

U.S. Women's Bureau.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

MAURICE J. TOBIN, SECRETARY

WOMEN'S BUREAU

FRIEDA S. MILLER, DIRECTOR

*The Outlook  
for Women  
as  
Food-Service Managers  
and Supervisors*

*Bulletin of the Women's Bureau No. 234-2  
Home Economics Occupations Series*

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No. 234-1 *The Outlook for Women in Dietetics*

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## LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR,  
WOMEN'S BUREAU,  
*Washington, March 14, 1952.*

SIR: I have the honor of transmitting a report on the employment outlook for women graduates of home economics schools as food-service managers and food-service supervisors.

This is the second in a series on home economics occupations, planned and initiated by Marguerite W. Zapoleon, formerly head of the Branch of Employment Opportunities for Women in the Bureau's Division of Research. The first bulletin dealt with the field of dietetics. The present report covers food service in commercial eating places, cafeterias operated by industrial firms for their employees, and college residence halls. This report was prepared by Agnes W. Mitchell under the direction of Mary N. Hilton, Chief, Division of Research.

I want to express appreciation here for the generous cooperation rendered by the many organizations, agencies, and individuals who contributed information and photographs for this study.

Respectfully submitted.

FRIEDA S. MILLER, *Director.*

HON. MAURICE J. TOBIN,  
*Secretary of Labor.*

## FOREWORD

The study of home economics has long been important in training women for their work as homemakers. With the long-time trend in our economy toward the transfer to manufacturing or service industries of many of the functions formerly performed in the home, our colleges of home economics have become of growing importance as a source of managerial and supervisory staff for food-service activities outside the home.

This report on women home economists in commercial, industrial, and college food service, like the report on hospital dietitians, school-lunch managers, and nutritionists (Bull. 234-1), describes the trends in occupations for which training in home economics at the college level prepares women.

In the preparation of these two reports, more than 600 books, pamphlets, and articles were read. But the principal sources of information were persons engaged in food-service management, reached primarily through their organizations, their places of employment, their training centers, and the Government agencies concerned with foods programs.

In the broad field of food service, where home-economics graduates play a role numerically insignificant, it was neither necessary nor feasible to study the occupation as a whole in order to bring to light the many and varied opportunities open to women with suitable educational and personal qualifications. Soundings were taken at strategic spots, and the findings are reported here as a guide to students in home economics, students in business management specializing in foods, and others interested in the possibilities for a career in the food-service field.

Previous reports by the Women's Bureau on employment opportunities for women have dealt with well-defined areas in which one or more professional nonprofit associations were recognized as the authoritative, standard-setting bodies. Two professional organizations, the American Dietetic Association and the American Home Economics Association gave valuable help in approaching the food-service field: Officials and members of the American Dietetic Association were generous in giving their assistance throughout the preparation of the report, and the American Home Economics Association cooperated with the Bureau in a questionnaire survey of its members.

The other organization whose assistance proved most helpful is an employer organization, the National Restaurant Association, which through its National, State, and local membership speaks for a substantial portion of the restaurant managers and executives in the country.

Authorities connected with 14 colleges and universities were also consulted, as well as a number of hotel managers, concessionaires, and industrial employers operating employee cafeterias.

Sources for the series include:

Twenty other organizations, such as the School Food Service Association, the College and University Food Service Institute, the International Stewards' and Caterers' Association, the Industrial Cafeteria Executive Association, the Food and Nutrition Section of the American Public Health Association, and the American Hospital Association.

Twenty-four training centers, including internship and apprenticeship courses and foods and institution-management programs.

Twenty-eight hospitals, especially in the preparation of the bulletin on dietetics.

Thirty Government agencies, including 2 international organizations, 4 State health departments, and 24 Federal agencies. In preparing the present report, special help, including access to unpublished materials, was received from the Department of Agriculture, the Federal Security Agency, and the Bureau of the Census in the Department of Commerce.

To these contributors the Bureau is indebted for the raw material which made this report possible.

The Bureau is grateful to the following for the illustrations used:

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## DEFINITIONS

### From the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (44)

**Chef (hotel and restaurant) II. 2-26.31; cook, chief; kitchen chef.**

Estimates consumption of food and orders foodstuffs, and plans menus. Supervises and usually assists the several cooks to prepare meats, soups, sauces, vegetables, and other foods. May decide size of food portions. May portion orders and cut meats. Works in a small establishment not employing a number of skilled specialists. In large establishments, the worker's duties are typically limited to supervising cooks and buying food. When this occurs, he is classifiable as executive chef. May be designated according to department worked in, as grill chef II.

**Executive Chef (hotel and restaurant) 2-26.01; chef; chef de cuisine; chef, head; chef, managing; dietitian; manager, food production; manager, kitchen; manager, lunch.**

Plans meals for large hotel or restaurant. Supervises and coordinates the work of chefs, cooks, and other kitchen employees, seeing that food preparation is economical and technically correct. Requisitions food supplies. May be responsible for the profitable operation of the food-preparation department. In some establishments may supervise a steward and in others may cooperate with a steward or maitre d'hotel II in matters pertaining to the kitchen, pantry, and storeroom.

**Kitchen Supervisor (hotel and restaurant) 2-25.41; manager, kitchen.**

Acts for restaurant manager in matters pertaining to the kitchen: Supervises noncooking personnel, such as dishwashers and kitchen helpers, and exercises general supervision over the various cooks. Plans in consultation with the manager, if the latter makes up the menu, for the utilization of food surpluses or leftovers. May buy food and make up the menus on own initiative, pricing the food and planning dietetically correct table d'hote meals (dietitian, prof. and kin.); apportions number of servings which must be made from any vegetable, meat, beverage, and dessert to keep the cost of that particular item within the percentage allowed for it in the cost of a given meal. This job typically occurs in restaurants and cafeterias as opposed to steward, which occurs typically in hotels.

**Manager Assistant, Kitchen (hotel and restaurant) 2-25.42; dietitian, junior.**

Supervises the preparation of food in one or more departments of a cafeteria or restaurant kitchen, performing duties such as checking supplies received and cooked foods issued to serving counters against requisitions, taking inventories of supplies, requisitioning additional supplies, approving orders for food from serving counters and transmitting them to cooks, keeping time records, and calculating the price that should be charged on menus for food items. May assist kitchen supervisor to plan menus.

**Manager, Catering (hotel and restaurant) 0-71.15; caterer; maitre d'hotel; manager, food.**

Supervises generally serving of food, making arrangements for banquets, selling food service, and handling complaints in a large hotel or restaurant of formal type. May be responsible for the profitable operation of food-serving department.

**Manager, Industrial Cafeteria (hotel and restaurant) 0-71.22.**

Plans and directs preparation and serving of balanced meals to employees of an industrial plant: Plans daily menus to accommodate employees of all shifts, keeping expenses within a prescribed budget. Maintains an adequate supply and oversees storage and issuance of supplies. Supervises subordinates and delegates work relating to food preparation, serving of meals, and cleaning of kitchen and dining room. Keeps records and makes reports of expenditures. Cooperates with industrial nurse and head physician, in providing special diets for employees requiring individual attention. Keeps informed on prevailing trends in nutrition and diet and obtains and distributes pamphlets on food and health habits to employees.

**Manager, Restaurant or Coffee Shop (hotel and restaurant) 0-71.23; manager, coffee shop or restaurant; manager, dining room.**

Supervises, instructs, and assigns duties to employees of restaurant or dining room. Employs and discharges subordinates. Estimates foodstuffs and staples needed, and requisitions or purchases them. Makes bank deposits. Cooperates with chef II in planning menus. Adjusts complaints concerning food or service. Keeps time and production records.

**Sous Chef (hotel and restaurant) 2-26.02; chef assistant; chef, under; executive-chef assistant; supervising-chef assistant.**

Assists executive chef in supervising the preparation and cooking of foodstuffs. Inspects food for sizes of portions and garnishing. May assist in cooking for banquets or other social functions.



Figure 1. Food-service employees are at their stations in a commercial restaurant while the food-service manager stands at the end of the counter.

# The Outlook for Women as FOOD-SERVICE MANAGERS AND SUPERVISORS

## THE SETTING

This study of quantity food service is limited to commercial and industrial establishments and colleges. Hospital dietitians and school lunch service managers have been treated in an earlier bulletin in this series. Persons in charge of quantity food service have a number of different designations, as indicated in the preceding definitions from the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, because this is a rapidly expanding field in which titles have not been standardized. The most popular terms seem to be those of food-service manager and food-service supervisor. In a 1951 survey of almost 100 Washington, D. C., home economists in commercial and industrial restaurant work, it was found that only one was known as a dietitian. The food-service manager's duties differ very little from those of the administrative dietitian in a large hospital who has charge of the food service for the staff and the hospital employees.

### In Commercial Restaurants

No reliable information is available on the number of trained food managers and supervisors employed over the country. The 1948 Census of Business, Volume III, Retail Trade, gives some basic data on retail stores classified as eating and drinking places: In the 194,000 eating places (restaurants, cafeterias, caterers, lunch counters, and refreshment stands) there were 968,000 employees and 339,000 active proprietors and unpaid family workers (43). To get an idea what proportion of food-service workers are women, it is necessary to go back to the 1940 census. At that time there were 273,000 "proprietors, managers, and officials" of eating and drinking places, of whom 66,000 or slightly less than one-fourth, were women; there were also 673,000 cooks and waiters or waitresses not in private homes; 539,000 of these, or four-fifths, were women.

Only a small number of the managerial and supervisory group are women with college training followed by the internship or apprenticeship. One official in the National Restaurant Association estimated

that at least 2,000 trained food-service managers and supervisors, nearly all of them women, were employed in the United States in commercial and industrial feeding in 1950; and a person familiar with colleges believed about 1,000 were working in colleges and universities. An estimate of 3,000 for the country, on that basis, would seem to be conservative.

The typical food-service manager or supervisor in larger organizations must coordinate a number of factors to provide the desired service. One important phase is the preparation of menus, usually planned for the period of a week and sometimes for 3 to 4 weeks in advance, possibly during consultation with other members of the organization. The next step is the purchasing or requisitioning of food, supplies, and equipment in large quantities, taking into consideration quality, price, seasonability, inventory on hand, and use of left-over food. Order lists are prepared together with food production sheets showing all menu items with the amounts needed. Standard recipes and instructions must be available. Often different menus are required for different groups of persons being served during one meal period in the same organization. Provision must be made for the delivery of the food, the checking of the food for quality and price, the storage and issuance of food and supplies, and the upkeep of materials and equipment.

Then the food preparation must be carefully supervised. The actual cooking is delegated to various employees, but the food-service supervisor assumes final responsibility for the appearance, texture, and flavor of the finished product and may take a hand in actual preparation when the need arises. However, in general, duties are confined to the supervision of the work procedure in the food production units.

Following the preparation of the food, the serving is a vital part of the food-service manager's function. If there are counter displays, as in a cafeteria, the manager must plan them, direct the arrangement of food to make it attractive, and arrange for the speed of the service. Standard portions must be determined, the necessary serving equipment selected, and servers instructed on portion size and plate arrangement. During the entire serving period, counters must be checked to be certain that food is replenished and that the surroundings are clean and attractive. At the close of the serving period, left-over food must be considered and its disposition directed.

The accounting and the record keeping of the food department are other phases of the work which call for well-organized and precise performance. The manager must standardize the recipes with the purpose of controlling quality, yield, and cost. An adequate food-cost-control system must be developed. Inventory records and accounts of

food costs, not only in the aggregate but for each item served, are computed. Food control sheets with a record of the quantity produced and the amount left over are also important. Often the manager is directed to operate within a specified budget or to show a certain profit. Sales and customer counts, food cost and labor cost percentages, market price lists, and weekly and monthly inventories are a part of this job.

Since to carry on this schedule implies the functioning of a harmonious working force, the maintenance of good employee relationships is also important. Each employee should be interviewed by the manager at the time of hiring to determine his interests and experience. He should be taught proper methods and standards for food service in the job best fitted to his ability. The manager usually hires and recommends for transfer, promotion, and dismissal. Food handling, the operation of dishwashing, the care of equipment, and the house-keeping in general in the food department call for careful supervision and good cooperation on the part of the kitchen and dining room personnel. Motion pictures for training food-service personnel are available for the manager's use (28). The manager finds time to listen to employee problems and suggestions. One of the most exacting tasks in this kind of work, which calls for experience of a high order, is the scheduling of the working period of each employee so that no conflicts arise, the time of each worker is adequately filled without undue haste, and none is inactive on the job.

