Paul, 1983).

Job Retraining

An issue of concern to employers and unions (and ultimately to older workers) is maintaining work productivity and preventing skills obsolescence. In many businesses and public agencies, the nature of work is changing. The workplace is becoming more automated and production processes are changing more rapidly than they once did (Andrisani and Daymont, 1983).

Retraining to Upgrade Skills

Several companies have received national attention for the training and retraining they offer older workers. They include an aerospace firm, insurance companies, a job placement agency, and a high technology manufacturer.

An aerospace firm decided to retrain analog-oriented engineers to digital technology, both to meet personnel needs and to remotivate older staff who appeared to be "coasting" toward retirement. The effort has broadened so that 28 different courses are now offered each semester, during the lunch break and in the early evenings. They are taught by in-house staff. Although not all departments can afford to offer these courses, about 22% of the work force participate. Management actively promotes the program since 40% of its workforce will be eligible to retire within 10 years and reducing the number of early retirees is important (Andrisani and Daymont, 1983).

Retraining for New Jobs

Training provided by employers, whether on-the-job training for promotion or retraining, appear to be limited. No instances were found of companies offering training to, say displaced older workers who had not yet been hired. Some union contracts, however, mandate training for workers who will be displaced as a result of automation (the example usually cited is retraining linotype operators to use photo-

typesetters) (Lister, n.d).

Two unions have been particularly active in seeking retraining opportunities for their members, especially those who are older, have long seniority, and have been hit hard by layoffs from recent recession. In 1982, United Auto Workers (UAW) and Ford Motor Company established a National Development and Training Center to provide guidance to local unions and management in developing plant-level employee development and retraining programs. Funding for the program was made possible by the 1982 Collective Bargaining Agreement that set aside 5 cents per hour worked for all employees.

The programs has three components. First, a National Vocational Retraining Assistance Plan was established by laid-off employees with five or more years seniority. The plan provides prepaid tuition money to individuals who pursue self-chosen education or training that improves their chances for reemployment, either within or outside of the company. Second, several Targeted Vocational Retraining projects were launched. These projects provide full-time retraining, including aptitude testing, job search counseling, and especially specific occupational skill instruction for laid-off workers. Finally, a Career Counseling and Guidance program has been established to encourage employees to recognize, gauge, and develop their personal strengths to minimize the stresses of unemployment in case of layoff. The 1984 Ford and GM agreements go even further in providing

resources for retraining. The leaders of this Union recognized early on that new technologies would require more knowledge and specialized skills on the part of their members. Reflecting this belief, CWA negotiated a settlement with American Telephone and Telegraph (AT&T) in 1983 which guaranteed retraining opportunities to those workers whose jobs are affected by future technological innovation. AT&T contributes 3.5 cents per hour worked for the benefit of both laid-off and active workers. The program encourages career development and provides new skills to workers whose jobs are being phased out. This approach establishes a systematic way of dealing with technological change and its implications for workers in general and older workers in particular (Lister, n.d).

In neither of these cases does the union promote retraining specifically for older workers. Nevertheless, the impact of these programs on older workers in these industries is substantial and will only become greater in the future. Because they are not restricted from participating in these programs, and because they may be more susceptible to skills obsolescence than more recently trained employees, older workers continue to be the natural beneficiaries of these types of approaches (Lister, n.d).

As the needs and benefits of utilizing the older worker as a resource are realized by employers and employees alike, further program will be developed and existing ones will be refined. The result will be more flexible and productive

work situation which helps to address the social and economic problems of older workers and the economic productivity problems of many company (Morgan, 1981).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

There are several studies in the literature on old workers stereotyping. The intent of the present study is to discover dietitians' perception of older workers' job performance compared to younger workers in foodservice tasks. Specifically, dietitians were asked to describe how they perceive their older workers on job performance, potential for development, stability and interpersonal skills compared with younger workers. The research design; population and sample; data collection, which includes planning and development, instrumentation and procedures; and data analysis, will be included in this chapter.

Research Design

Descriptive survey was the research design utilized to meet the objectives of the study. According to Best (1981), descriptive research seeks to find answers to questions through the analysis of variable relationship which seemed to be associated with certain occurrences, outcomes, conditions, or types of behavior. Descriptive research involves the interpretation of conditions that exists and some comparison or contrast to discover relationship between

existing variables.

Population

The hospitals in the sunbelt listed in the American Hospital Association, 1983 comprised the population in this study. The sample includes only those hospitals with 500 or more beds which are located in the sunbelt region: Alabama, Arkansas, Arizona, California, Florida, Georgia, New Mexico, Nevada, North Carolina, Mississippi, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee and Texas. A total of 178 hospitals met the aforementioned criteria. The survey questionnaires were sent to the Directors of the Dietary Department of the hospitals.

Data Collection

Planning and Development

During summer semester, 1985, research instruments that had been utilized in measuring stereotyping of older workers by various age groups were located. Two of these instruments were: Attitudes Toward Older Workers (Tuckman and Lorge, 1982) and Job Related Stereotypes (Rosen and Jerdee, 1976).

The most carefully constructed and reliable instrument to measure dietitians' perception of older workers was the Job Related Age Stereotypes questionnaire, which encompassed four dimension: performance capacity, potential for

development, stability and interpersonal skills. The survey instrument was then developed to incorporate the four dimensions.

Instrumentation

The research instrument designed for the study will consist of two parts: General Information and Dietitians' Perceptions of Older Workers. The second section of the questionnaire utilized the job related age stereotypes which was first published by Rosen, Benson and Jerdee Thomas in 1976 in the Journal of Applied Psychology. The right to use or reproduce the questionnaire was granted by Rosen (1985). A cover letter explaining the research and instructions in completing and returning the questionnaire was developed by the researcher to accompany the research instrument.

Items for an age stereotypes were arranged in bipolar form with a 10-point format as shown in the example. Scores for each of the four scales consisted of the mean rating items in the scale.

Not at all									Very
accurate									Accurate
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Scoring

The dietitians' perceptions which utilized a Likert-type scale were scored as follows:

	Points
Positive Items	9
Negative Items	0

Total possible points for each dimensions were as follows:

	Maximum Points
Potential for Development (18 positive, 6 negative)	162
Performance Capacity (13 positive, 1 negative)	117
Stability (8 positive, 3 negative)	72
Interpersonal Skills (10 positive, 5 negative)	90

Data Analysis

Data obtained from the survey were transcribed and coded onto computer data sheets. They were directly put onto computer (TSO), which provided the researcher direct access to the mainframe computer (TSO VANGIE). Appropriate programs were selected and data were analyzed using the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) (Helvig, 1979).

Standard statistical procedures, including frequency tables, t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to analyze the data (Steel and Torrie, 1980). Mean scores were used in all statistical analysis. The level of $p = 0.05$ was used with ANOVA and F-test and Duncan determinations in order to see more broadly which selected personal as well as institutional variables affected the stereotyping in the study.

CHAPTER IV

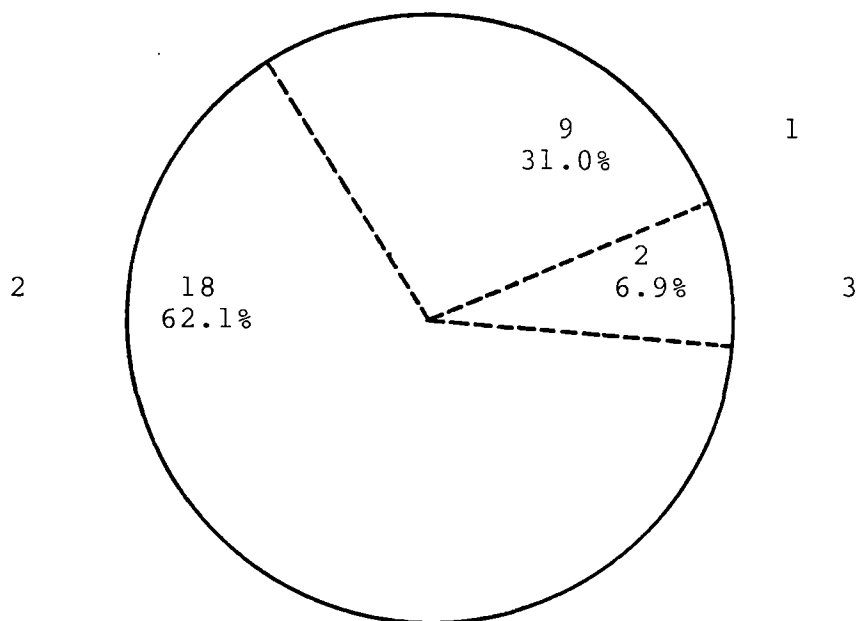
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The intent of the study was to discover the Dietitians' perceptions of older workers' job performance in foodservice tasks. Data was obtained using the research instrument described in Chapter III. The questionnaire was mailed to 178 hospitals with 500 and above beds to Directors of the Dietary Department. The questionnaire required two mailings, because the first response rate was six percent (N=10). Another 168 questionnaire were mailed to the same hospital which did not respond. The second response rate was 21 percent (N=38). The total response rate was 27 percent (N=48) of which 16 percent (N=29) were usable for analysis. The reasons for exclusions of the questionnaires were: 11 respondents had no older employees and they did not fill out the questionnaire; two respondents had no older employees but answered the questionnaire and six respondents had no older employees and answered the younger part of the questionnaire only. Three hospitals had below 500 beds, but had older employees. The statistician consulted believed that by including these three hospitals in the study would increase the percent usable for analysis.