Sometimes the work is further complicated for the manager by having student apprentices or part-time helpers on the work force. They must be given special attention and, in some cases, classes must be held for their training. Other duties of the manager include the recommendation of repairs or replacements of equipment as they become necessary. The manager also is expected to please the patrons and in every possible manner promote better nutrition. Such a variety of duties calls for a well-trained and experienced person, able to perform all phases of this complex but interesting work.

Probably the greatest number of food-service managers are in commercial food establishments. This industry was said to serve 60 million meals daily in 1949 (23). Commercial food-service managers must have the ability to anticipate the demands of the public and to gain and hold patronage through attractive menus and the satisfactory service of food. They must also realize a profit for the organization by the use of well-organized cost-control methods (10). This results in an anomaly in that the manager or supervisor is rated by the company as a success if a profit is realized while professionally the aim of the trained manager is good nutrition. These managers may operate a restaurant, a cafeteria, or a tea room, or the food service of a club, inn, or hotel, either as the owner or as an employee.

### In Industrial Food Service

The manager or supervisor of industrial food services in a dining room or cafeteria has charge of food service for the employees of a business organization—such as a factory, bank, insurance company, utility company, or other establishment. Industrial feeding has many intangible values which make it a useful management tool. In this work, the top management of the organization determines the financial and administrative policies for the food-service manager who in turn becomes responsible for their execution. The manager is usually given authority commensurate with this responsibility and has access to an executive in the organization whose influence can shape policy when necessary. In some instances the industrial feeding department is a division of the service and health department, under the executive in charge of industrial relations. If the company has a number of cafeterias in several plants in the same neighborhood, the manager may supervise assistant supervisors in the several plants.

Industrial food service is a large and expanding field. It employs thousands of workers, of whom a large proportion are women. It has the shortest hours, generally speaking, of any branch of the restaurant business. Top salaries for supervisors and managers compare favorably with those in college and hospital food service. Nevertheless, few of the employee cafeterias supplying information on this point utilized trained women managers, and many firms were dubious as to the desirability of employing them.

The industrial food-service manager must adhere to the financial budget as directed by the management. The policy in industrial food service differs from that of commercial feeding with its profit motive because food service in industry is usually considered a factor in good industrial relations and an adjunct to efficient production. Some companies operate their food service at a deficit and feel that this is a worthwhile investment in good will; some donate the use of dining space and kitchens without charging this to the expenses of operation of the food department; others expect the housing expenses to be covered by the income from the food department. In at least one large company, meals are furnished without cost to the employees. All of these varying policies are of vital interest to the food-service manager, who must regulate the financial control accordingly.

In factories, food service may include cafeterias, restaurants, canteens, lunchrooms with sandwiches and packaged goods but no hot foods, mobile canteens—sometimes with hot foods—dispensing along established routes in the plant, boxed-lunch service, and formal dining rooms for executives. Refrigeration for home-packed lunches of the employees is sometimes provided in the form of a large grocery type of refrigerator. As a change of scene has been found to be conducive

to enjoyment and good digestion, lunchrooms may be provided, these used perhaps for safety meetings or other gatherings at other times during the day.

### In College Food Service

In the field of college food service the worth of the trained food-service manager seems to be recognized more, on the whole, than in other fields, possibly because employers in this field are likely to value professional training. However, especially in the smaller colleges, employers are sometimes inclined to accept whatever is at hand rather than obtain satisfactory professional personnel in this vital service where the nutrition and health of the students are important. Too often a local cook or an instructor's widow is given preference. Some colleges are served by concessionaires. Occasionally women who "have come up through the ranks" do outstanding work in the college field but they are few in number. College food service may be supervised by the home economics department of the college, by a business director or dean, or be accountable to a combination of them. Colleges are just beginning to realize the importance of controlled food service from considerations both of finance and of student morale. The food-service manager in a college is sometimes called a dietitian so that the parents may know that a qualified person supervises the food.

The food-service manager in smaller colleges, and sometimes in the larger ones, may have varied duties. She may be given professorial rank, teaching classes in institution management or in foods and nutrition along with her job of managing the food service. In small college residence halls she may assume home-management duties. Students, employed as part-time or full-time workers in the dining halls or cafeterias in return for free meals or tuition, may be a complicating factor for the manager in the preparation of reports and the maintenance of the cost accounting system. Under this arrangement, special training programs for these students must be provided to fit them for the particular job which they undertake in the dining room, and split-time schedules may be necessary to permit them to attend their classes. The food-service manager is usually expected to provide catering for special social occasions at the college. The planning and scheduling of such special events is important to the social activities of the college.

In large colleges and universities, the work may be complicated further by the fact that master menus, served simultaneously throughout the campus in the various dining rooms, may not be acceptable. Where thousands are served at each meal, some food-service managers have found that men students like different food from women students, and married couples from single students.

In a 1950 survey of 152 colleges, the relationship of size of food-service department to student enrollment ranged from an average of 4 full-time employees in the kitchens and serving areas for schools with an enrollment of less than 100 students to an average of 120 for schools with an enrollment in excess of 5,000. Part-time student employees working in the food-service departments of these colleges were usually paid from 50 to 75 cents an hour when cash wages were given. In other colleges, they received only free meals. Students' working hours or their amount of earnings were usually limited so that the students' academic performance was protected (17).

## OUTLOOK

Excluding places where the sale of food is secondary to the main business, such as hotels, night clubs, cafeterias operated by industrial plants for their employees, drug stores with fountain service, department stores, and bus terminals, about 194,000 eating places were estimated by the Census Bureau to be in existence in this country in 1948. Many thousands of additional eating places were in operation in the excluded categories and in the college field. With gross sales amounting to nearly 6½ billion dollars and payrolls to 1½ billion dollars in 1948, eating places ranked among the largest retail businesses in the United States (43). An instructor in charge of hotel management courses in a large university predicted that with shorter hours and greater volume, 500,000 additional jobs of all types are likely in the hotel field. This will probably increase the demand for trained food-service managers (24).

Further expansion of the commercial industry is likely, for circumstances—such as the scarcity of servants, the increase in apartment dwelling, the trend toward urban living, and the greater number of women in industry and business—are making people increasingly dependent on restaurants. Moreover, the restaurant business is relatively independent of general business conditions, as people must always eat regardless of depression or prosperity; therefore, a continuous demand exists for persons skilled in restaurant operation.

As restaurant operation emerges as a science, the home economist trained in foods and nutrition is being recognized as a valuable part of that development. Many successful food-production managers today are college graduates who majored in home economics, foods and nutrition (dietetics), or in institution management and who use a scientific approach to the problems of food production. A woman in this work can make practical application of the principles of chemistry, bacteriology, nutrition, accounting, psychology, personnel administration, and many other academic subjects. Such managers are usually well compensated for their services.

Opportunities for trained women far exceed the supply and include key positions in both large and small restaurants. For more than 25 years trained managers have been employed in a few restaurants, but some organizations are just beginning to hire them. This is part of an intensive campaign begun by certain restaurant operators in 1947 to increase efficiency in an effort to lower costs (32). Even one trained person can be of great value in an establishment.

The restaurant owner will find in the future that he has an increasingly discriminating public to satisfy as more nutrition-conscious persons leave the schools of the Nation. He will need a restaurant manager able to provide satisfactory food service, and experienced in merchandising, salesmanship, employee relationships, and food-cost control. In this business, as in most business organizations, human relationships are assuming a more important place. Wise scheduling and planning on the part of the supervisor, as well as employee training, will do much to eliminate friction among the employees and to keep them working steadily and with satisfaction. Skill in maintaining good public relations with the clientele is another challenging phase of the restaurant manager's work.

A woman who is the general manager of a large restaurant chain states that there is a progressive future in the restaurant industry for women who are well prepared in colleges and are trained to meet the needs of the establishment in which they work. They must have a desire to progress professionally and personally. Women supervisors need physical stamina to endure the pace of the business since they are on their feet most of the time. They need to be accurate and have an appreciation for detail. Experienced supervisors find the work fascinating and satisfying.

A college degree, although not indispensable in the restaurant business, will help a woman with a flair for restaurant management to go farther in a shorter period of time. However, there are opportunities in food-service business for the high-school graduate and for those with even less education if they acquire the proper skills and techniques, either on the job or at vocational schools. Occasionally restaurant people beginning in the more routine positions attain a high degree of success.

One executive of a large chain of restaurants in the East has been hiring women with a European background who are food craftsmen rather than professional workers. They lack college training but are expert in food preparation and surpass most American food-service managers in cooking-skills. However, this director was eager to hire a number of trained food-service supervisors and was willing to take graduates from home economics schools and train them in his restaurants. This chain had 45 establishments and at least 33 trained women in 1951. More were needed and would be hired when available.



Figure 2. Manager of industrial restaurant talks over blueprint of proposed new kitchen equipment with a salesman.

Another operator of a chain of restaurants with a large number of trained women on her staff stated that the exceptional woman may be able to do a satisfactory job in restaurant operation without college training if her interest in foods is active and her experience well-rounded. She had several in her employ who had no specialized training but they had been capable pantry supervisors for a period of years. However, they were not considered in the regular progression line for promotion.

As long as restaurant eating is essential to our economy, the home economist will find opportunities in the commercial restaurant industry. A clientele will always be waiting wherever good food is served in clean, pleasant surroundings. The home economist with good training, enthusiasm, vision, and the capacity for sustained effort usually finds satisfaction in this work (23).

The outlook for women in industrial, or employee, food service is generally conceded to be good by persons in this field. Although industrial restaurants decreased somewhat in number in 1948 and 1949, they were on the increase by 1951 as a result of the defense emergency situation (32). One food director believed that better opportunities

exist in the food services for employees in banks, financial institutions, and insurance companies than in manufacturing industries. Some trained women are already in this type of work; during World War II they became more numerous as a result of general expansion of industrial feeding. But the field is large and, on the whole, almost untried as far as women are concerned. The problem in the future is for trained women to sell their profession to industrialists, because they do not enjoy the same professional prestige in the industrial field that they have in the hospital field.

Though in industrial food service the necessity to gain profit is often less marked than in commercial restaurants, because many employers are willing to operate their food services at cost or at a loss, as a service to their workers, the food-service manager, as a result of her training, brings to the service an insight into business-like methods of avoiding waste. Generally, the aim in the industrial field is to provide as much good food as possible to the worker at the lowest cost.

The trained industrial food-service manager often faces a distinct challenge to improve the dietary habits of the workers and their families in the place in which she is employed. Today, when particular stress is being placed upon selection of food, the community responsibilities of the food-service manager are being more fully emphasized. She should keep in close touch with community programs of health and welfare agencies because of the relationship of the worker's food consumption on the job to family eating habits.

College food service differs from commercial and industrial food service in that more emphasis is given to nutritional balance than in other types of restaurants. Also the prices charged the consumer cannot be adjusted quickly in a college if food costs rise, as prices are usually fixed at the beginning of each school semester or quarter. The objective in this service usually is to realize only a small operating surplus. To succeed in college work, in addition to providing attractive meals, a food-service supervisor must have skill in cost accounting, procurement, administration, personnel relations, and the preparation of reports.

The experience of colleges with trained women managers in some instances has been that they concentrate too much on the production phase of the service and overlook cost control. As a result, men have sometimes been placed in charge of procurement and accounting with women carrying on the food preparation.

One university used a force half of men and half of women trained supervisors in charge of the men's dining halls. A university in the Pacific coast area had men trained in accountancy in charge of the administrative phases of the work with trained women functioning in food production, and it was reported that in a number of colleges in the East men have charge of administration and women of food production.

The outlook in college food service is for an expanding demand for some years to come. More colleges are developing dormitory and union systems on their campuses, especially the larger universities and colleges.

A number of women administrators are operating food services successfully. Some are waking up to the fact that they need more emphasis on administrative training and increasing numbers of them attend workshops and refresher courses or take postgraduate work in business administration departments of colleges and universities. This prepares them to cope more adequately with the problems of cost control and other phases of administration.

Schools with home economics or institution management departments state that they receive more requests for persons trained in food service than they can fill and that the requests have greatly increased in number since the close of the war.

With shortages of qualified workers reported in all types of food-service management, the need has arisen to increase the number of students preparing for a career in this field. A conference of food-service managers attending the 1950 annual convention of the National Restaurant Association discussed this problem and agreed that instructors in colleges which teach home economics should join forces with dietitians and food-service managers already engaged in this field to inform the public of the need. In some cases instructors in colleges and high schools need enlightenment, as they tend to speak disparagingly of food service. Some specialists in this field believe that training in institution management in college could be made more adequate by the use of cooperative courses with pay during the training period and by encouraging students to do summer or vacation work in the food-service field to arouse their interest. Schools of home economics could do more promotional work and send out information about this career work. Hospital dietitians and food-service managers could meet with home economics classes to a greater extent and invite girls to visit hospitals and restaurants to make them aware of the possibilities (1).

### DEMAND

In the Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 234-1 on occupational opportunities for women in dietetics, the estimate of 2,000 trained women in the commercial and industrial food-service fields and 2,000 trained women in the college and school lunch food services in 1949 was made after a comprehensive study of these fields. After deducting 1,000 in school lunch work, discussed more fully in the previous bulletin, an estimate of 3,000 women employed in the three types of work covered in this bulletin may be made.

A 1951 study in New York City indicates that there are at least 500 trained women food-service managers in that city alone. Data gathered in the commercial and industrial fields during the present study indicate that chains and single restaurants operating in some 20 cities not including New York City employed over 550 trained women food managers in 1951. These scattered statistics support the estimate of 2,000 trained women in the commercial and industrial food-service fields for the entire Nation.

Relatively few of these trained women are employed in the industrial food-service field. A person experienced in industrial food service estimated that 2 to 3 percent of industrial food-service operations were managed by women in 1949 (although women formed the major part of the total employee personnel engaged in industrial feeding). Only about 1 percent of the companies had menus supervised or prepared by trained women supervisors.

For the estimate of 1,000 trained women in college food service, also, definite information is lacking. About 450 members of the American Dietetic Association and 111 members of the School Lunch Service Association were reported as employed in this field in 1949 (23); but in some cases the same person belonged to both organizations.

### The Commercial Food-Service Field

As there are at least 194,000 commercial eating places without including the college food service, the employee food service or other excluded categories (see p. 6), it is obvious that there are not enough trained women food managers to supervise more than a very small fraction of the quantity feeding in the country (43). Yet a growing group of employers realize the value of the person who has a degree in home economics or in business administration with a major in restaurant management. Those in placement service and employers agree that more trained women could be placed in this work if they were available, because of the continuing expansion of the food-service field in all areas. Persons familiar with the food-service field believe that the demand will be strong for some years.

According to food specialists, some of the larger restaurants and chains make a distinction between two phases of the work in their establishments: Business administration and food service. A man who is a graduate in home economics or business administration may be placed in an administrative job in a large quantity feeding establishment, with duties which include purchasing of supplies and the accounting and cost-control phase of the work. The food-production manager may be a woman, who is paid less than the man.

A 1950 survey in which the Women's Bureau cooperated with the American Home Economics Association covered nearly 7,300 home economists who were members of the American Home Economics As-

sociation, about 40 percent of the total membership. Over 450 persons, or about 6 percent of these home economists, were employed in the food-service field but many of them were hospital dietitians and nutritionists. In the field of institution management, 254 were reported; 37 were employed in commercial restaurants and 5 in hotels.

A partial survey of commercial eating places in Washington, D. C., conducted by the Women's Bureau in 1951, showed that 13 restaurants and chains had 28 trained women food managers supervising a total of almost 1,200 food-service employees. In addition to these, 882 eating places without trained managers reported approximately 9,000 food-service personnel employed. About 600 eating places were excluded from the survey as unlikely to have trained personnel. These were taverns, bakeries, candy stores, bowling alleys, soda fountains, and similar small operations. At this time it was found that 5 hotels in the city employed 6 trained women and 482 other food-service workers while 49 other hotels reported nearly 2,000 workers but no trained workers. Four boarding houses had 4 trained women with 92 food-service employees, but 96 boarding houses with about 400 workers had no trained workers. Of nearly 100 private clubs operating in the city, 21 offered dining service to their patrons, but no trained women were employed in this type of work. Thus at least 38 trained women managers were known to be employed in commercial eating places in that city.

There are various types of commercial food service. Possibly the most common is the restaurant or cafeteria which serves the general public. Cafeterias are increasing rapidly in number; the National Restaurant Association estimated that 26,261 were in operation in 1947 (32). While the available information on the employment of trained personnel in such eating places is very fragmentary, a number of outstanding establishments are known to employ trained food-service managers and supervisors and some, in addition, to train them.

*Restaurants and cafeterias.*—A few examples follow of restaurants and cafeterias concerning which some information was obtained:

A chain of restaurants which has headquarters in the Washington, D. C., area, with 45 units and 3,200 employees in 10 States, reported in 1950 that about 20 trained women food-service managers or supervisors were employed in its establishments. In 1951, 13 trained women were added to the management staff in Washington, D. C. During World War II the turn-over had been very heavy, as many of the employees left to work in munitions plants where the earnings were greater. Since the war, employees have seemed to find the work more satisfactory, as the turn-over has been low, with family responsibilities causing most of the job separations.

A chain of 16 restaurants, located in a number of large population centers in the Midwest and Northeastern part of the country, employed 60 women trained managers on its staff in 1949. The turn-over was normal and for about

one-half of the staff the average length of service was almost 9 years. Marriage was the chief reason for the loss of personnel.

A chain of 13 restaurants in the Chicago area, serving 30,000 meals daily, had 28 trained women supervising 1,000 other employees in 1950. In addition, some who were not college graduates were engaged in supervisory work but were not given consideration for promotion. Administrative positions in this restaurant system were filled by men for the most part; for instance, the buyer was a man. Women were used in many jobs, however, and all supervisors in the food-preparation service were women. The general manager and vice president of the restaurants was a woman who had begun as a food-service apprentice with the organization, following graduation from a home economics college. The person in charge of the menu making had also been an apprentice trainee after having been graduated as a home economist.

However, most of the restaurants in the United States are small (39). In fact, the United States Bureau of the Census estimated that in 1948, 84.5 percent of all commercial eating establishments had gross annual sales of less than \$50,000 and about 75 percent had fewer than six employees. As home economists for the most part prefer supervisory work, they are not likely to work in very small places with few food-service employees where they might be expected to engage in some of the food production routines themselves. This preference limits trained women to medium- and large-sized establishments for the most part where competition is keener and good performance is necessary.

*Hotels.*—Another type of quantity feeding establishment is the hotel. According to the latest figures available there are about 29,000



Figure 3. The dining-room supervisor in a hotel watches as the captain of waitresses instructs a new waitress.

hotels in the country, although not all of them provide meals. The chef or steward is strongly entrenched in hotels, especially in the East, but a few hotels give preference to women.

One large hotel chain with 8 units employed 38 trained women food-service supervisors and had 8 other supervisory personnel who lacked formal training in 1949. This chain had a training system which employed 15 food-service apprentices annually. They received maintenance while in training. After a year they were prepared to become assistant supervisors on a salary basis. The manager of this chain commented upon the change in eating habits of the public in the past generation—a trend toward lighter entree combinations for luncheon and a demand for food cooked in home style. He believed that women were more capable in planning and supervising the preparation of such food.

Some smaller hotels have women managing their food service, but many are not trained personnel. Several colleges scattered over the country give courses in hotel management but reports state that few—about 20 percent of the graduates of one school—remain in hotel or food service. Many go into university or college work (1).

*Department stores.*—Food service for the public in department stores is another type of commercial food service which uses trained women in some instances.

A large store in Washington, D. C., employed seven trained women in 1951. One was the food director and another was the production manager who supervised the centralized kitchen and had charge of the supervisors of the various tea rooms, fountain rooms, and dining rooms in the store. Another acted as hostess, and one was a "swing" employee who moved about as she was needed. The policy of this store was to encourage girls in nutrition courses in home economics colleges to work in the store during the summer vacation, and when they were graduated from college to offer them the first vacancy which arose.

A large department store in Chicago employed six trained food supervisors and three without formal training in 1949. Of the untrained women, one was a college graduate in statistics; the second, also a college graduate, had received her food-service training as a Wave in Navy mess halls; and the third, the kitchen manager, had had no college training but was reported to be an excellent person with "food sense."

Of 10 New York department stores where inquiry was made in 1949, 1 reported employing 3 trained women food supervisors; the other 9 employed untrained personnel. On the whole, it was not customary to employ trained personnel in the New York City stores, but specialists in food-preparation work believed that the trend was toward a greater demand for them there.

*Clubs, inns, tearooms, and camps.*—Other types of commercial work include clubs, inns, tearooms, and recreational camps. Only sporadic information is available on the training of people in charge of such services.

A recent survey of food operations in all YWCA's in New York City showed that half of the managers were graduate home economists. The others had "come up through the ranks" with training in special classes at Hunter, Columbia, or New York Universities in some instances.

In one country club in Texas, a trained woman food-service manager was directing the dining room in 1947 (9).

A YWCA in one of the Eastern cities, operating three private dining rooms, a cafeteria, and a bakery, had a trained woman, a member of the American Dietetic Association, in charge. She had two women assistants, one trained and one untrained.

*Airlines and airports.*—A type of commercial food service which seems to have a certain glamour for the public and for food-service employees is that of the airlines and airports. The use of trained managers in this field varies; some companies use trained women exclusively while others believe that training, other than on the job, is unnecessary.

One company, a subsidiary of a large airline, in 1951 operated 20 airport food services, including restaurants, flight commissaries, and employee cafeterias, with establishments scattered from coast to coast. It provided catering service not only for its parent company but also for most of the other airlines. This company employed 35 trained women as food supervisors, plane packing supervisors, service kitchen supervisors, supply control supervisors, menu-planning supervisors, and dining room supervisors. As only one-third of this number had been employed less than 10 years ago, growth in demand for trained women was indicated. The personnel director stated that he had several positions open, and due to contemplated expansion, he would have additional vacancies from time to time.

The requirements for employment as a supervisor in training in this company included a minimum of 2 years' experience in nonsupervisory commercial food work in addition to a home economics education. When a person was hired, training was given by the company for from 3 months to a year, depending upon the experience and ability of the person. The company further required that such employees be willing to accept assignments anywhere in the country. In addition, the employee must be willing to work any hours, week-ends, and holidays, since transportation seldom stops and service must be supplied.

A smaller airline service employed six trained women managers who supervised the company's cafeterias and assisted in planning the meals served in the airplanes. These employees must be within the age limits of 21 to 45 and possess good housekeeping qualifications. The director of the food service was doubtful if there would be any additional need for trained personnel in the near future in his company.

Another airline company had one trained woman food supervisor in 1949. The manager in charge of the service seemed to have little interest in hiring trained women.

Inquiry into the operation of a large airline company in the East revealed that it did not operate a food service. Contracts were made with local concessionaires for food supplies at the various airports.

One specialist in the food field believed that most women did not care to work for airlines because of the uncertainty of flight schedules. When flights were delayed, meals were also delayed and were served at later hours. As the service is the responsibility of the person in charge, extended working periods may occur at times.

### The Industrial Food-Service Field

During World War II, industry had entered the restaurant business on an increased scale and in-plant food service had been found to fill a definite need. In the East some manufacturers who had employed trained food-service people during the war period did not retain them in the postwar period; some placed their food service under the supervision of the health, welfare, or medical division; but others believed that retrenchment in this service would damage working relationships in their plants. A Fortune magazine editorial in 1948 estimated that four-fifths of all factories with 1,000 employees serve meals. Two reasons given for this practice are the absence of adequate restaurants near the factory and the concern of the employer for the well-being and productivity of the employees (40).

A chain having over 40 employee cafeterias and 35 food bars in 1951 employed about 2,000 hourly employees and from 200 to 250 supervisors and managers, of whom about one-half had been trained in home economics schools. In Washington, 34 trained women were employed in 1951 by this company. About 15 percent of the supervisory and managerial force were men, and of 45 managers in the group 4 were men. None of the men was a home economics graduate. Male employees in this organization made excellent administrative employees, according to the director. However, not many men were available as they were unwilling to take the training required of all supervisory and managerial staff, during which they must work among the food service employees to learn the details of the work. During the war period, the turn-over among all employees in this organization had been heavy, and it had been with difficulty that service could be carried on. In this emergency period a number of persons with very inadequate training were hired because persons with college training were not available. Some of those who had come into the organization at that time were rated to be as good as many others with college training; they had excellent judgment in dealing with the food-service employees and with general day-by-day emergencies. However, the director in charge of the food service preferred trained personnel, as they were better prepared to decide on policy and to fathom the cause of crises which arose from time to time in the organization.