Characteristics of Survey Participants

Age and Sex

As illustrated in Figure 2, 62.1 percent (N=18) of the respondents were in the 40-59 years of age group, 31 percent (N=9) were between 20-39 years of age, and 6.9 percent (N=2) were within 60 and over age group. Ninety percent (N=26) of the respondents were females, while the remaining ten percent (N=3) were males.



Key:

- 1 = 20-39 years
- 2 = 40-59 years
- 3 = 60 & over years

Figure 2. Directors of Dietary Department by Age Groups

Highest Degree Attained

Fifteen of the 19 respondents (53.5%) listed a bachelor of science as the highest degree attained. Forty-six percent (N=13) attained masters degrees. One respondent did not complete this part of the question.

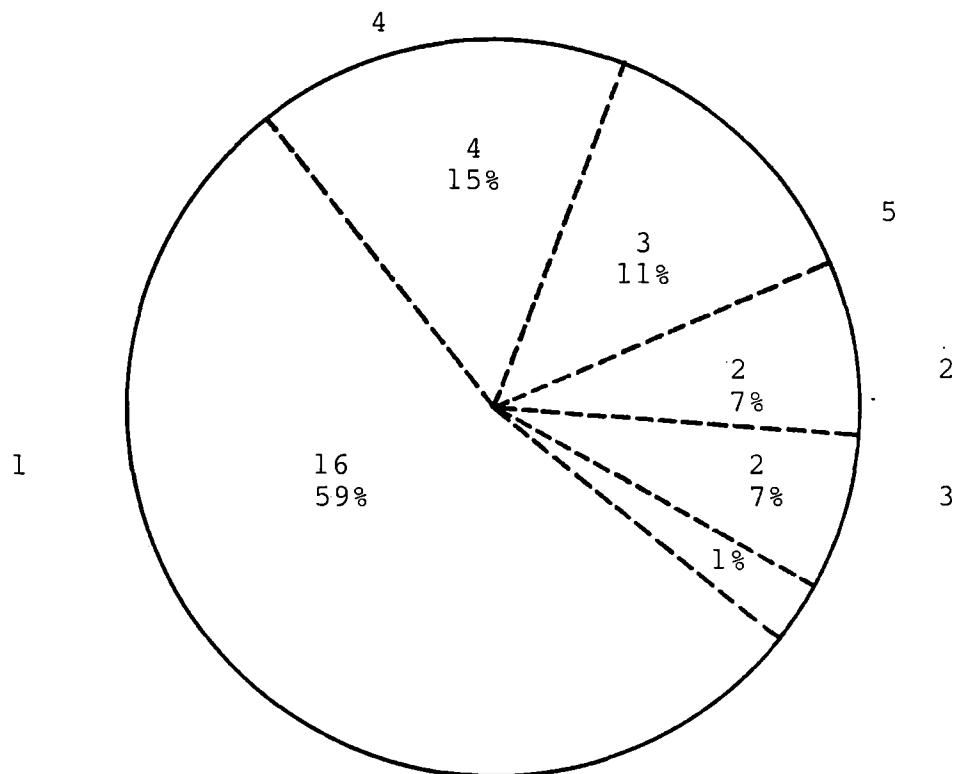
Registration Status and Route to ADA Membership

Of the 19 respondents, 72 percent (N=12) were registered dietitians, while 24 percent (N=7) were non-registered.

Fifty-nine percent (N=16) of the respondents listed the dietetic internship as their route to membership in ADA (Figure 3). Fifteen percent (N=4) of the respondents became ADA members via three years' pre-planned work experience, while 11 percent (N=3) of the respondents became ADA members through M.S., plus six months of work experience. Seven percent (N=2) of respondents became ADA members via CUP Program, while seven percent (N=2) of respondents completed a traineeship to meet the experience requirement of ADA membership. The remaining seven percent (N=2) of respondents failed to answer the question.

Position Title

The predominant position title of the 29 respondents was that of director (N= 20, 69%) (Figure 4). Fourteen



Key:

- 1 = Internship
- 2 = CUP Program
- 3 = Traineeship
- 4 = 3-year preplanned work experience
- 5 = M.S. plus 6 months work experience

Figure 3. Directors of Dietary Department by Route to ADA Membership

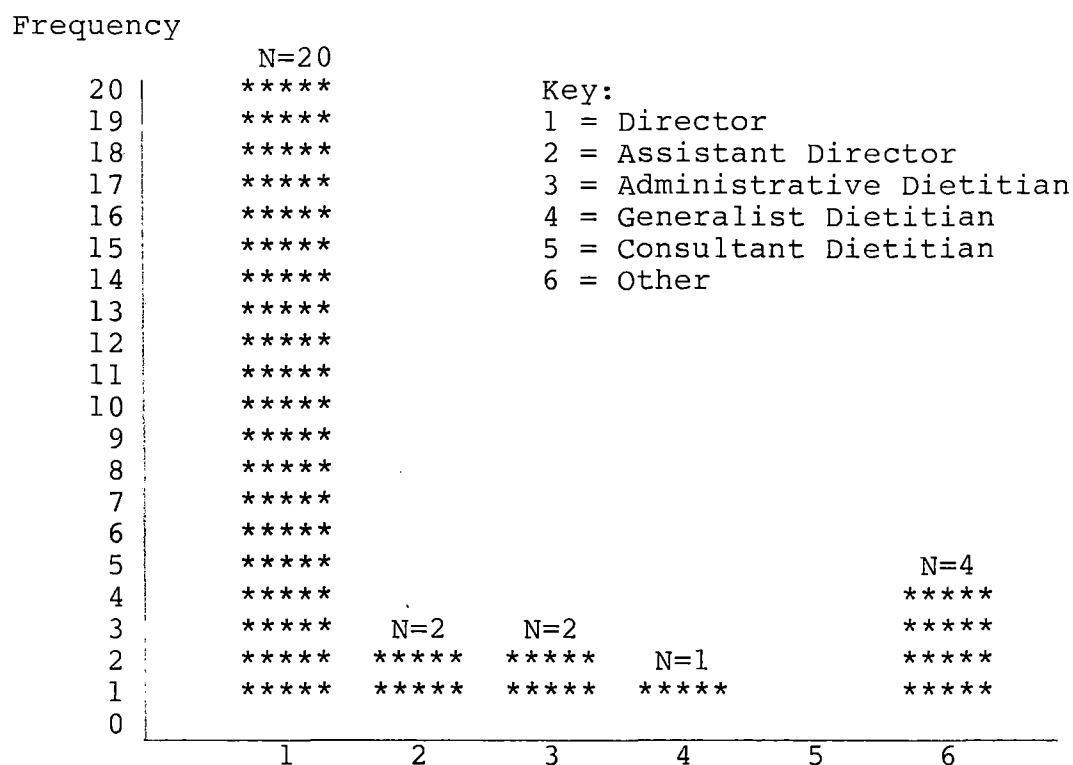


Figure 4. Directors of Dietary Department by Position Title

percent (N=4) of the respondents described their position title under "Other," which included Food Service Manager and Chief of Dietetic Services. Seven percent (N=2) were Assistant Directors, seven percent (N=2) were Administrative Dietitian and the remaining three percent (N=1) was a Generalist Dietitian.

Numbers of Years in Present Job,
Administrative and General Dietetics

Figure 5 illustrated the frequency and number of years

the dietitians in this study had worked in their present jobs, as well as in administrative and general dietetics. A little over half of the respondents (N=15) had been in their present job from less than one year to five years. The remaining had job from 6 to 10 years (N=8), and from 11 or more years (N=6).

One third (N=10) of the respondents had worked as administrative dietitian from less than one year to five years. The remaining had worked in their administrative jobs from 6 to 10 years (N=9), and from 11 or more years (N=10).

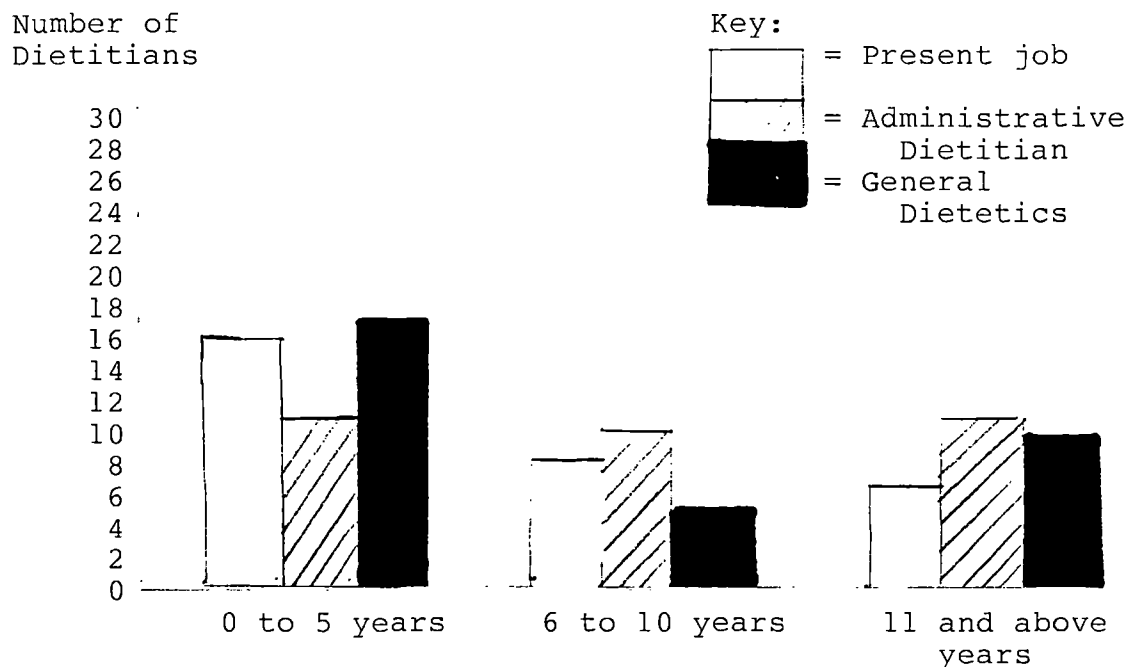


Figure 5. Numbers of Years in Present Job, and Experiences in Administrative and General Dietetics

A little over half of the respondents (N=16) had been in their General Dietetics job from less than one year to five years. The remaining had worked in general dietetics from 6 to 10 years (N=4), and from 11 or more years (N=9).