Another Washington, D. C., cafeteria system had 7 trained women food-service supervisors in charge of 1,100 food-service employees, according to a report given out in 1951.

Many problems are involved in the installation of a food-service system in an industrial plant. Employers are naturally interested primarily in production, with food service a secondary consideration. However, they usually realize that production is speeded up by having better nourished workers and that labor-management relations are improved by providing food at cost, even though from a strict accounting standpoint the food service may be operated at a loss. Usually, a good system of cost accounting will keep operating losses at a minimum without raising the prices charged to employees (1). Another difficulty is that in many plants space is too limited to accommodate a food-service system.

In New York State in 1950, about 80 percent of the 60,000 industrial plants had 100 workers or less. Since a trained food-service manager usually prefers to supervise the feeding process and refrain from the actual preparation of the food herself, she is virtually limited to larger plants where a staff of workers is feasible. As a result, cooks are often in charge in small plants. An estimate of somewhat less than 3,000 cafeterias in large or medium-sized plants, including about 100 large plants, was made in New York State. In many instances, concessionaires operated the food service, some of whom employed trained women.

One large packing plant operated 40 cafeterias in 1948, with cooks and chefs, but had a trained woman manager in charge who standardized the service in the cafeterias (31).

In a company manufacturing photographic supplies, a nutrition director was in charge of the food service in 1952, assisted by 3 nutrition advisers and 10 dietitians. An approved internship program was in operation to instruct the interns in practical problems and prepare them for supervisory work later with the company.

A large manufacturer of electrical equipment and accessories also operated a food service with an experienced director in charge. He had 4 men department chiefs and 16 women section chiefs, of whom 10 had home-economics training. The other 6 women had been trained on the job, beginning as counter hands or waitresses.

In addition to manufacturing plants, many banks, insurance companies, and other service and utility companies have trained women food-service supervisors in charge of their employees' cafeterias and dining rooms.

In 1948, a Nation-wide company in the communications field had 3 trained women in charge of its New York City cafeterias, which fed 7,000 employees daily (8).

One life-insurance company was known to feed its employees without charge. It served 30,000 meals daily in 1949 and had a staff of trained women consisting of a manager with 7 assistant supervisors.

A telephone company in 1951 employed three trained women, members of the American Dietetic Association, to manage its employee cafeterias on the east coast. The director preferred to employ only experienced trained personnel as she did not want to take the time to do any training herself. A supervisor was placed in charge of a large cafeteria or several small cafeterias. One supervisor was in charge of training food-service personnel and one in charge of the centralized purchasing for all of the cafeterias. These women apparently were satisfied to work for the company, as the turn-over was low. Many employees stated that they preferred industrial work to hospital work because of the hours.

In the 1951 Washington, D. C., survey, previously mentioned, it was found that 8 employee cafeterias and chains in the city employed 50 trained women in supervisory capacities and a total of nearly 2,600 food-service workers. One of these chains was the Government cafe-

teria system which is peculiar to this Federal city. Eight other employee cafeterias with 66 food-service workers were found to lack trained women.

### College Food Service

In the early postwar period, marked by an expansion in college attendance, many colleges and universities which had not fed and housed their students in the past made these provisions for their student bodies. As a result, residence halls, union halls, dining rooms, cafeterias, and tearooms have appeared on college campuses and more of these facilities are in the planning stage. As colleges frequently employ trained food managers, this has developed a strong demand for both men and women in this field. The greatest need appears to be for food managers with ability in administration, personnel, technics, cost accounting, and purchasing. Women food-service supervisors



Figure 4. Assistant dietitian in a college residence hall (left) and the waitress supervisor prepare to serve coffee.

who are expert in "balancing meals" are sometimes unable to "balance budgets," according to one authority in this field. As colleges do not maintain food service as a subsidy item but plan to offer good food in satisfactory surroundings at a small operating surplus, proper cost accounting is vital (*17*). For a woman who is interested in the college field, the administrative phase of the work is important.

The policy of many colleges is to give to women in charge of food service status equal to that of instructors. Often the food-service

manager is expected to be prepared to instruct students in courses in quantity cookery, institution management, equipment, and related subjects. As a result, those with the master's degree are frequently given preference in this field. Three college food directors are known to have the doctor's degree. This indicates that for this type of work, advanced degrees are an asset.

The system in operation in one midwest college in 1950 is fairly typical of those in many of the larger colleges, although each follows its own individual policies. In the residence hall, 1,000 persons were served at each meal. The trained food-service managers supervised 31 full-time food service employees and 61 men and 97 women part-time workers. The latter were students who worked for 3 hours each day and received room and meals in return. As less than one-half of the student workers returned to their jobs each fall, new part-time workers were trained each year. Before the opening of the fall semester, the new students were chosen and four dining-room hostesses were selected who were to work 4 hours each day and receive room and board. These students worked on two shifts so that the dining hall was always adequately staffed. Good workers were sometimes rewarded with week-end releases.

The use of student help is a phase of the work which the manager in college food service usually supervises. Of the 150 college and university food-service directors attending the thirty-first annual convention of the National Restaurant Association in 1950, over 80 percent had students assisting in the dining halls or cafeterias. About half of these institutions paid the students in cash while one-third paid with free meals or script books honored in the dining halls. One college gave a \$10 bonus at the close of the semester for satisfactory student service. Some colleges gave a party for the working students and their friends at the close of the semester. Directors of college food service state that it is considered to be a privilege to be chosen to work in dining halls and that more consideration is given to such working students by the college instructors than to those who do not work. The development of these working students and the good effect of the discipline upon them during their sojourn at school are a source of great satisfaction to the food managers (1).

Many other problems arise in college work which distinguish it from work in commercial restaurants. For instance, the type of food service is usually decided by the desires of the students. In one southern college, a poll of the women students showed that about 90 percent of them preferred cafeteria meals because of the time element. They could complete a meal in 20 minutes in the cafeteria according to the girls but they asserted that the slower dining room waitress service would "interfere with their social life" by taking up too much of their time (1).

While the information on trained women in college food service is fragmentary, reports from 16 of the larger colleges and universities

scattered over the country showed that a total of 140 trained women and 16 untrained women were employed in these schools. Two of the untrained women were reported to have university degrees but not in home economics. Schools were using untrained women because trained women were not available. Trained women were employed in varying capacities: Three were directors of food service for their schools and one was the assistant director, but the overwhelming majority were in managerial or supervisory positions. Each of 2 mid-western universities employed 14 trained women, and in one, 6 of the women were reported to have a master's degree.

Reports of the personnel in the dining service of 11 other colleges show 44 trained and 18 untrained women food-service managers and supervisors. Enrollment, available for 6 of the 11 colleges, averaged over 7,000, indicating large institutions.

In 7 schools, a total of 20 trained men were reported as employed in the college food service. In at least four of the schools men were the directors of the food service, with trained women in charge of the food preparation; in a fifth university, men accountants carried on the administrative work of the food service, including purchasing and cost-control functions. In one school an experiment had been instituted the previous year of placing a staff of six trained men and six trained women in charge of the feeding of the men students. This had worked out so successfully that it had been adopted as a permanent feature of the staff.

In smaller schools, frequently a member of the faculty supervises the food service, or some local resource or a food concessionaire is used. One person identified for many years with college administration stated that of the 1,800 colleges in the country only 80 to 100 were large enough to employ more than 1 trained woman in food service. He thought, however, that the trend was toward the use of more trained people, in view of the rising costs of food and the need for skilled management in this field for purposes of economy.

One southern university with an enrollment of 500 to 600 employed a trained woman food-service manager who in turn trained other personnel. In 1949, each of five small colleges in one section of a southern State employed at least one trained woman food-service manager.

The magnitude of the college food-service field is shown by a 1950 survey covering 152 colleges, which have about one-sixth of the Nation's college enrollment. These colleges serve meals to some 190,000 students daily. If the proportion of students fed by colleges is the same for the total as for this sample, the college food service feeds a million students daily. Of the colleges included in the survey, 133 reported costs for raw food totaling more than  $3\frac{1}{3}$  million dollars annually, and 122 reported purchasing  $2\frac{1}{2}$  million dollars worth of food service equipment during the school year 1949-50 (17).



Figure 5. College hall food-service manager inspects dishes while dishwasher assists her.

### Concessionaires

A type of food service which cuts across all areas and is found in commercial, industrial, and college food service alike is the concessionaire system, which stretches over the entire country in a net-like formation. The employment of a concessionaire by an organization obviates the necessity for the operation of a food service by the organization itself. The concessionaire or caterer may provide food service in factories, shipyards, drug stores, coffee shops, airline terminals, college halls, or any type of in-plant feeding, and new accounts are opened wherever they are requested.

The typical large concessionaire has headquarters in a big city and may have accounts in many States. In addition, many small concessionaires are in business throughout the country, serving meals in a few industrial plants or college halls in local areas. Even small concessionaires who are skilled in food service may have a highly profitable business. By purchasing in quantity they can provide meals at lower prices than can individual cafeterias or restaurants, at the same time relieving the employer or the college of all responsibility in that direction. Apparently most of the managerial personnel in these small companies are trained on the job by the catering staff. Girls who began as waitresses or kitchen helpers may be advanced over a period of years to positions of responsibility if they show aptitude for such work.

One concessionaire, whose activities were restricted for the most part to industrial service, reported in 1951 that he employed six trained women as managers and assistant managers. Three of these were recent college graduates and had been with the company for only a few months. Two others, each with approximately 15 years of experience in home economics work, were employed as

manager and head supervising dietitian. The latter was responsible for the entire food-service program, for the training program for women, and for promotional work for the company including informal talks and demonstrations, visiting with clients, and writing articles for the house organ and other bulletins. However, the director in charge of the company followed the practice of promoting promising women from his own service ranks and training them for supervisory positions in the organization. He pointed out that the meals served by a concessionaire were more stereotyped in nature than they were in the usual restaurant service and that this lessened the need for trained supervisors to some extent.

Another concessionaire in 1949 reported employing a woman with a master's degree in nutrition as manager of the industrial food division. In addition, four women who had received the bachelor's degree in home economics were employed, three as managers in industrial restaurants and one as manager of a cafeteria in a teachers' college. Two younger home economists were employed as assistant managers. However, both trained and untrained managers and staff members were used by this company. When a new account was opened, consideration for placement was given to both men and women with and without college degrees. In some of the smaller operations of the company, managers who had "come up through the ranks" were frequently given advancement if they were deserving. Applications were accepted from trained food people as the director believed that trained supervisors were more likely to be capable of assuming top jobs.

A smaller local company with headquarters in a southern city had 19 accounts in 1949, including a YMCA and a large university. A man was in charge of the catering service and 3 men supervisors were in charge of 17 managers. Three of these managers were women graduates of home economics colleges in food service and a few others were untrained women who had "learned the hard way." The majority of the managers, however, were men, a few with college training in food service. The owner of this company had found that college-trained people in some instances were too theoretical in their approach to food production.

Another concessionaire seemed to be even less encouraging in his attitude toward trained women. In serving industrial plants, airports, office buildings, and all types of projects, the director of food service employed many women managers, of whom only two were trained in home economics. The others had been promoted from the rank and file or were employed because of previous experience in quantity feeding.

## SUPPLY

Trained food-service managers and supervisors receive their training in schools of home economics by taking a general home economics course or by specializing in foods and nutrition or institution management. The course in foods and nutrition, or dietetics as it is sometimes called, includes some training in institution management as well as in therapeutic diets used in the treatment of disease. This prepares students to enter the administrative or the therapeutic phase of hospital food service. Those who specialize in institution management alone cannot become hospital dietitians but can enter food-service production in other institutions and organizations. However, hospital dietitians sometimes transfer from hospitals to restaurant work,

For trained women qualified to fill new jobs as food-service supervisors or to replace those who leave, the restaurant field depends for the most part on graduates in home economics courses. The marriage rate for this type of worker is high, according to those in the field. Although marriage takes a heavy toll from the ranks of the workers, many who marry continue with their jobs for a time, until family responsibilities interfere. The consensus is that the problems met in feeding a family provide a valuable background for this work. As a result, a woman may consider food service a lifetime career, if she so desires, because employers of trained personnel give special consideration to married women who have had experience in the field. For instance, experienced women who have passed the usual hiring age limit or who can work only part-time are often employed.

Officials of home economics colleges express concern that the number of women majoring in home economics is declining in relation to the increase in population. In 1951, 391 institutions granted the bachelor's degree in home economics to 8,534 students, nearly all of them women (45). The proportion of these going into the fields of foods and nutrition is not known. However, some who major in foods and nutrition do not enter hospital internships but go directly into restaurant work, and some already employed in hospitals transfer into the restaurant field, increasing the total available for employment.

The number of students coming from graduate courses in this field is also small. In 1949, 21 colleges offered courses leading toward a master's degree in institution management (23). In 1950-51, 21 persons, most of them women, were reported to have obtained the master's degree in institution management and 129, the majority women, in foods and nutrition. One woman qualified for a doctorate in institution management and 19 men and women for doctorates in foods and nutrition.<sup>1</sup> In the restaurant administration course in the graduate school of the University of Chicago about 30 persons were graduated during the first 4 years of its operation from 1944-1948. A few of the women had had experience as hospital dietitians before entering the school. Because the number of graduates available from this restaurant administration course is so small, they have excellent placement opportunities. Men have always predominated in this course but more of the requests for workers that came to the University of Chicago were for women than for men. One of the women graduates of 1948 was placed in charge of the food service of a large midwestern university. In 1951, only one woman took the course. The policy of the university is to distribute its graduates about the country on a geographical basis as far as possible and to encourage them to raise the standards of the restaurant in which they are employed.

<sup>1</sup> From "Titles of completed theses in home economics and related fields in colleges and universities of the United States, 1950-51," published in 1951 by the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, Research Division, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

In college hall food service, the demand for trained women far exceeded the supply in 1950. One college hall director stated that he dreaded the thought of having any trained person resign as vacancies seemingly could not be filled. According to the National Restaurant Association well over 200 vacancies in all types of establishments existed in 1950. A somewhat casual inquiry made at the thirty-first annual convention of the NRA in 1950 among those in charge of college or university food-service programs in 8 institutions revealed 25 vacancies. Dietitians were being sought for 20 of these positions and 5 supervisory jobs were also vacant. One production-manager position, paying \$350 per month, had been unfilled for 3 months; another unfilled position with a good salary was that of assistant to a director of food service (1).

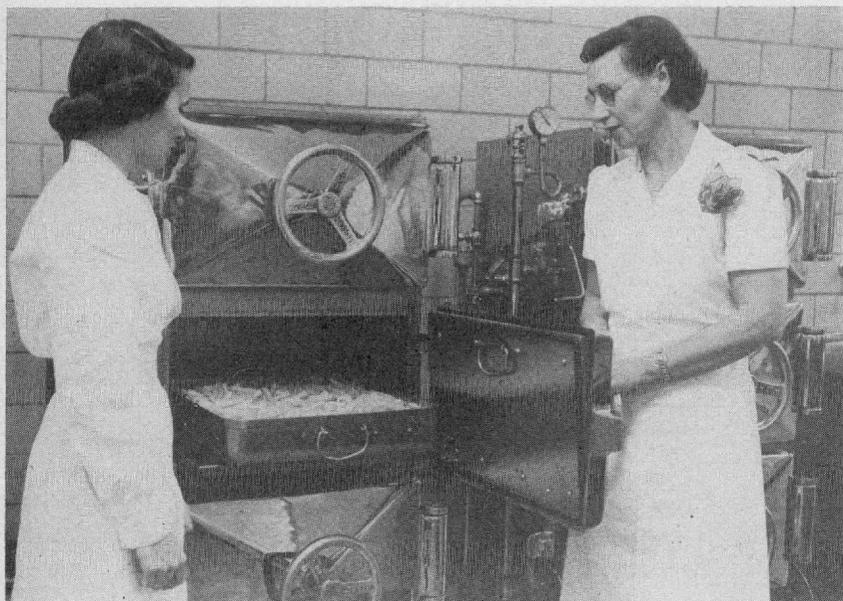


Figure 6. Food-service apprentice in college kitchen (left) inspects food prepared by a helper.

### TRAINING

Although the restaurant business is growing in importance and expanding rapidly, business failures are frequent. Restaurant operation appears to be one of the more hazardous retail lines. A restaurant may continue to operate in one specific location for a number of years but with several reorganizations or changes of ownership during that time, each probably entailing loss to the proprietors and creditors (20). Recent Department of Commerce figures show that for every 100 eating and drinking places in business at the beginning of 1950, 12 were discontinued, not counting transfers of ownership, and 11 were opened

during the year. For retail business in general, the figures were only 9 and 8, respectively. During the first year of operation, many new restaurants fail because of inexperienced or improper management.

In most fields, people expect to make preparation for work programs before entering them, but many apparently enter the restaurant field in the belief that training is not necessary to operate quantity feeding successfully. Lack of training, which results in inefficiency, is said to be an important reason for failure in the restaurant industry (14).

One way in which a woman suited by temperament for the food business can obtain adequate training in quantity feeding is to take a 4-year course in institution management or food and nutrition (dietetics) in a school of home economics. Required subjects in the undergraduate college course usually include organization and management; institution menu planning; quantity, experimental, and demonstration cookery; applied accounting and cost control; institution marketing; institution equipment and lay-out; personnel management; sales and merchandising; public health nutrition; labor; advertising; and business law (14). A good elemental business training is essential. In addition to these basic courses, a number of other types of undergraduate training have been suggested by persons who are successful in this field, such as training in journalism and public speaking, time and motion study as applied to institution management, courses in drawing, physics, bacteriology, sanitation, chemistry, biology, engineering, vegetable and fruit crops, meat products, textiles, decoration, psychology, and other subjects leading toward a knowledge of business management, a broader outlook in personal and community life, and a good cultural background. One college, Tuskegee, offers a 4-year course in commercial dietetics, in which classroom activity alternates with practical experience for its students in hotels, railroad dining cars, steamships, hospitals, schools, and camps under supervision of a staff member of the school (30).

After completing a home economics course, the graduate who plans to enter the food-service field usually serves some type of apprenticeship or internship before undertaking supervisory work. This is necessary because of the complexity of the restaurant business with its job analysis, work schedules, and efficiency operation; because of the beginner's need to develop self-confidence, and to prepare for responsibilities as a staff executive; and because of the crowded college curriculum resulting in little practical training in the industry itself. An apprenticeship or internship program is that method of training in which a learner enters an organization for a definite period of time to learn the business by adapting the theory of her college education to the operation of the business.

Apprentices or interns may receive training in institutions or eating places which are approved by the American Dietetic Association

or the National Restaurant Association, or they may take training elsewhere. A survey of over 300 food-service managers, all of whom were home economics graduates, was made in 1949 by an applicant for the master's degree at Michigan State College. This survey included 38 managers in the commercial restaurant field who had received apprentice training. Eleven of these had taken their internships in institutes approved by ADA; 18 served as apprentices under the NRA; and the remainder in other types of training. Of 29 food-service managers with apprentice training in the college residence food service, 15 had taken their internships under the ADA, 5 had served as apprentices under NRA programs, and 9 in other programs (16). Those with approved internships or apprenticeships are given preference in some establishments.

### ADA Internship Program

The majority of the 70 or more ADA internship programs were given in hospitals in 1951, but about 10 were offered in commercial restaurants, other business organizations, or college residence halls. Two midwestern universities and one on the Pacific coast which had American Dietetic Association approved internship courses in operation in their food-service programs at this time had from 4 to 20 persons in training. These courses are similar in that all are of 12 months' duration in accordance with ADA requirements, and meals and lodging are provided as well as professional laundry. One school permits two weeks of vacation with pay during the year and another school, a month of vacation. Two of the schools pay stipends of \$50 a month and the third, \$20 a month. One university gives an unusually broad type of experience because, besides the usual training in college food service, it also operates concessions in industrial cafeterias and commercial restaurants where the students spend a part of their training time. This gives them a well-rounded knowledge of the field. After graduation most of them go into college-hall feeding, industrial feeding, or school lunch work.

A manufacturing plant which operated 14 cafeterias for its employees had an internship program approved by the American Dietetic Association in 1951. In its program the students work in each department in turn. However, one specified afternoon each week is spent in an activity such as a field trip, a seminar, a lecture, or a conference. The student is encouraged to read scientific journals in the company library. Shortly after the beginning of the training, the student is expected to choose a subject for a special project and is given 6 months to complete the research. The subject is determined by some special need in the restaurant or by her own interest. Some of the formal papers submitted by these students have been so outstanding that they were published in the Journal of the American Dietetic Association. A part of the training includes a period spent in the medical department to which employees come for advice on nutrition problems and return for periodic check-ups. Thus the student learns to deal naturally and easily with people and to become aware of the work-

er's background both in the plant and at home. This training is given by the company without any obligation on the part of the student to enter its employment later on.

### NRA Apprenticeship Program

The apprenticeship program of the National Restaurant Association was set up in a few restaurants in the spring of 1942. It has been so successful that 13 or more restaurants in 1951 offered approved apprenticeship programs, each lasting 8 months. During 1949-50, 34 persons, 2 of them men, completed NRA apprentice training courses. The trainee receives a salary while serving as an apprentice. The NRA has found that the person who takes the apprenticeship course will go farther in the profession in a shorter period of time than the graduate who tries to plunge into a supervisory position

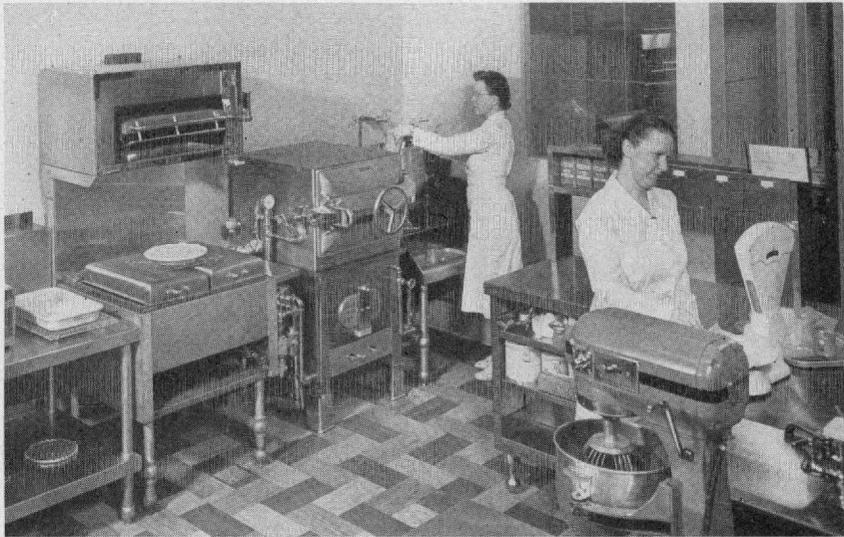


Figure 7. Food supervisors check recipes in the experimental kitchen of a restaurant chain.

without proper preparation. A student with grades above the average, who has shown evidence of leadership in school and who possesses a pleasing personality, good health, good appearance, poise, confidence, pleasant voice, emotional stability, and good character is preferred by the NRA.

A typical apprentice system, approved by the NRA, is in operation in a restaurant chain in a midwestern city. This chain had 12 restaurants in 1949, with 1,000 employees and 28 home economists in its employ. Each spring the general manager of the system requests applications for its apprentice training program directly from the educational department of the NRA. After applications are evaluated and approved by NRA, a number of women are sent to the general manager, from whom five or six are finally chosen. Two or three men, graduates of business administration programs, may be trained at the same time.

The course lasts at least 9 months and sometimes longer, depending upon the progress of the apprentice. Before the war, \$12 a week was paid these apprentices, but in 1949 they were paid \$30 per week, given three meals daily, and provided with uniforms and laundry service.

During their apprenticeship period, they spend a few weeks in each department of the restaurant. They gain experience in the various positions in kitchen and dining room, including those of cashier and hostess. They are trained in the different types of food service such as cafeteria, men's grill, women's buffet, and children's catering, as well as regular restaurant service, in the various restaurants in the chain offering these services.

A similar approved training course is in operation in a chain of restaurants in seven cities in the Northeastern and North Central areas of the country. The apprentices are required to have a bachelor's degree in home economics with a major in institution management. Women graduates are taken directly from college. These generally have had some summer experience in this field.