Characteristics of the Institutions

Institution Size

The institution size of the respondents ranged from 250 to 1500 beds, with the predominant size of 500-999 beds (N=16) (Table X). Nine of the 29 respondents worked in 1,000 and above beds. Only one respondent did not indicate the institution size of his/her workplace.

TABLE X
INSTITUTION SIZE

Institution Size	Frequency
1,000 and above beds	9
500-999 beds	16
below 500 beds	3
No Response	1

Type of Facility

As illustrated in Figure 6, dietitians in this study worked predominantly in full-service hospitals with out-patient departments (N=13), while about one-fourth (N=8) identified their place of employment as "other" which included V.A. Medical Center and State Mental hospital. About one-eighth (N=5) worked in a long term care hospital. Only one respondent each worked in a Community Hospital and University Medical Center. One respondent did not answer the question.

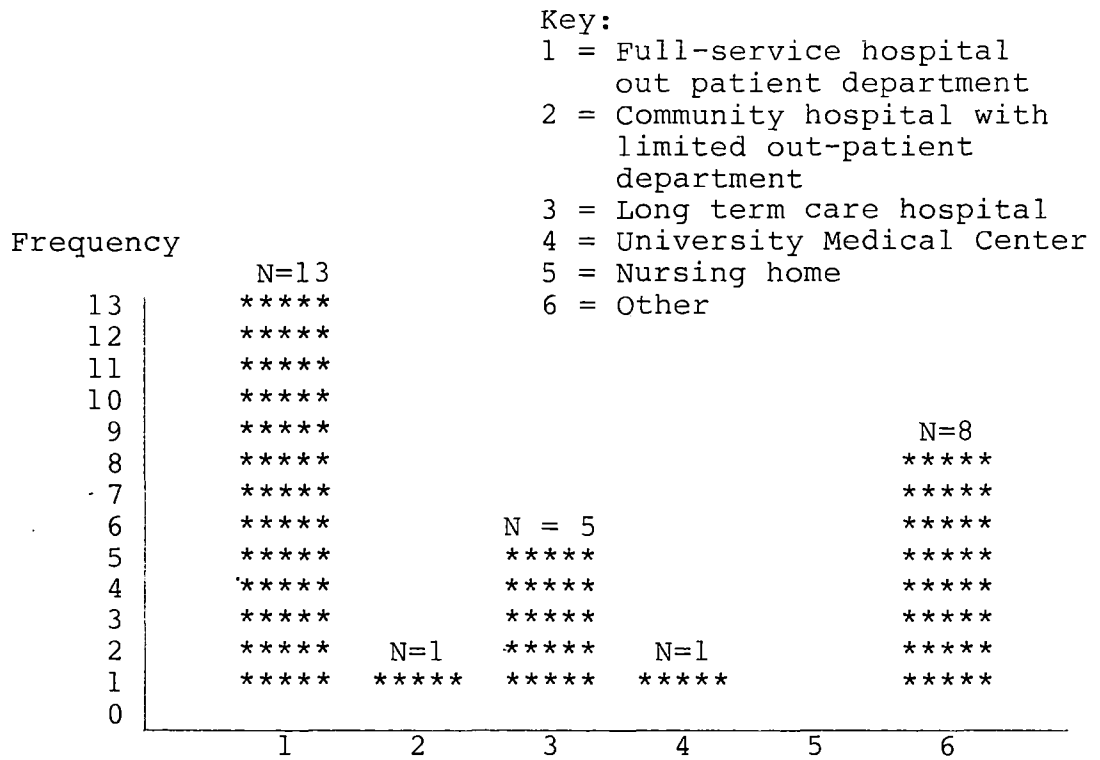


Figure 6. Types of Facilities

Financial Goals of the Facility

Ninety percent (N=26) of the respondents were employed in non-profit institutions. In contrast, only 7% (N=2) of the respondents were employed in profit making institution. One respondent did not answer the question.

Number of Personnel in Dietary

Department Under Each Age Group

In Table XI, respondents from the state of Alabama, North Carolina, Tennessee and Mississippi had 27 to 91 personnel in the 30 and younger category. Respondents from Oklahoma, Florida and Texas had 112 to 234. Respondents from the state of Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee and Texas had 107 to 670 personnel aging from 35 to 64. Respondents from the states of Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee and Texas had 2 to 35 personnel aging from 65 and older. Only two respondents did not answer the question.

Number and Types of

Personnel Employed

In Table XII, respondents from the state of Alabama, California, Florida, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee and Texas had 0 to 7 Asian employees. Respondents from the same state had 15 to 549 black employees, 0 to 158 Hispanics employees, 0 to 244 white employees and 1 to 25

TABLE XI
 NUMBER OF PERSONNEL IN DIETARY DEPARTMENT
 UNDER EACH AGE GROUP

State & No. of Respondents	Number of Personnel		
	30 & younger	35-64	65 & older
Alabama (1)	27	107	2
California (1)	n.a.*	n.a.	n.a.
Florida (5)	128	263	10
Mississippi (3)	91	208	19
N. Carolina (3)	55	161	22
Oklahoma (4)	112	212	12
Tennessee (3)	82	120	5
Texas (8)	234	670	35
Unknown (1)	n.a	n.a.	n.a.

*n.a.: respondent did not answer the question.

TABLE XII
 NUMBER AND TYPES OF PERSONNEL
 EMPLOYED

State & No. of Respondents	No. of personnel under each category				
	Asian	Black	Hispanics	White	Other
Alabama (1)	0	136	0	0	1
California (1)	7	15	30	108	17
Florida (5)	5	200	6	184	25
Mississippi (3)	0	164	2	152	6
N. Carolina (3)	1	146	0	67	1
Oklahoma (1)	2	90	6	115	8
Tennessee (3)	0	128	1	138	1
Texas (8)	4	549	158	244	1
Unknown (1)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

"Other" employees. One respondent did not answer the question.

Sex of Older Employees

Forty-eight percent (N=14) respondents had no male employees 65 and older and forty-five percent (N=13) had no female employees 65 and older. Thirty-eight percent (N=11)

respondents had six female employees age 65 and older and thirty-one percent (N=9) respondents had 1.6 male employees aging 65 and older. Only two respondents did not answer the question.

Status of Older Employees

Sixty-two percent (N=18) respondents had no full-time employees aging 65 and older and sixty-two percent (N=18) respondents had no part-time employees aging 65 and older as illustrated in Table XIII. Twenty-eight percent (N=8) respondents had full-time employees ranging from 6-10 personnels. Thirty-one percent (N=9) respondents had employees ranging from 1 to 5 personnels.

Training Requirement of Older Employees

Compared With Younger Employees

In Figure 7, more than one half of the respondents answered that older employees required the same training as younger employees (N=18). About one fourth of the respondents answered that older employees required less training than younger employees (N=6) and the rest of the respondents said that older employees required more training than younger employees (N=3). Two respondents did not answer the question.

TABLE XIII
STATUS OF OLDER EMPLOYEES
65 AND OLDER (N=29)

State	Number of Personnel Full-time	65 & Older Part-time
Alabama	18	18
California	-	9
Florida	8	-
Mississippi	-	-
North Carolina	1	-
Oklahoma	1	-
Tennessee	-	-
Texas	1	-

Length of Service of Older Employees
Compared With Younger Employees

In Figure 8, about two-thirds of the respondents answered that older employees had longer length of service than younger employees (N=21). Three respondents answered that older employees had the same length of service than younger employees. One respondent answered that older employees had shorter length of service than younger employees. Four respondents did not answer the question.