Another approved apprentice course is given by a commercial chain of 40 cafeterias and 35 food bars located for the most part in the East. Some 2,500 workers, including over 200 trained food supervisors, were employed in 1951. Apprentices are given 1 to 2 years of training until they master the details of the various types of work—in the maintenance department, at the counter, in the storeroom, and in the bakeshop. By that time they may be able to undertake supervisory work as assistant managers, but often 2 years pass before a suitable opening occurs. In time they may progress to the position of cafeteria manager.

### Other Methods of Training

Many restaurants and college residence halls all over the country carry on their own individual types of training without the approval of professional associations. Banks, insurance companies, and public utility companies have in-plant feeding facilities for their employees and provide some type of preliminary training for beginning supervisory employees in their cafeterias and restaurants.

One Midwestern State college takes about six graduates from home economics courses and assigns each to a different food manager. They are trained in an individual style rather than in a class, and some of their work is credited toward the master's degree. They are paid \$150 per month and are in training for 9 months. In view of the unusually large stipend, they are expected to remain in the employ of the college for a reasonable length of time. Such is the high marriage rate among the managers that it has been possible to absorb the apprentices at the end of their course.

In a southern university, the director of college residence halls found 3 years of training necessary before the apprentice was prepared for a supervisory station.

Another southern university in 1950 was training 12 apprentices half of the time in the hospital attached to the school and the rest of the time in college hall service so that they were prepared for commercial as well as hospital work (1).

### Graduate Courses

For those who desire to continue their education into the post-graduate field, about 20 colleges offered courses leading to the degree

of Master of Business Education in 1950. Postgraduate work in foods and nutrition or institution management is offered by many schools of home economics throughout the country.

Where combination positions of food-service manager and instructor are held, an advanced degree is usually required. In 1944 the National Restaurant Association gave approximately \$100,000 to the University of Chicago for a graduate course in research and administration in foods. In this course the study of business administration predominates, and the student is trained to set up budgets, apportion the proper percentages to food, labor, and other factors, arrive at fair selling prices, interpret market trends, negotiate contracts, establish financial credits with banks, conform with Government regulations, and learn all other phases of the complicated occupation of restaurant management and administration (21).

Other schools also have foods courses leading toward a degree in business management or in allied fields, among them the following:

- Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.
- Florida State University, Tallahassee, Fla.
- Michigan State College, Lansing, Mich.
- Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.
- Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
- Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Okla.
- State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash.
- University of Denver, Denver, Colo.
- University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

Cornell University established a course in hotel administration in 1922 and recently opened a School of Hotel Administration in its College of Home Economics. A 4-story building on the campus contains a "practice inn" with 36 guest rooms as part of the facilities used in training (19). Michigan State College, late in 1951, opened its Hotel and Restaurant Management Unit, called Kellogg Center, with a "practice inn" also. The Kellogg Foundation donated \$2,000,000 to the college for this purpose. A report from Florida State University in 1951 indicated that 10 percent of the students enrolled in hotel administration courses were women. More men are going into graduate work in this field, many of them under the GI bill of rights, and they are favored for top administrative positions in the restaurant business.

In the 1950 survey of the members of the American Home Economics Association, 91 of the 254 home economists employed in the field of institution management, or over one-third, had received the master's degree and 4 others, the doctor's degree.

The Washington, D. C., survey in 1951 revealed that 88 graduate home economists were working as managers or supervisors in commercial restaurants, hotels, employee cafeterias, and boarding houses.

Of these, 12 women reported having a master's degree: 10 were in food and nutrition or institution management, 1 in the field of business, and 1 in social welfare.

### Vocational Courses

For those who desire to enter the food-service field without college training but are willing to make some preparation for the work, vocational or technical schools give 1 or 2 years of training in restaurant work which prepares high-school graduates for work in small institutions where the duties are less exacting than in the larger



Figure 8. Food-service apprentice sets up serving pans for the steam table in a large commercial restaurant.

quantity feeding programs. One school with about 200 girls in the student body gives 2 years of training in food service. The program includes 15 hours a week in classroom work and 15 hours in laboratories. The students serve 100 persons daily in the school cafeteria. They learn to be counter girls and waitresses and do all the other types of restaurant work. Later, after completion of the course, they are qualified for employment as kitchen manager or general manager in a small restaurant, institution, or club (47). New York State offers such vocational training to State residents without charge.

Some hotel training schools give short-unit courses during the summer in personnel methods, stewardship, menu planning, hotel ac-

counting, and other subjects. They may last 1 to 3 weeks. Also correspondence courses are offered for hotel food managers (7).

### Scholarships and Fellowships

Some scholarships are available for ambitious students with limited resources who offer promise of outstanding attainment. The American Dietetic Association or the National Restaurant Association will supply information regarding scholarships. (See appendix.)

As an aid in financing postgraduate study, a partial report on home economics schools revealed that 35 schools offered a total of almost 100 assistantships and others offered 10 or more fellowships in the field of foods and nutrition in 1950. These assistantships require from 10 to 30 hours of service per week depending upon the school. For instance, one school offered nine full-time associateships and five part-time associateships leading toward a doctorate in foods and nutrition. A number of schools in addition offer general assistantships or fellowships which can be used for home economics courses.

The regulations of the colleges differ with regard not only to hours of service but also to duties, remission of tuition and other fees, travel allowances, credit hours per term, length of time for completion, living accommodations, and other factors. Further information regarding assistantships, fellowships, and associateships can be obtained from the American Home Economics Association, 1600 Twentieth Street NW., Washington 9, D. C.

### Placement

When training is completed, placements may be obtained through a number of sources. Colleges make a practice of placing many of their graduates, and directors of training courses are often asked for recommendations of outstanding interns or apprentices. The American Dietetic Association has a placement service and commercial employment agencies sometimes know of positions. The State dietetic associations often act as clearing houses for those seeking jobs as well as for those seeking workers. In addition, applications to large business firms employing food managers may be made through their personnel departments.

In the Washington, D. C., survey 49 home economists outside of the hospital and school lunch fields divulged the method of obtaining their current positions. Twelve were given "tips" by friends and relatives; 13 used their school placement bureau; 6 found positions through newspaper "want ads"; and 6 through private employment agencies. The rest used various channels, including the American Dietetic Association and the National Restaurant Association.

## EARNINGS, WORKING CONDITIONS, AND ADVANCEMENT

### Earnings

Great variation in salaries for trained food-service managers in all types of work is apparent, and possibilities for advancement are excellent. An official of the National Restaurant Association stated in 1949 that salaries for food managers in hotels, restaurants, department stores, and airlines ranged from \$2,250 to \$10,000 per year (23). The same official estimated that salaries for women food-production managers in the commercial field ranged from \$3,000 to \$9,000 a year in 1951 and that those for general managers were somewhat higher.

Of the 204 food-service managers with apprentice training surveyed in 1949, the average salary for all types of work, including hospitals and school lunch work, was \$3,100. The study included 38 food-service managers in commercial establishments, with an average salary of \$3,375, and 29 in college halls, who averaged \$3,248. These figures include the estimated cost of any board or meals provided. In this group, all received some daily meals and 73 percent received living quarters. In computing the salaries, arbitrary cash amounts were added, based on an estimate of \$14 per month for one daily meal and \$20 per month for room rent (16). These amounts, obtained from a 1946-47 report of the American Dietetic Association, seem quite low when one considers present-day prices. The food manager in one commercial restaurant stated that the savings on free meals, uniforms provided and laundered at the company's expense, free insurance, and hospitalization added approximately \$17 a week to the actual base salary.

Earnings in industrial food service are similar to those in commercial work, but in some plants the policy is followed of placing a man executive in charge of the food service and hiring a woman supervisor as his assistant. In this way top jobs are often denied to women.

Cash yearly earnings for food-service managers in Washington, D. C., in 1951 in commercial and employee restaurants ranged from \$2,262 for beginners to more than \$7,000. The average of salaries for the entire group was \$3,897. One company operating a number of employee restaurants reported salary ranges with a possible maximum of \$12,000. In addition to the money payment, nearly all had the privilege of eating two meals a day without cost. Of those reporting on uniforms and laundry, about one-half had uniforms provided free of cost and the same proportion had the privilege of professional laundry paid for by the company. Where the employee paid for her own uniform, especially if nylon uniforms were purchased, she often preferred to do her own laundry even though the company provided

it without charge. In a few establishments in this city, the food-service supervisor was requested not to wear a uniform. Besides these supplements to cash salaries, other forms of compensation were reported, such as paid vacations, hospitalization, sick and retirement benefits, insurance and death benefits, bonus plans, and discounts on purchases.

College and university wage levels are on the whole below those of the industrial and commercial fields, as are salaries in general for those in educational services. Beginners are usually paid from \$150 to \$200 per month plus meals. In some parts of the country \$200 and meals is the beginning rate, according to the National Restaurant Association (1). According to one source, salaries for experienced supervisors ranged from \$4,000 to \$7,500 annually in 1949 (23). Occasionally salaries range from \$12,000 to \$15,000 per year. A Nation-wide survey of 273 colleges and universities, made several years ago, indicated that the salaries of dietitians in these institutions had risen with the cost of living from 1945 to 1947. The average increase was 22 percent. The average salaries were lowest in the northwestern and the southeastern parts of the country—\$2,136 and \$2,244, respectively, compared with \$2,412 for the country as a whole. The averages in New England, the mid-Atlantic, Midwest, and Pacific areas slightly exceeded the national average. The highest average wages were paid in the Rocky Mountain region (\$2,700). In this survey, wages included meals and maintenance when they were provided (27).

In another survey, taken in 1948 and covering 222 colleges, salaries for food supervisors ranged from \$1,040 to \$2,600 in colleges enrolling fewer than 100 students, and up to \$5,460 in those enrolling over 5,000 (18).

Reports in 1950 from eight of the larger colleges and universities in the East, Midwest, and Pacific areas indicated a wide range of salaries for beginning trained food-service supervisors. The lowest range, \$130 to \$150 per month, was paid in an eastern college but, in addition to the cash salary, room, board, and professional laundry were provided. The highest earnings, \$200 to \$300, were also paid in an eastern university, but only two meals per day and professional laundry were provided. Between these extremes, various salary ranges were found and for seven of the eight schools only meals and professional laundry were furnished in addition to the cash salary. It would seem that adequate salaries are paid in the larger colleges and universities.

### Working Conditions

The length of workweek differs greatly among food managers. The 1949 survey of food-service managers showed average (median)

scheduled weekly hours of employment to be a little over 48 in college-hall work and 44 in commercial restaurants (16). In a survey of 150 colleges in 1949-50, the 6- or the 6½-day week and the 48-hour week were the most prevalent. Variations existed from a 5-day week and 35 hours per week to a 7-day week and a maximum of 60 to 70 weekly hours in a few instances (17).



Figure 9. Food-service managers from a chain of commercial restaurants visit a meat packing plant during "refresher" session.

On the other hand, at a meeting of some 150 college and university food-service directors in 1950, most of those present reported that their usual workweek was 40 hours; 10 percent reported a 44-hour week, and another 10 percent a 48-hour week; only 3 percent had a workweek over 48 hours. Many women prefer to work in employee restaurants serving office workers at the noon hour, or in school-lunch work, because of the customary 40-hour week.

Of 308 food-service managers in all types of establishments surveyed in 1949, about two-fifths worked in a split shift, at least on some days of the week (16). Split shifts (that is, with a rest period of more than 1 hour within the shift) seem to be disappearing in the larger universities, where the use of relief supervisors makes possible shorter hours even though work must go on 7 days a week. Some women prefer the cultural atmosphere of the college campus even though higher salaries and shorter hours are possible elsewhere.

Paid vacations appear to be usual for food-service managers. In

the study referred to above, 96 percent of the 308 food managers had paid vacations averaging about 22 days a year. Paid sick leave of 15 days a year was provided for 84 percent, and varying proportions also received professional laundry, health and accident insurance, general medical care, retirement systems, life insurance, and uniforms (16).

In 1950, one midwestern university reported that it gave 2 weeks with pay to its food-service supervisors during the first 2 years of their employment and 3 weeks after that. One university in the East reported 3 weeks of vacation with pay and one in the Midwest a month of vacation with pay. Many of the larger schools have group insurance and retirement benefits for the food-service supervisors.

### Advancement

After graduation from college and a period of internship or apprenticeship training, a woman is qualified to become an assistant food-service supervisor. In these days of shortages, many are hired as assistant food-service supervisors immediately after graduation without an apprenticeship. After a few years of experience they may become supervisors in charge of a definite section of a large-scale feeding operation. The high marriage rate among these workers makes possible rapid advancement for those who continue in the profession. After 2 or 3 years more, they may progress to the position of manager in a large restaurant, with complete responsibility for a departmental division where the essential qualities of executive leadership and the faculty of gaining cooperation are necessary. The manager is expected to be a capable administrator who uses a scientific approach to the problem of food production by applying her knowledge of chemistry, bacteriology, nutrition, menu planning, purchasing, accounting, psychology, personnel administration, and other subjects (14).

Besides the position of food-production manager, many supplementary and related jobs are possible. The trained worker may become a field supervisor for a chain of cafeterias or restaurants or for an industrial cafeteria concessionaire or catering company. She may become a manager of a chain of bakeries or of an independent food enterprise or food shop. She may advance to the position of educational training director or teacher, work as a supervisor of demonstrators for a food manufacturer or utility company, or promote the sale of food products. She may enter the service of a State or county as an extension worker in foods or become a research worker in a food manufacturing plant. Radio broadcasting or television in foods or food editor for a magazine or newspaper are other possibilities.

In addition, highly paid positions await the woman who has special training beyond her 4 years in college. Many establishments are looking for women with food skills plus training in personnel rela-

tions because the hiring and the training of food-service employees are more and more being recognized as important parts of food-service administration. One director of food service in a State college had been seeking a woman to direct the work of the quantity experimental kitchen for more than a year in 1951. In addition, this director interviewed 65 persons before a food buyer for the organization was found. As no qualified woman was among the applicants, a man finally was hired. This indicates that opportunities exist for the person who is an expert in food purchasing. This is a good field for a woman with discriminating food sense, but it requires a knowledge of crop conditions, market trends, Government directives relating to food, transportation facilities and costs, and proper storage conditions.

Women without formal training, who begin by actual service in quantity feeding operations, need at least 4 years of experience, according to one authority in this type of work, before they are ready for the first step as assistant supervisor. Supervisors without college training are at a disadvantage when promotions are in order, in her opinion, as the trained food-service employee is likely to be given more consideration. Many untrained persons are excellent in maintaining good employee relations and as such are considered very valuable by their employers.

According to specialists in this field, the supply of trained food-service workers is very short and opportunities for advancement are good for women with desirable qualifications and training.

A Chicago department store which had an apprentice system trained eight apprentices in 1948. These girls had no difficulty in obtaining work as assistant food-service supervisors. One, after some experience as an assistant manager, became a partner in a tea room in Texas; one went with a telephone company in Cleveland to supervise the food service for the employees; one became an assistant manager in a hotel coffee shop in Minneapolis; and one remained in the store in which she had received her apprenticeship training and was employed as kitchen supervisor. A representative of this store made a tour of the colleges near Chicago to determine the number of women graduates in institution management. Few were specializing in this type of work and some of those planned to enter other fields rather than restaurant work.

It is evident that excellent openings will be available in the next few years because of the shortage. Steady advancement can be anticipated for those who give satisfaction.

The problem of turn-over is a real one with employers of food-service personnel. As soon as a woman has had some experience and proved her worth, good openings offering higher wages frequently come her way. Many of the younger women marry and leave the field. Some directors hire trained male food-service managers in the hope of reducing turn-over.

One director of college dormitories stated that he had lost three women from his food-service staff in 1 month.

A man in charge of food service in a large midwest electrical company reported that trained food-service workers remained but a few years at most in his employ. He mentioned that one woman had come to his company from Boston but had left after a year to become food manager in a department store in Washington, D. C. One woman, trained in a restaurant chain, went to a concessionaire for 5 months, then to an airport in North Carolina, and finally, while still in her early twenties, to a large New York City department store as a manager of one of their dining rooms. Another apprentice in the same restaurant chain came to Chicago from Utah to obtain her training and then returned to Utah as a teacher.



Figure 10. Food-service manager in an industrial restaurant interviews a food-service employee before hiring.

The Washington, D. C., survey indicated that the majority of 84 home economists reporting had been working in their positions for a relatively short time. Over one-fourth had been less than 1 year with their company, one-fifth had from 1 to 2 years of service, another fifth from 3 to 4 years, and only one-fourth had a record of from 5 to 15 years in the same position. Two workers had been employed 15 years or more, and several did not report.

## ORGANIZATIONS

The National Restaurant Association, organized in 1918, is Nationwide in scope, with about 25,000 member restaurants in 1951 and 150,000 individual members in its 150 State and local branches. Besides commercial restaurants, about 30 college dining halls, 100 industrial feeding operations, and 150 hotel dining rooms were among the member organizations. The association holds an annual convention and exhibition, publishes a news letter and a monthly publication, the *National Restaurant Association Bulletin*. In addition, it offers educational and research services to its members and aids in placement.

Another organization is the International Stewards' and Caterers' Association, Inc., founded in 1901 and having 34 chapters in the continental United States with 3,300 active members and 1,300 associate members. About one-half of the chapters include women members, and in some of these the proportion of women is as high as 50 percent. One year of service as a steward, dietitian, or manager in an eating establishment is a requisite for active membership, and activity in related lines of industry is required for associate members. The official journal is the *International Steward*, published monthly.

Other food-service managers belong to the Industrial Cafeteria Executive Association, organized in 1947. It had 41 members in 1949, of whom 33 were women. The qualification for membership is active employment as a food-service supervisor in an industrial plant. This is too small a group to be representative of the food-service field.

A number of food-service managers belong to the American Home Economics Association. The report of the Home Economics in Business department of the association in its directory of 1952 indicated that 126 members were in the restaurant business.

The American Dietetic Association also has food-service managers among its 9,000 members. In 1951 it reported 314 members employed in commercial and industrial cafeterias, restaurants, hotels, and clubs, amounting to 3½ percent of the total membership. About 450 members, or almost 5 percent of the membership, were reported to be engaged in college feeding operations.

The School Food Service Association, with 900 members in 1949, was mainly an organization for school lunch managers but 111 of the members were college food-service personnel (23).

Of about 100 home economists covered in the 1951 Washington, D. C., survey less than half belonged to professional organizations. Sixteen were members of the American Home Economics Association, 12 of the American Dietetic Association, and 10 of the National Restaurant Association. Two belonged to hotel or caterers' associations, three were members of the Home Economics in Business group of the American Home Economics Association. Several had memberships in more than one of these organizations. Two belonged to trade unions in the restaurant field.

## SUGGESTIONS TO THOSE INTERESTED IN ENTERING THE FIELD

For success in the food-service field, a good educational preparation is the surest guarantee, provided desirable personality traits are also present. Without adequate educational preparation a woman is handicapped and does not advance so rapidly. The most desirable preparation includes graduation from a home economics school with a major in institution management or foods and nutrition and an internship or apprenticeship, such as those approved by the American Dietetic Association or the National Restaurant Association.

Various recommendations come from successful managers and supervisors regarding the most desirable curriculum for undergraduates preparing to enter food-service work. The consensus apparently is that a general home economics course gives less adequate preparation for this type of work than a major in foods and nutrition, dietetics, or institution management.

The Washington, D. C., survey indicated that 24 of the 84 home economists interviewed had majored in institution management, 17 in foods and nutrition, and 19 in general home economics. Many of the latter group wished that they had specialized instead of taking the general course. Of 13 majoring in home economics education, the majority had become training specialists in restaurant chains and larger restaurants and were not directly concerned with food service. Eleven others had majored in dietetics and in some instances had entered hospital internships and engaged in hospital work before transferring into restaurant work. Some of these District of Columbia managers believed that training in dietetics was a waste of time for food-service managers, while others thought it very valuable. However, in case a manager has the opportunity to do administrative work in a hospital, undergraduate dietetic training is an asset and, as a few restaurants specialize in food for diabetic and cardiac patients, training in therapeutic diets might be valuable at some point in a trained manager's career.

As to elective subjects after a student has decided upon her major, three types were recommended repeatedly: Actual experience in restaurants during the years in college, courses in personnel management, and business training. The more experience in food service the student can obtain while engaged in undergraduate work, the better prepared she is to work in a restaurant after graduation. Courses on employee relations, psychology, and trade unions prepare for supervision of food-service workers. Also, the administrative phase of restaurant work demands proficiency in record keeping, accounting,

and business principles in general. Ability to operate a typewriter and a calculating machine and to use shorthand is also useful. Sporadic suggestions included courses in advertising, public speaking, and journalism—the last two useful in radio broadcasting and television work.

From many sources comes the suggestion that a potential food-service manager would benefit from try-outs in the industry in deciding which type of work is most suitable. For a girl who is likely to be interested in hotel work, for instance, experience as a pantry girl gives an understanding of the work. Necessary requirements are the ability to follow recipes with judgment and accuracy; ability to plan the work; a good memory for details; clever hands; and the ability to judge food by taste, smell, texture, or appearance. Other kitchen jobs, such as pastry cook or sandwich maker, may serve as stepping stones.

A number of trained women have stressed the value of work in hotels, recreational camps, hospitals, or restaurants. This can be done during vacations from high school or college and especially during the summer between the junior and senior college years, if the student has neglected to do it earlier. This helps to give meaning to her college work and offers her an insight into the problems of food-service departments, as well as helping her to decide which of the many types of restaurant work she prefers. Too much emphasis on theory to the exclusion of practical experience can be a pitfall in this type of work.

Part-time work in the summer is given scholastic credit in some colleges, upon a statement from the manager of the quality of the work; extra credit may be given in some schools for good workmanship (?). Even permanent employees, with a long summer vacation such as school lunch or college hall managers have, may benefit from some temporary type of summer work to enlarge their knowledge and add to their experience.

Girls entering the restaurant or cafeteria field should be aware of the many possibilities of various types of work in the food-service field. For this reason, a girl should decide on her specialty as early as possible in her school life so that she can adapt her high school and college courses accordingly. Also, she would be wise not to neglect any part of the field in her preparation, because she may want to move into another phase of the work later on in her career and she should not lack qualifications to do so. She will find that the best paid and the most interesting jobs are on the administrative level. If she is to be a success in supervising, she will need to be familiar with all types of work which she is called upon to supervise, and therefore, again, she needs preparation in all phases of the work while in school.

Upon completion of undergraduate work, some type of internship or apprenticeship is necessary before a beginner is ready to supervise a group of food-service employees successfully. While many restaurants train beginners by having them observe other employees on the job or have some kind of unapproved apprenticeship classes, women in this type of work agree that courses accredited by the professional associations are the most valuable.

In a survey of over 300 food-service managers made in 1949, the overwhelming majority reported that they believed approved apprenticeships or internships were desirable. A comparison of salaries and working conditions for those with and without approved apprenticeship training indicated that a number of advantages were enjoyed by the group with approved training in the form of higher salaries, longer paid vacations and sick leave, a shorter workweek, and better professional recognition and advancement. Although the advantage was slight on each factor, the cumulative effect was impressive. Approved apprenticeships were recommended by those covered in the survey who lacked this training as well as those who had the advantage of this preparation (16).

Many employers give preference and pay higher salaries to supervisors who have completed approved apprenticeships or internships. In the Washington, D. C., survey, 26 percent of the managers and supervisors had taken approved apprentice programs. In most places, the intern or apprentice is not obligated to remain in the employ of the restaurant in which she takes her training but is free to go elsewhere upon completion of her course if she desires. The American Dietetic Association maintains placement services for interns who have completed approved courses and makes an effort to find satisfactory positions for them.

The procedure for obtaining a permanent position after schooling is completed varies greatly. According to the findings of the Washington, D. C., survey, the two most frequent means of getting work are through suggestions of friends or relatives or through the placement bureau of the home economics school where the worker graduated. A small proportion obtained jobs through commercial employment agencies or "want ads" and a few through the American Dietetic Association or the National Restaurant Association placement bureaus.

When seeking a position, the applicant should inquire about the details and possibilities of the prospective job. By doing this she will not be in the unenviable position of "not knowing what she was getting into," as some managers and supervisors have confessed was their experience on their first job.