No. of Respondents

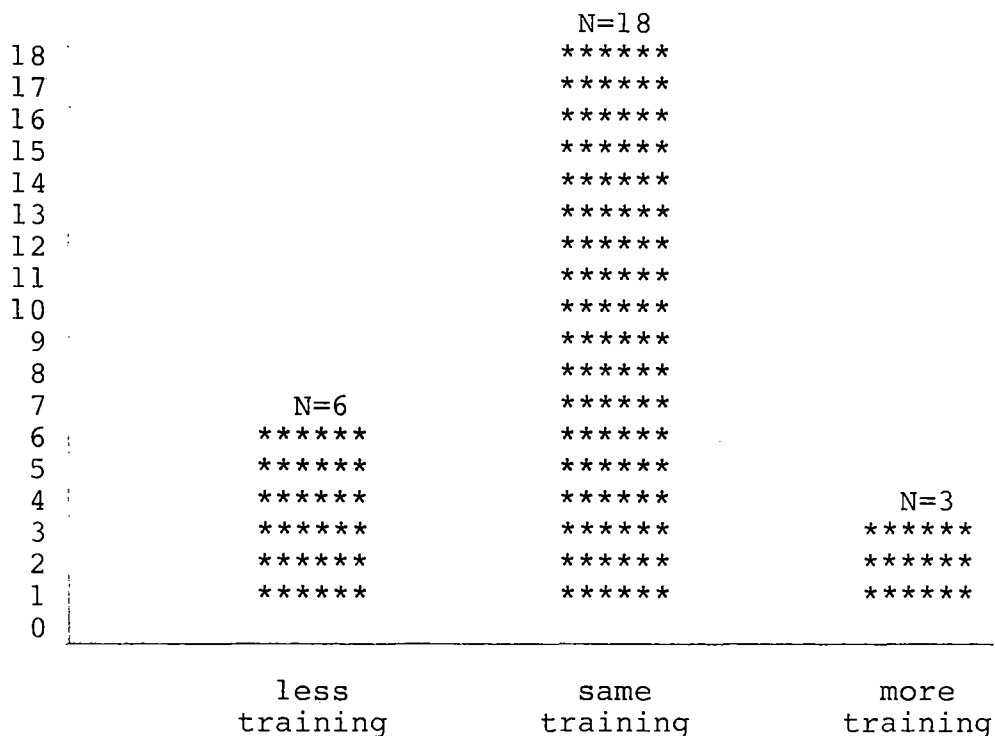


Figure 7. Training requirement of older employees compared with younger employees

State Where Institutions Are Located

As shown in Table XIV eight of the 29 respondents' institutions were located in Texas while five were from Florida. Four respondents' institutions were located in the state of Oklahoma, while three each were in North Carolina and Tennessee. The last two respondents belonged to the state of Alabama and California. One respondent did not answer the question.

No. of Respondents

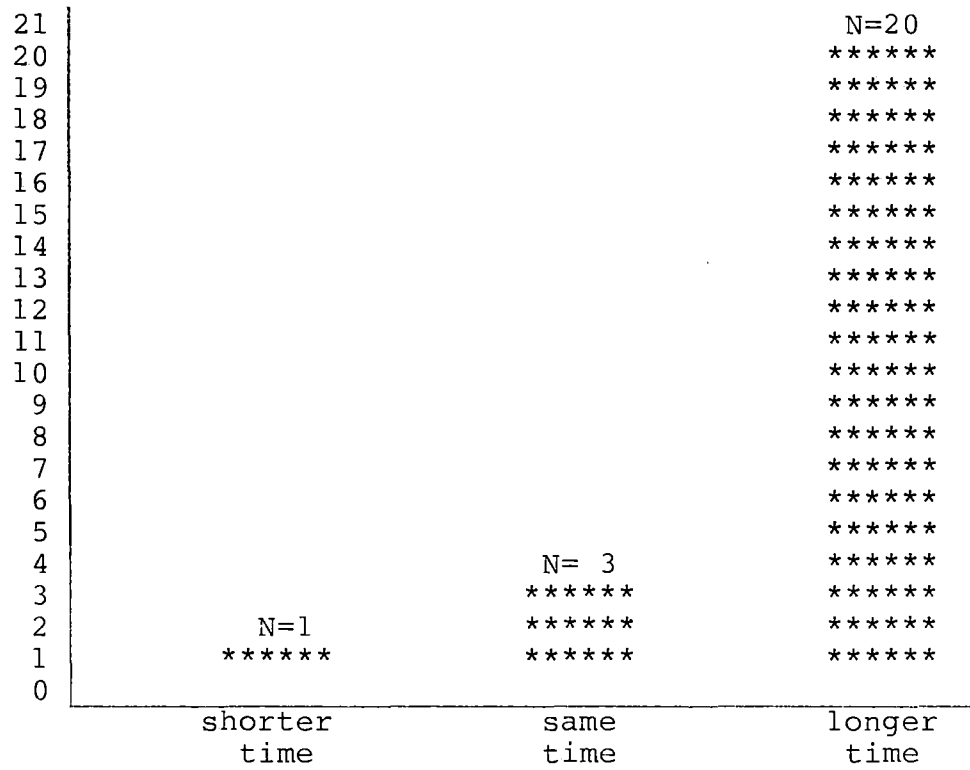


Figure 8. Length of service of older employees compared with younger employees.

TABLE XIV
STATE WHERE INSTITUTION IS LOCATED

State	Frequency
Texas	8
Florida	5
Oklahoma	4
Mississippi	3
N. Carolina	3
Tennessee	3
Alabama	1
California	1
Unknown	1

Dietitians' Perceptions Under Each
Personal Variables

Age of Respondents

Younger respondents (age 20-39) tended to score younger workers higher on performance capacity and potential for development and lower on stability and interpersonal skills. Middle age respondents (age 40-59) tended to score older workers higher on performance capacity and stability and lower on potential for development and interpersonal skills.

Older respondents (age 60 and over) scored older workers higher on all four dimensions (performance capacity, potential for development, stability and interpersonal skills) (Table XV). Age did not, however, significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect the four dimension scores.

Sex of Respondents

Female respondents tended to score older workers higher on performance capacity and stability and lower on potential for development and interpersonal skills. Male respondents scored older workers higher on performance capacity, stability and interpersonal skills and lower on potential for development (Table XVI). Sex did not, however, significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect the four dimension scores.

Highest Degree of Respondents

Respondents with B.S. degree tended to score older workers higher on all four dimensions (performance capacity, potential for development, stability and interpersonal skills). Respondents with Master's degrees scored older workers on stability but lower on performance capacity, potential for development and interpersonal skills (Table XVII). Highest degree has a significant ($p = 0.05$) effect on the stability scores but did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect performance capacity, potential for development and interpersonal skills scores (Table XVIII). Duncan Multiple

TABLE XV
 MEAN SCORES OF JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS
 COMPARING YOUNGER AND OLDER WORKERS
 BY AGE OF RESPONDENTS

Age of Respondents		Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions			
		Perform- ance Capacity	Potential for Deve- lopment	Stability	Inter- personal Skills
Age 20-39	Younger Worker	5.02 ¹	5.00	4.94	5.09
N = 9	Older Worker	4.83	4.61	6.21	5.39
Age 40-59	Younger Worker	5.06	4.97	5.17	5.45
N = 15	Older Worker	5.29	4.88	6.21	5.27
Age 60 & Over	Younger Worker	4.96	5.15	5.13	5.10
N = 2	Older Worker	5.60	5.37	5.92	5.50

¹ Scoring see Chapter III, page 66 or Appendix C.

TABLE XVI
 MEAN SCORES OF JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS
 COMPARING YOUNGER AND OLDER WORKERS
 BY SEX OF RESPONDENTS

Sex of Respondents		Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions			
		Perform- ance Capacity	Potential for Deve- lopment	Stability	Inter- personal Skills
Female N = 23	Younger Worker	5.14 ¹	5.05	5.13	5.33
	Older Worker	4.19	4.85	6.16	5.26
Male N = 3	Younger Worker	4.26	4.68	4.69	4.93
	Older Worker	4.98	4.59	6.44	5.84

¹ Scoring see Chapter III, page 66 or Appendix C.

TABLE XVII
 MEAN SCORES OF JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS
 COMPARING YOUNGER AND OLDER WORKERS
 BY HIGHEST DEGREE OF RESPONDENTS

Highest Degree of Respondents		Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions			
		Perform- ance Capacity	Potential for Deve- lopment	Stability	Inter- personal Skills
Bachelor of Science N = 14	Younger Worker	4.63 ¹	4.69	5.07	5.10
	Older Worker	5.09	4.85	6.20	5.39
Master of Science N = 11	Younger Worker	5.63	5.35	5.18	5.58
	Older Worker	5.34	4.84	6.31	5.36

¹ Scoring see Chapter III, page 66 or Appendix C.

TABLE XVIII
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE FOR HIGHEST DEGREE
OF RESPONDENT: STABILITY SCORES

Source	DF	Sum of Square	Mean Square	F-Value	Observed Significance Level
Stability	1	5.52	5.52	7.74	0.0119
Error	19	13.6	0.71		
Corrected Total	20	19.1			

Range determination indicated that respondents with M.S. degrees were significantly different from those with B.S. degrees in terms of their scoring of the four dimensions (Table XIX).

Status of Respondent

Registered respondents tended to score older workers higher on performance capacity, stability and interpersonal skills and lower on potential for development. Non-registered respondents scored older workers higher on performance capacity, potential for development and stability and lower on interpersonal skills. Status of respondent did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect the four dimension scores (Table XX).

TABLE XIX
DUNCAN MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR HIGHEST
DEGREE OF RESPONDENTS

Highest Degree	N	Mean	Groupings
M.S.	10	0.770	A
B.S.	11	-0.257	B

Route to ADA Membership of Respondent

Respondents who had completed the internship and CUP program tend to score both the young and older workers equally. There is no significant score present. Respondents with the traineeship tended to score older workers higher on stability and interpersonal skills and lower on performance capacity and potential for development. Respondents with three years preplanned work experience scored the younger and older workers equally, except for interpersonal skills. Respondents with Masters degree and six months work experience scored older workers higher on performance capacity, potential for development and interpersonal skills and lower on stability (Table XXI). Route to ADA membership did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect the four dimension scores.

TABLE XX
 MEAN SCORES OF JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS
 COMPARING YOUNGER AND OLDER WORKERS
 BY STATUS OF RESPONDENTS

Status of Respondents		Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions			
		Perform- ance Capacity	Potential for Deve- lopment	Stability	Inter- personal Skills
Registered N = 20	Younger Worker	5.29 ¹	5.16	5.20	5.38
	Older Worker	5.31	4.89	6.38	5.53
Non- Registered N = 6	Younger Worker	4.23	4.54	4.79	5.04
	Older Worker	4.59	4.62	5.65	4.87

¹ Scoring see Chapter III, page 66 or Appendix C.

TABLE XXI
 MEAN SCORES OF JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS COMPARING
 YOUNGER AND OLDER WORKERS BY ROUTE TO ADA
 MEMBERSHIP OF RESPONDENTS

Route to ADA Membership		Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions			
		Perform- ance Capacity	Potential for Deve- lopment	Stability	Inter- personal Skills
Internship N = 14	Younger Worker	4.99 ¹	5.08	5.08	5.26
	Older Worker	5.23	5.02	6.34	5.51
CUP Program N = 2	Younger Worker	4.93	4.76	4.54	5.17
	Older Worker	4.96	4.39	5.92	4.80
Trainee- ship N = 2	Younger Worker	6.25	5.74	5.67	5.40
	Older Worker	5.61	4.78	6.58	5.60
Three Years Pre-planned Work Expe- rience N = 3	Younger Worker	5.40	5.24	5.81	6.00
	Older Worker	5.62	5.24	5.69	4.87
Masters + Six Months Work Experience N = 3	Younger Worker	5.29	5.26	5.13	5.56
	Older Worker	4.74	4.23	6.31	5.42

¹ Scoring see Chapter III, page 66 or Appendix C.

Position Title of Respondent

Respondents who were directors and assistant directors tend to score younger and older workers the same with an exception on interpersonal skills. Directors tended to score older workers favorably higher than assistant directors who scored older workers lower. Respondents who were administrative dietitians scored older workers higher on all four dimensions. Respondents who were generalist dietitians scored older employees lower on performance capacity and potential for development and scored the older and the younger workers equally on interpersonal skills. Respondents who marked "others" under position title scored older workers higher on potential for development and stability, but lower on performance capacity and interpersonal skills (Table XXII). Position title of respondents did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect the four dimension scores.

Number of Years in Position

Respondents in present jobs, administrative dietetics and general dietetics, tended to score both younger and older workers the same way. The number of years in the position did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect the scores for performance capacity, potential for development, stability and interpersonal skills (Table XXIII). Analysis of variance has been performed and it is not significant.

TABLE XXII
 MEAN SCORES OF JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS COMPARING
 YOUNGER AND OLDER WORKERS BY POSITION
 TITLE OF RESPONDENTS

Position Title of Respondents		Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions			
		Perform- ance Capacity	Potential for Deve- lopment	Stability	Inter- personal Skills
Director N = 19	Younger Worker	4.93 ¹	5.07	5.15	5.23
	Older Worker	5.17	4.85	6.24	5.45
Assistant Director N = 2	Younger Worker	5.25	5.74	5.33	5.67
	Older Worker	4.32	4.30	6.21	4.27
Adminis- trative Dietitian N = 2	Younger Worker	5.18	5.13	5.29	5.30
	Older Worker	5.96	5.43	6.50	5.77
Generalist Dietitian N = 1	Younger Worker	5.43	4.91	No response	6.00
	Older Worker	5.29	4.04	6.92	6.27
Other N = 2	Younger Worker	5.54	3.91	4.04	5.27
	Older Worker	5.18	4.35	5.00	3.93

¹ Scoring see Chapter III, page 66 or Appendix C.

TABLE XXIII
 MEAN SCORES OF JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS COMPARING
 YOUNGER AND OLDER WORKERS BY NUMBER OF
 YEARS IN POSITION

Number of Years in Position		Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions			
		Perform- ance Capacity	Potential for Deve- lopment	Stability	Inter- personal Skills
Present Job N = 29	Younger Worker	5.00 ¹	5.09	5.03	5.03
	Older Worker	4.61	5.39	4.84	5.04
Administra- tive Dietetics N = 29	Younger Worker	4.97	5.45	5.07	4.97
	Older Worker	4.88	5.27	5.28	4.88
General Dietetics N = 29	Younger Worker	5.15	5.10	4.96	5.11
	Older Worker	5.37	5.50	5.21	5.55

¹ Scoring see Chapter III, page 66 or Appendix C.

Dietetians' Perception Under Each
Institutional Variable

Institution Size

Respondents from large institution (greater than 1000 beds) tended to score younger and older workers equally in performance capacity and potential for development, but the scores of older workers tended to be higher on stability and lower on interpersonal skills. Respondents from medium size institution (500-1000 beds) tended to score younger and older workers the same way, but older workers tended to be higher on stability and interpersonal scores. Respondents from smaller institutions (less than 500 beds) tended to score older workers lower on all four dimensions (Table XXIV). Institution size did affect significantly ($p = 0.05$) the stability and interpersonal skills score but not the performance capacity and potential for development scores (Tables XXV and XXVI). Differences in means for young and old workers on the four job related dimensions by institution size are shown in Table XXVII.

Type of Facility

Respondents in full service facility scored older workers lower on performance capacity and potential for development, but score higher on stability and interpersonal skills. Respondents in community hospital tended to score older workers

TABLE XXIV
 MEAN SCORES OF JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS COMPARING
 YOUNGER AND OLDER WORKERS BY
 INSTITUTION SIZE

Institution Size		Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions	Perform- ance Capacity	Potential for Deve- lopment	Stability	Inter- personal Skills
Large (~1000) N = 7	Younger Worker	5.40 ¹	5.02	4.99	5.32	
	Older Worker	5.22	4.96	5.97	5.09	
Medium (500-1000) N = 17	Younger Worker	4.93	5.02	5.12	5.20	
	Older Worker	5.21	4.83	6.53	5.80	
Small (~500) N = 2	Younger Worker	4.71	4.78	5.14	5.62	
	Older Worker	4.61	4.33	4.98	3.71	

¹ Scoring see Chapter III, page 66 or Appendix C.

TABLE XXV
 DIFFERENCES IN MEANS FOR YOUNG AND OLD WORKERS
 ON THE JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS
 BY INSTITUTION SIZE

Institution Size	Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions			
	Perform- ance Capacity	Potential for Deve- lopment	Stability	Inter- personal Skills
Large-small	0.0544	-0.1449	-1.1458	-1.4556
Large-medium	0.38	0.4058	0.3734	0.5009
Small-large	-0.0544	0.1449	1.1458	1.4556
Small-medium	0.3286	0.5507	1.5192*	1.9564*
Medium-large	-0.3830	-0.4058	-0.3734	-1.9564
Medium-small	-0.3286	-0.5507	-1.5192*	-1.9564*

*Comparison significant at the 0.05 level is indicated.

TABLE XXVI
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE FOR INSTITUTION
SIZE: STABILITY SCORES

Source	DF	Sum of Square	Mean Square	F-Value	Observed Significant Level
Stability	2	5.67	2.83	3.10	0.0561
Error	21	19.19	0.91		
Corrected Total	23	24.86			

TABLE XXVII
ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TABLE FOR INSTITUTION
SIZE: INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

Source	DF	Sum of Square	Mean Square	F-Value	Observed Significant Level
Interpersonal Skills	2	11.72	5.86	3.66	0.0441
Error	20	31.97	1.50		
Corrected Total	22	43.69			

lower on all four dimensions. Respondents in long care term hospital scored older workers higher on performance capacity, potential for development and stability, but lower on interpersonal skills. Respondents in university medical center scored older workers higher on performance capacity, potential for development and interpersonal skills, but lower on stability. Other respondents score older workers higher on all four dimensions (Table XXVIII). Type of facility variable did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect any of the four dimension scores.

Financial Goal of Institution

Respondents in profit making institutions tended to score older workers higher on performance capacity, potential for development and stability, but lower in interpersonal skills. Respondents in non-profit making institution score older workers higher on performance capacity, stability and interpersonal skills but lower on potential for development (Table XXIX). Financial goal of institution as a variable did not affect significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect the four dimension scores.

State of Residence

Respondents from the state of Alabama scored older workers higher on stability, but lower on performance capacity, potential for development and interpersonal skills.

TABLE XXVIII
 MEAN SCORES OF JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS COMPARING
 YOUNGER AND OLDER WORKERS BY TYPE
 OF FACILITY OF INSTITUTION

Type of Facility		Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions			
		Perform- ance Capacity	Potential for Deve- lopment	Stability	Inter- personal Skills
Full- Service N = 13	Younger Worker	5.23 ¹	5.23	5.16	5.22
	Older Worker	5.15	4.63	6.43	5.33
Community Hospital N = 1	Younger Worker	4.43	3.87	5.08	4.67
	Older Worker	2.71	2.57	4.92	No Response
Long-term Care N = 3	Younger Worker	4.90	4.52	5.23	6.10
	Older Worker	5.83	5.38	6.03	4.89
University Medical Center N = 1	Younger Worker	5.07	5.09	4.67	5.27
	Older Worker	4.93	4.35	6.08	4.73
Other N = 8	Younger Worker	4.86	5.10	4.96	5.03
	Older Worker	5.31	5.18	6.09	5.68

¹ Scoring see Chapter III, page 66 or Appendix C.

TABLE XXIX
 MEAN SCORES OF JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS COMPARING
 YOUNGER AND OLDER WORKERS BY FINANCIAL
 GOAL OF INSTITUTION

Financial Goal of Institution		Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions			
		Perform- ance Capacity	Potential for Deve- lopment	Stability	Inter- personal Skills
Profit Making N = 1	Younger Worker	4.93 ¹	2.74	3.42	5.40
	Older Worker	5.14	3.70	5.50	4.23
Non-Profit N = 25	Younger Worker	5.05	5.10	5.15	5.28
	Older Worker	5.17	4.87	6.24	5.43

¹ Scoring see Chapter III, page 66 or Appendix C.

Respondents from California scored older workers higher on all four dimensions, while respondents from Florida scored older and younger workers almost the same on all four dimensions. Respondents from Mississippi tended to score older workers higher on all four dimensions, while respondents from North Carolina scored older and younger workers equally with the exception of stability, where older workers scored higher. Oklahoma respondents tended to score older workers higher on all four dimensions. In contrast, respondents from Tennessee scored older workers lower on all four dimensions. Texas respondents scored older workers lower on performance capacity and potential for development, but higher on stability and interpersonal skills (Table XXX). State of residence did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect the four dimension scores. On Table XXXI stability shows a significant difference ($p = 0.05$) on the scores of Tennessee comparing with the other seven states. Tennessee scored younger workers higher on stability while the other seven states (Alabama, California, Florida, Mississippi, N. Carolina, Oklahoma and Texas) tended to score older workers higher on stability. Tennessee scored younger workers higher on interpersonal skills while three states (Mississippi, Oklahoma and Texas) scored older workers higher on interpersonal skills significantly at $p = 0.05$.

TABLE XXX
 MEAN SCORES OF JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS COMPARING
 YOUNGER AND OLDER WORKERS BY STATE
 OF RESIDENCE OF RESPONDENTS

State of Residence		Mean Scores of Job Related Dimensions			
		Performance Capacity	Potential for Development	Stability	Interpersonal skills
Alabama N = 1	Younger Worker	6.57 ¹	7.13	6.33	6.13
	Older Worker	6.21	5.30	7.17	6.00
California N = 1	Younger Worker	4.71	5.35	5.08	5.80
	Older Worker	6.29	5.83	6.83	6.60
Florida N = 4	Younger Worker	4.95	4.57	4.60	5.40
	Older Worker	4.96	4.88	5.47	4.75
Mississippi N = 3	Younger Worker	5.07	5.04	5.36	5.13
	Older Worker	5.79	5.52	6.44	5.78
North Carolina N = 3	Younger Worker	4.98	5.01	5.33	5.04
	Older Worker	4.90	4.84	6.86	5.42
Oklahoma N = 4	Younger Worker	4.18	4.14	4.17	4.68
	Older Worker	4.77	4.24	6.04	5.08
Tennessee N = 2	Younger Worker	5.71	4.91	6.67	6.47
	Older Worker	5.36	4.04	5.58	4.17
Texas N = 8	Younger Worker	5.21	5.24	5.10	5.21
	Older Worker	5.00	4.71	6.31	5.69

¹ Scoring scale is given in Table I, page 66 or Appendix C.

TABLE XXXI

DIFFERENCES IN MEANS BY YOUNG AND OLD WORKERS
ON EACH JOB RELATED DIMENSIONS
BY STATE OF INSTITUTION

States	Performance Capacity	Potential for Development	Stability	Interpersonal Skills
TX-AL	0.1122	-1.2981	-0.3750	2.7073
TX-TN	0.1122	-0.3461	-3.6250*	-0.2476*
TX-NC	0.3980	0.3540	0.3194	2.1031
TX-FL	0.4872	0.2381	-0.5417	1.6142
TX-OK	1.0587	0.8033	0.3194	1.9411
TX-MS	1.1837	1.0062	-0.1250	2.3698
TX-CA	2.0408	1.0062	0.5417	3.6406
AL-TX	-0.1122	1.2981	0.3750	0.5222
AL-TN	0.0000	0.9565	-3.2500*	-2.1667
AL-NC	0.2857	1.6522	0.6944	0.5111
AL-FL	0.3750	1.5362	-0.1667	0.0222
AL-OK	0.9464	2.1014	0.6944	0.5333
AL-MS	0.0714	2.3043	0.2500	0.7778
AL-CA	1.9286	2.3043	0.9167	0.9333
TN-TX	-0.1122	0.3416	3.6250*	2.6889*
TN-AL	0.0000	-0.9565	3.2500*	2.1667
TN-NC	0.2857	0.6957	3.9444*	2.6778
TN-FL	0.3750	0.5797	3.0833*	2.1889*
TN-OK	0.9464	1.1449	3.9444*	2.7000*
TN-MS	1.0714	1.3478	3.5000*	2.9444*
TN-CA	1.9286	1.3478	4.1667*	3.1000
NC-TX	-0.3980	-0.3540	-0.3194	0.0111
NC-AL	-0.2857	-1.6522	-0.6944	-0.5111
NC-TN	-0.2857	-0.6957	-3.9444*	-2.6778
NC-FL	0.0893	-0.1159	-0.8611	-0.4889
NC-OK	0.6607	0.4493	0.0000	0.0222
NC-MS	0.7857	0.6522	-0.4444	0.2667
NC-CA	1.6429	0.6522	0.2222	0.4222
FL-TX	-0.4872	-0.2381	0.5417	0.5000
FL-AL	-0.3750	-1.5362	0.1667	-0.0222
FL-TN	-0.3750	-0.5797	-3.0833*	-2.1889
FL-NC	-0.0893	0.1159	0.8611	0.4889
FL-OK	0.5714	0.5652	0.8611	0.5111
FL-MS	0.6964	0.7681	0.4167	0.7556
FL-CA	1.5536	0.7681	1.0833	0.9111
OK-TX	-1.0587	-0.8033	-0.3194	-0.0111
OK-AL	-0.9464	-2.1014	-0.6944	-0.5333
OK-TN	-0.9464	-1.1449	-3.9444*	-2.7000*
OK-NC	-0.6607	-0.4493	0.0000	-0.0222
OK-FL	-0.5714	-0.5652	-0.8611	-0.5111
OK-MS	0.1250	0.2029	-0.4444	0.2444
OK-CA	0.9821	0.2029	0.2222	0.4000
MS-TX	-1.1837	-1.0062	0.1250	-0.2556
MS-AL	-1.0714	-2.3043	-0.2500	-0.7778
MS-TN	-1.0714	-1.3478	-1.5505*	-2.9444*
MS-NC	-0.7857	-0.6522	0.4444	-0.2667
MS-FL	-0.6964	-0.7681	-0.4167	-0.7556
MS-OK	-0.1250	-0.2029	0.4444	-0.2444
MS-CA	0.8571	-0.0000	0.6667	0.1556
CA-TX	-2.0408	-1.0062	-0.5417	-0.4111
CA-AL	-1.9286	-2.3043	-0.9167	-0.9333
CA-TN	-1.9286	-1.3478	-4.1667*	-3.1000
CA-NC	-1.6429	-0.6522	-0.2222	-0.4228
CA-FL	-1.5536	-0.7681	-1.0833	-0.9111
CA-OK	-0.9821	-0.2029	-0.2222	-0.4000
CA-MS	-0.8571	0.0000	-0.6667	-0.1556

Comparison significant at the 0.05 level is indicated by *.

Testing of Hypotheses

H_1 There will be no significant difference in the performance capacity scores of older workers as compared to younger workers as perceived by dietitians based on personal variables:

1. Age
2. Sex
3. Highest Degree Attained
4. Registration Status
5. Route to ADA Membership
6. Position Title
7. Number of Years in Job.

The personal variables identified in the study did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect dietitians' perception: performance capacity scores; hence, the researcher failed to reject H_1 .

H_2 There will be no significant difference in the potential for development scores of older workers as compared to younger workers as perceived by dietitians based on personal variables as in H_1 .

The personal variables of age, sex, registration status, route to ADA membership, position title and number of years in job did not significantly affect dietitians' perception: potential for development scores; however, the variable highest degree did significantly affect ($p = 0.005$) potential for development scores, therefore, the researcher

rejected H_2 .

H_3 There will be no significant difference in the stability scores of older workers as compared to younger worker as perceived by dietitians based on personal variables as in H_1 .

The personal variables identified in the study did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect dietitians' perception: stability scores; hence, the researcher failed to reject H_3 .

H_4 There will be no significant difference in the interpersonal skills scores of older workers as compared to younger workers as perceived by dietitians based on personal variables as in H_1 .

The personal variables identified in the study did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect dietitians' perception: interpersonal skills scores; hence, the researcher failed to reject H_4 .

H_5 There will be no significant difference in the performance capacity scores of older workers as compared to younger workers as perceived by dietitians based on institutional variables:

1. Institution Size
2. Type of Facility
3. Financial Goal
4. State Where Institution is Located.

The institutional variables identified in the study did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect dietitians' perception: performance capacity scores; hence, the researcher failed to

reject H_5 .

H_6 There will be no significant difference in the potential for development scores of older workers as compared to younger workers based on selected institution variables as in H_5 .

The institutional variables identified in the study did not significantly ($p = 0.05$) affect dietitians' perception: potential development scores; hence, the researcher failed to reject H_6 .

H_7 There will be no significant difference in the stability scores of older workers as compared to younger workers based on selected institution variables as in H_5 .

The institutional variables of type, goal, and state did not significantly affect dietitians' perception: stability scores; however, the variable size did significantly affect ($p = 0.056$) stability scores; therefore, the researcher rejected H_7 .

H_8 There will be no significant difference in the interpersonal skills scores of older workers as compared to younger workers based on selected institution variables as in H_5 .

The institutional variables of type, goal, and state did not significantly affect dietitians' perception: interpersonal scores; however, the variable institution size did significantly affect ($p = 0.044$) interpersonal skills scores; therefore, the researcher rejected H_8 .

Summary of Results

This study was compared with the findings of Benson and Jerdee (1976). In Benson and Jerdee's study, performance capacity score of younger workers was significantly higher than the mean rating of the older workers. In the researcher's study older workers were slightly higher than the mean rating of the younger counterpart, and this pattern was consistent over each of the 14 items in this dimension.

Potential for development. Benson and Jerdee's study suggest that the mean rating on this scale was significant again in favor of the younger counterpart. The researcher's study had the same result. More dietitians rated the younger workers higher than their older counterpart.

Stability. Rating on this dimension on Benson and Jerdee's study significantly favored the older individual. In the researcher's study the same result was seen. Older workers were seen as more reliable, and dependable, more honest and trustworthy and less likely to quit or to miss work for personal reasons.

Interpersonal skills. The difference in means for this scale in Benson and Jerdee's study was not significant. The younger man was rated higher on some components of interpersonal skills, and the older man was rated higher on others. The interpersonal skills scores in the present study were in agreement with the Benson and Jerdee's results.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

There are numerous studies in the literature on the older workers' stereotypes, but none at all on older foodservice workers. The intent of this research was to determine dietitians' perception of older workers' job performance in a foodservice facility. Eight hypotheses were postulated to determine if selected personal and work related variables affected dietitians' perceptions of older workers in the foodservice facility.

During summer semester, 1985, research instruments which had been utilized in measuring older workers' stereotyping by various age groups were located. Two of these instruments were: Attitudes Toward Older Workers (Tuckman and Lorge, 1982) and Job Related Stereotypes (Rosen and Jerdee, 1976). The most carefully constructed and reliable instrument to measure dietitians' perception of older workers was the Job Related Age Stereotypes questionnaire, which encompassed four dimensions: performance capacity, potential for development, stability and interpersonal skills. A survey instrument was then developed to incorporate the Job Related Age Stereotypes.

The sample used (hospitals) was selected from the 1983

American Hospital Association directory. The sample includes only those hospitals with 500 or more beds which are located in the sunbelt region: Alabama, Arkansas, Arizona, California, Florida, Georgia, New Mexico, Nevada, North Carolina, Mississippi, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee and Texas. Data obtained from the 29 usable questionnaires were analyzed using frequencies, percentages, F-test, ANOVA and Duncan Multiple Range Test.

Summary

Characteristics of Respondents

About three-fourths of the respondents were 40-59 years of age, while one-fourth were 20-39 and 60 and over years of age. Twenty six of the 29 respondents were females and three were males. Fifteen of the respondents had bachelor of science degree and 13 had attained master's degrees.

Nineteen of the respondents were registered dietitians, while seven were non-registered. Sixteen of the respondents' routes to ADA membership was the dietetic internship, while seven became ADA members via the masters degree plus six months of work experience or three years of pre-planned work experience. The remaining four respondents completed either a traineeship or CUP.

The predominant position title of the respondents was that of director. Respondents under "Other" included: Food service managers and chief of dietetic services. Other

position titles included: assistant director, administrative and generalist dietitian, and consultant.

A little over half of the respondents worked in their present jobs from less than one to five years; the remaining worked from 6 to 10 years, and 11 or more years. One-third worked in administrative dietetics from less than one year to five years; the other two thirds, from 6 to 10 years and 11 or more as administrative dietitians. More than one-half worked in general dietetics for less than one to five years; the other half from 6 to 10 years and 11 or more year as general dietitians.

Characteristics of the Institutions

Dietitians in this study worked predominantly in 500-999 beds hospital. Nine of the respondents worked on 1,000 or more beds hospital and the rest worked in below 500 beds hospital. Thirteen respondents worked in full-service hospital with out-patient department. Six worked under "Other" which included V.A. Medical Center and State Mental Hospital. Seven other respondents worked in long-term care hospital or community hospital with limited out-patient department or university medical center. Ninety percent of the respondents were employed in non-profit institutions, and the remainder worked in profit making institutions.

The workplace of the respondents were predominantly located in the state of Texas. Nine respondents worked in the state of Florida or Oklahoma, while the other respond-

ents worked in the state of Mississippi, North Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama or California.

Dietitians' Perceptions of Older Workers

Younger dietitians tended to score the younger workers higher on performance capacity and potential for development and lower on the other dimensions. Older dietitians tended to favor older workers on all four dimensions. Female dietitians tended to score older workers higher on performance capacity and stability and lower on potential for development and interpersonal skills. In contrast, male dietitians tended to score older workers higher on three dimensions except for potential for development, which was lower. Dietitians with a Bachelor of Science degree tended to score older workers higher on all four dimensions and dietitians with Masters degree scored older workers lower on three dimensions except on stability which was higher.

Registered dietitians tended to score older workers higher on performance capacity, stability and interpersonal skills and lower on potential for development. Non-registered dietitians scored older workers higher on performance capacity, potential for development and stability and lower on interpersonal skills. Dietitians who had internship and CUP as route to ADA membership tended to score both the young and older workers equally. Dietitians with traineeship tended to score older workers higher on stability and interpersonal skills and lower on performance

capacity and potential for development. Dietitians with three years pre-planned work experience scored the younger and older workers equally, except for interpersonal skills. Dietitians with Masters degree plus six months work experience tended to score older workers higher on three dimensions and lower on stability.

Dietitians who are directors and assistant directors tended to score younger and older workers equally with an exception on interpersonal skills. Directors tended to score older workers favorably higher than did assistant directors. Dietitians who are administrative dietitians scored older workers higher on all four dimensions. Generalist dietitians scored older employees lower on performance capacity and potential for development and gave an equal score to older and younger workers on interpersonal skills. Dietitians who marked "Others" as position title scored older workers higher on potential for development and stability, but lower on performance capacity and interpersonal skills. Respondents in present job, administrative and general dietetics tended to score both young and older workers equally.

Dietitians from large institution tended to score younger and older workers equally on performance capacity and potential for development. The score of older workers tended to be higher on stability and lower on interpersonal skills. Dietitians from medium size institution tended to score younger and older workers equally on performance

capacity and potential for development. Older workers tended to be higher on stability and interpersonal scores. Dietitians from small institution tended to score older workers lower on all four dimensions. Dietitians who worked in full service facility scored older workers lower on performance capacity and potential for development, but scored higher on stability and interpersonal skills. In contrast dietitians from community hospital tended to score older workers lower on all four dimensions. Dietitians from long-care term hospital scored older workers higher on three dimensions, except on interpersonal skills, while dietitians from university medical center scored older workers higher on three dimensions, but lower on stability.

Dietitians from profit making institution tended to score older workers higher on three dimensions and lower on interpersonal skills, while those from non-profit making institution scored older workers higher on three dimensions and lower on potential for development. Dietitians from Alabama scored older workers higher on stability, but lower on three other dimensions. In comparison dietitians from California, Mississippi and Oklahoma tended to score older workers higher on all four dimensions. Dietitians from Florida scored older and younger workers almost the same on all four dimensions while those dietitians from North Carolina scored older and younger workers equally with the exception on stability score, where older workers' scores are higher. Dietitians from Tennessee scored older workers

lower on all four dimensions. Dietitians from Texas scored older workers lower on performance capacity and potential for development, but scored them higher on stability and interpersonal skills.

Testing of Hypotheses

A summary of associations between dietitians' perception of the four dimensions, interpersonal and institutional variables is shown in Table XXXII. The accepted level of significance was $p \sim .15$ except in one instance where $p = .0561$ was considered (Table XXV). Out of the eight hypotheses tested, the researcher rejected three and failed to reject five hypotheses. Discussion is on page 115.

Recommendations

Measures of stereotyping are being utilized, not only in the manufacturing industry, but in the service industry as well. Examples of these are measures of age, experience and performance on speed and skill jobs, attitudes toward older workers, and personality stereotypes of aging workers. Additional work is needed to search for the most carefully constructed, valid, reliable, objective and usable research instrument to measure stereotyping.

The older worker in this study was defined as an individual 65 years and older. Perhaps this older worker should be redefined as those 55 or 60 years and older, since there is now a trend for workers to retire early as alter-

native retirement packages become available (U.S. News and World Report, 1980). Some of the dietitians surveyed did not complete the questionnaire because they did not have employees 65 years and older. Only hospitals with 500 beds or more located in the sunbelt region were surveyed. A follow-up study using a random stratified sample from all hospitals nationwide need to be conducted in order to generate more information on stereotyping of older workers in health care delivery systems.

TABLE XXXII
 SUMMARY OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN DIETITIANS'
 PERCEPTION DIMENSION SCORES AND
 PERSONAL/INSTITUTIONAL
 VARIABLES

Hypothesis	Association Between Dietitians' Perception Dimension & Variables	Observed Level of Significance	Action Taken*
1	Performance Capacity	<u>Personal</u> None	FTR
2	Potential for Development	<u>Personal</u> None	FTR
3	Stability	<u>Personal</u> Higher Degree	0.011 R
4	Interpersonal Skills	<u>Personal</u> None	FTR
5	Performance Capacity	<u>Institutional</u> None	FTR
6	Potential for Development	<u>Institutional</u> None	FTR
7	Stability	<u>Institutional</u> Size	0.056 R
8	Interpersonal Skills	<u>Institutional</u> Size	0.044 R

*R = Reject

FTR = Failed to Reject

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
CORRESPONDENCE



Oklahoma State University

Department of Food, Nutrition and Institution Administration

425 HOME ECONOMICS WEST
STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078
(405) 624-5039

September 27, 1985

Dear Director:

May we please request your assistance on a research project we are conducting in the Department of Food, Nutrition and Institution Administration at Oklahoma State University. The study is concerned with Dietitians perceptions of older workers in the foodservice industry in the southern region of the United States with some comparison to younger workers.

This survey includes questions on the following stereotypical statements: Potential for development, Performance capacity, Stability and Interpersonal skills. Information gained from this study will be of assistance to all dietitians in their perceptions of all working relationships with their older workers.

If your position is other than that of the Director or Chief dietitian, will you please direct the questionnaire to the person in your institution in that position. A summary of the findings will be shared with you upon request. The forms are coded for analysis only, composite results will be discussed and will not identify any person or institution in any way. After completing the questionnaire, please fold, staple and return it to us. Please return on or before Oct. 15, 1985. This questionnaire takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. If you have any questions, please call us at (405) 624-5039. Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Lea L. Ebro, Ph.D., R.D.
Professor

Vangie Ramos
Graduate Student &
ADA Member



Oklahoma State University

Department of Food, Nutrition and Institution Administration

425 HOME ECONOMICS WEST
STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078
(405) 624-5039

October 31, 1985

Dear Director:

May we please request your assistance on a research project we are conducting in the Department of Food, Nutrition and Institution Administration at Oklahoma State University. The study is concerned with Dietitians perceptions of older workers in the foodservice industry in the southern region of the United States with some comparison to younger workers.

This survey includes questions on the following stereotypical statements: Potential for development, Performance capacity, Stability and Interpersonal skills. Information gained from this study will be of assistance to all dietitians in their perceptions of all working relationships with their older workers.

If your position is other than that of the Director or Chief dietitian, will you please direct the questionnaire to the person in your institution in that position. A summary of the findings will be shared with you upon request. The forms are coded for analysis only, composite results will be discussed and will not identify any person or institution in any way. After completing the questionnaire, please fold, staple and return it to us. Last month I sent you a questionnaire. Due to some difficulty in the postal office please disregard the due date on the previous questionnaire. Please fill out this survey as soon as possible and send it to me before November 16, 1985. This questionnaire takes approximately 20 minutes to complete. If you have any questions, please call us at (405) 624-5039. Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Lea L. Ebro

Lea L. Ebro, Ph.D., R.D.
Professor

Vangie Ramos

Vangie Ramos
Graduate Student &
ADA Member

APPENDIX B

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Directions: Descriptive terms applying to workers in general are listed below. Think about all your employees, first those who are 30 and younger and then those who are 65 years and older. Then rate them according to the following description in bipolar scale. Circle the appropriate number from 0- not at all accurate to 9- very accurate. Please answer all questions.

	<u>30 & younger</u>									<u>65 & older</u>										
	not at all accurate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 very accurate	not at all accurate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 very accurate
1. Energetic	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. Impulsive	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. Interested in more responsibility	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Sarcastic	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. Willing to gamble	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Manipulative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Likely to quit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. Interested in getting ahead	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. Motivated	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. Productive	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. Healthy	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. Critical of others	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. Steady	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14. Adventurous	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. Innovative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
16. Capable of learning	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
17. Reliable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18. Dependable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19. Able to exert leadership	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20. Assertive	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	<u>30 & younger</u>									<u>65 & older</u>										
	not at all					very				not at all					very					
	accurate					accurate				accurate					accurate					
21. Creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
22. Mentally alert	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
23. Careful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
24. Trustworthy	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
25. Future oriented	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
26. Senile	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
27. Helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
28. Blunt	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
29. Concern with appearance	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
30. Dogmatic	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
31. Stable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
32. Effective in group situations	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
33. Ambitious	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
34. Sets long-range goals	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
35. Cranky	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
36. Capable of working effectively with co-workers	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
37. Prone to absenteeism	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
38. Vigorous	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
39. Confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
40. Accident prone	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
41. Accurate	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
42. Open to criticism	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
43. Co-operative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
44. Conscientious	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	<u>30 & younger</u>									<u>65 & older</u>										
	not at all accurate								very accurate	not at all accurate								very accurate		
45. Willing to keep up with new developments	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
46. Interested in learning	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
47. Efficient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
48. Receptive to new ideas	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
49. Reasonable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
50. Aware of others' feelings	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
51. Subjective	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
52. Approachable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
53. Emotional	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
54. Versatile	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
55. Rigid	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
56. Able to work under pressure	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
57. Easily upset	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
58. Adaptable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
59. Nervous	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
60. Logical problem solving	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
61. Honest	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
62. Eager to achieve	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
63. Independent	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
64. Aggressive	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE ANSWER KEY

Directions: Descriptive terms applying to workers in general are listed below. Think about all your employees, first those who are 30 and younger and then those who are 65 years and older. Then rate them according to the following description in bipolar scale. Circle the appropriate number from 0- not at all accurate to 9- very accurate. Please answer all questions.

	<u>30 & younger</u>										<u>65 & older</u>									
	not at all accurate					very accurate					not at all accurate					very accurate				
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Energetic	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. Impulsive	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. Interested in more responsibility	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. Sarcastic	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. Willing to gamble	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. Manipulative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. Likely to quit	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. Interested in getting ahead	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. Motivated	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. Productive	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. Healthy	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. Critical of others	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. Steady	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14. Adventurous	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. Innovative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
16. Capable of learning	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
17. Reliable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18. Dependable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19. Able to exert leadership	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20. Assertive	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	<u>30 & younger</u>									<u>65 & older</u>										
	not at all accurate					very accurate				not at all accurate					very accurate					
21. Creative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
22. Mentally alert	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
23. Careful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
24. Trustworthy	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
25. Future oriented	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
26. Senile	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
27. Helpful	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
28. Blunt	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
29. Concern with appearance	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
30. Dogmatic	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
31. Stable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
32. Effective in group situations	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
33. Ambitious	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
34. Sets long-range goals	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
35. Cranky	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
36. Capable of working effectively with co- workers	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
37. Prone to absenteeism	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
38. Vigorous	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
39. Confident	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
40. Accident prone	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
41. Accurate	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
42. Open to criticism	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
43. Co-operative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
44. Conscientious	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	<u>30 & younger</u>									<u>65 & older</u>										
	not at all accurate					very accurate				not at all accurate					very accurate					
45. Willing to keep up with new developments	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
46. Interested in learning	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
47. Efficient	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
48. Receptive to new ideas	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
49. Reasonable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
50. Aware of others' feelings	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
51. Subjective	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
52. Approachable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
53. Emotional	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
54. Versatile	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
55. Rigid	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
56. Able to work under pressure	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
57. Easily upset	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
58. Adaptable	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
59. Nervous	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
60. Logical problem solving	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
61. Honest	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
62. Eager to achieve	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
63. Independent	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
64. Aggressive	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

APPENDIX D

FOUR DIMENSION KEY

- I. Potential for Development
Interested in more responsibility
Interested in getting ahead
Future oriented
Adventurous
Ambitious
Vigorous
Willing to keep up with new developments
Healthy
Receptive to new ideas
Adaptable
Interested in learning
Eager to achieve
Aggressive
Versatile
Strong
*Nervous
*Easily upset
Confident
Independent
*Dogmatic
*Rigid
*Cranky
*Senile
- II. Performance Capacity
Energetic
Willing to gamble
Motivated
Creative
Innovative
Mentally alert
Concern with appearance
Sets long range goals
Productive
Accurate
Efficient
Able to work under pressure
Logical problem solving
*Accident prone
- III. Stability
*Impulsive
*Likely to quite
*Prone to absenteeism
Steady
*Emotional
Conscientious
Reliable
Careful
Stable
Honest

Dependable
Trustworthy

IV. Interpersonal Skills

*Sarcastic
*Manipulative
Assertive
Effective in group situations
Capable of working effectively with co-workers
Open to criticism
Reasonable
Approachable
*Critical of others
Cooperative
*Subjective
Able to exert leadership
*Blunt
Helpful
Aware of other's feelings

*Negative items

VITA

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