After 5 years of preparation for the work—in college and in an apprentice training course—a potential manager may need to spend

another year or two learning the business. As one food director remarked, a college degree is merely an entrance credential into the restaurant field. By starting at the bottom and doing all types of work, one learns to be an understanding supervisor. A lower-paid position at the beginning of one's career may pay off well in the future. If a beginner prepares conscientiously for a year or two or more after graduation, she will then be ready to step into any one of the better-paying jobs and, if she has ability, she can advance rapidly toward the top of her profession.

For a trained woman in certain areas of food service, the possession of a master's or doctor's degree is an asset and may be necessary if she is to advance further in her chosen field. In college-hall food service, an advanced degree is held by many in the higher administrative positions, especially when they work part-time as instructors. College faculties often prefer that the manager of food service have an education on a par with that required of instructors in the institution. However, managers mostly agree that a beginner in the field should have some experience before obtaining a graduate degree. One successful manager in college-hall feeding advised that, for best results in the profession, graduate work should stress training in business administration or commerce and finance because of their usefulness in administrative work.

The successful administrative food-service manager should have a pleasing appearance, an ease of manner tempered with cordiality and graciousness, and be approachable yet dignified. She needs integrity, sound common sense, resourcefulness, and to be tactful and forthright in giving or accepting constructive criticism (3). She needs professional ethics and a genuine sense of loyalty and pride in the standards of her organization. She should be ready to assume responsibility and to carry the job through, but she must remain a human and understanding supervisor.

In supervising food service one should avoid falling into a rut. As science is working to improve this field, the trained woman in the profession needs to keep informed of advances in food service and technology if she is to keep up with her work. One's training never stops but must be pursued as long as one expects to advance, so there is frequent need for refresher training. A membership in a professional association is an excellent insurance against deterioration and keeps workers aware of new methods and concepts in their profession. Many women who marry and become homemakers continue their membership in a professional organization.

One quality as important as high food standards is the ability to work with people, including both food-service employees in the kitchen and dining room and patrons of the restaurant. In the food department, coordination, consideration, and courtesy should be stressed.

Standards of performance should be established and interest stimulated so that turn-over costs, which are estimated to range from \$30 to \$300 per separated employee, are avoided as far as possible.

Since most people learn more quickly by sight than by hearing, the supervisor may speed improvements by making charts of progress in the food-service area. Motion pictures are available for training purposes (28). The solicitation of comments from patrons, employees, and (if a class of interns or apprentices is part of the staff) from students, tends to improve relationships. Experienced managers stress the fact that theirs is a teaching job. Absenteeism and a heavy turn-over complicate the smooth performance of the staff, making continual teaching necessary. However, many supervisors enjoy this training phase of the work and find compensation in the response of the more intelligent employees who in time become skilled in certain phases of the work.

A manager needs to be informed on union activities among restaurant workers. Many commercial and industrial restaurant employees are organized. In hotels the movement is especially strong. The manager should be able to maintain cordial relations with union representatives and be familiar with the sphere of action which the union occupies in the establishment.

As to patrons, they may at times seem to be unreasonably critical even when the food is good. The manager must make allowances and not be too sensitive. Various devices can be used to improve public relations. In an industrial cafeteria, service for outside functions may be a source of income to the company as well as a means of building up good will for the service. Industrial food-service managers also may build up good will among employee-patrons by serving refreshments at social gatherings for them after work.

One manager of a college residence hall arranges a party for the students each Christmas which is both educational and enjoyable for the students. One year, a Swedish party was given. Swedish food was served and a Swedish program given by the student body. An occasion sometimes used for similar activities is United Nations Day when international dinners are arranged.

A woman who is an outstanding success in the commercial restaurant field advises that the successful food-service manager must have an interest in food, mathematics, people, and hard work (35). The person who shrinks from meeting people or supervising subordinates would seem to be a misfit in this work.

Work as a manager or supervisor is not a desk job, and lovers of easy chairs should work elsewhere. Physical vigor is a requisite, as the food supervisor is on her feet much of the time. However, people in this field say that it is not a dull routine, and the day is never monotonous. They find making decisions, trying out new ideas, planning, and the creative work of devising new menus to be absorbingly

interesting. Occasionally they confess to having their bad days—when equipment breaks down, employees are absent, and “everything seems to fall apart”—but a supervisor with emotional stability weathers the crisis even if it means that she must take a hand in actual food preparation herself. A sense of humor helps out in such instances.

Each type of work has its own particular merit in the eyes of those who make a success in a specific field. A former home economics teacher, now in restaurant work, enjoyed having time of her own at the end of each day. Those in commercial or industrial food service like the prestige of their position, the independence of the job, the new and varied types of equipment provided in many of the more progressive types of eating places, and the low living costs when food and other compensations are provided in addition to cash salaries. The shortest working hours may be found in industrial cafeterias, especially where only one or two meals are served daily. Those who work in restaurant chains find more opportunity for advancement and specialization than in smaller organizations. Those in college-hall work enjoy the cultural surroundings, the college functions, the association with students and faculty, and the responsibility of providing good nutrition for students. In this field, the frequent school vacations provide breaks in the service which are particularly attractive to the married woman with her own home. The provision for full maintenance in some schools gives the manager who prefers these working conditions a net cash salary for her own use. Older women who find the demanding pace in commercial restaurants too taxing can often find smaller schools where the work is lighter. A few supervisors in the Washington, D. C., survey planned to transfer to related fields, such as research, when they had gained more experience.

On the other hand, some supervisors have visions of a “business of their own some day,” and many have attained great success as businesswomen.

An older woman, in a small school where the work is not too strenuous, told of having operated her own business for many years and paying as much as \$4,000 in income tax alone during successful years. However, as she was on duty 13 or more hours a day, she was finally forced to sell out her business.

Another woman completed a course in institution management and worked for 12 years after graduation as manager of a YWCA cafeteria before opening her own “downtown dining room” in a midwestern city, where she offered food as much like home-cooked meals as possible. She reported having served over 1 million meals during 1949. Aside from the outstanding financial success of the venture, she seemed particularly to enjoy giving satisfaction to her patrons, many of whom had come regularly to her dining room for 20 years, and she was greatly interested in her staff of employees, some of whom had been in her establishment for an equal length of time.



Figure 11. Food-service manager checks plates in a college residence hall kitchen.

If a woman likes the occupation she is willing to accept the rather peculiar hours necessitated by serving people outside of usual working hours. Employment in commercial restaurant work usually involves evening work with dinner served from 5 or 6 until 8 or 9 p. m. Some restaurants have Sunday and holiday work, irregular work, or extra hours, but usually compensation is offered in the form of compensatory time off or overtime pay. The 40-hour week is being adopted in many of the larger organizations, and the split shift is being eliminated by the use of relief workers or student trainees in many places. Some who have "long hours" are glad not to be traveling during the rush traffic periods in a large city and enjoy having 2 hours or more in the middle of the afternoon for personal use. Some, who must arrive at work early in the morning to prepare for the breakfast shift, end their working day by mid-afternoon.

The advantages of food-service work are many, according to those with experience in this type of work. They point out that it is a natural field for women and an excellent training for marriage. In addition it is an expanding field: New positions are constantly being created and advancement to higher positions is possible in the larger restaurants. Married women and older women can find a place in this work. Food administration varies less than most occupations

in its demand for workers, as eating is essential in periods of prosperity and depression alike, although managers' salaries may fluctuate. The variety of jobs makes it possible for any qualified woman to find work suited to her abilities.

Some women managers consider food service not as a mere job but as a career, and a fascinating one. The work can be very satisfying for anyone who likes dealing with people and working with food. After a woman with ability has spent a few years in gaining experience, during which she can count on a comfortable income, she can advance rapidly in the profession and enjoy an excellent salary. One supervisor in an industrial restaurant believed that her work was a social service to her country—that by serving nutritious food to workers, she was helping to improve their job performance.

### PREWAR AND WARTIME DISTRIBUTION

With the beginning of the European war in 1939, the supply of chefs trained in the hostelries of Europe was curtailed, and vacancies in this country were filled by persons with various kinds of preparation. Even at that time, one outstanding chain of hotels had trained women food managers in charge in its New York hotels (7), and another large New York hotel also had a policy of using them. In addition, two airline corporations were reported to be depending upon women to work out plans for service in the air. Because food was prepared in containers on the ground and stored in the planes for flight, many unusual problems arose (26). A number of western and midwestern restaurants were beginning to use home economics graduates in their dining rooms, and one of the transcontinental railroads hired a qualified woman to supervise its dining car service (22).

Trained women food supervisors who had had difficulty in finding jobs during the depression years of the 1930's, and were glad to take any kind of food-service work, were proving their worth in this new field and were gradually being placed in supervisory positions which had formerly been held by men. The possibilities were indicated by the fact that in 1940 over one-fourth of a million eating places, including drinking places with meals, employed approximately three-fourths of a million untrained workers (42).

In the industrial field, lunchrooms have been in operation for at least 50 years. During World War I the number of industrial lunchrooms reached 5,000, but about 1,200 of these were discontinued later. Some had been under the concession system, others were run entirely by the employers, and some companies invited the cooperation of the employees in operating their eating places. The number of industrial lunchrooms later increased coincidentally with the expansion of in-

dustry, beginning in the 1920's (25). Few plants had more than lunch-rooms, however, to fill the need. One unusual instance at that time was that of a large meat-packing company in the Chicago area which as early as 1934 had a trained woman manager in charge of its dining room and cafeteria services for employees.

At the outbreak of World War II in Europe, in 1939, a profound change came over the industrial picture. Plants expanded their activities and in many instances operated around the clock. The previous practice of closing down manufacturing operations for the noon hour was abandoned in many cases because each shift under the new policy worked only 8 hours. Often eating periods had to be staggered to insure continuous production. Gone was the leisurely lunch period frequently spent at a nearby commercial restaurant. Employers realized the need for in-plant feeding and found by hard experience that poor production resulted from inadequate nourishment (5). The need for an emergency food supply if an air raid should occur was another factor. Many of the workers came without breakfast in the morning, driving long distances to work; some lived in temporary quarters without cooking facilities. Packed lunches were not possible in many instances where the woman of the household was also a war worker. As a result, in many places, carts of warm food, modifications of the old "chuck wagons," were wheeled into the plants during shifts to provide sustenance at hours when production was likely to lag and accident rates soar. These innovations paid off in the form of less absenteeism, lowered accident rates, less work spoilage, and increased production.

However, adequate food-service programs were lacking in many industrial companies when the United States entered World War II, late in 1941. Even as late as 1944, a survey of 2,056 plants by the War Food Administration (as reported in the *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1944) indicated that 5 million workers in only one-half of the manufacturing plants engaged in war work had in-plant meals available. In the larger plants 80 to 91 percent offered feeding programs but only 28 percent of the smaller plants provided this service to their employees. This showed the need for further expansion of food service in industrial plants.

The war period became an interval of trial and error in quantity feeding in many industrial plants. Some plant executives, harassed by the exigencies of the emergency, turned to the use of the concessionaire system. However, it was soon evident that many of the employees were not obtaining adequate nourishment, even when good food was provided. A nutritionist made a survey of 1,200 trays in two large New England manufacturing plants and found that less than half

(44 percent) of the employees had made good food selections. Few industrial plants at this time employed trained women as food managers. The Committee on Nutrition of the National Research Council investigated 33 plants and found that only two had qualified women in charge (29). By 1943, trade journals were advocating the use of trained women in industry (11). The American Dietetic Association, the National Research Council, industrial physicians, and the more progressive newspapers urged employers to hire trained women food-service supervisors, arguing that the provision of more attractive and nutritive meals would result in increased efficiency of the workers and be well worth the added cost.

Some local and State organizations assisted in the movement to improve nutrition. For instance, in Massachusetts in 1944, 35 dietitians from the Massachusetts Dietetic Association spent a total of over 1,000 hours in preparing a weekly menu service to aid cafeteria managers in industry. The Associated Industries of the State hired an administrative dietitian to follow up this service with surveys of industrial cafeterias (12). The Massachusetts State Department of Public Health at about that time released a nutritionist to conduct a nutrition guide course for housewives and to explain low-cost food purchasing and the preparation of nutritive box lunches for workers. The local welfare or health agency on request conferred with any company that desired the evaluation of the dietary value of its box lunches (13).

As the war drew to a close, operators of commercial and employee restaurants felt the increasing need for graduate home economists in their establishments. To bridge the gap between the theoretical and the practical, the National Restaurant Association instituted a 9-month course for graduates of home economics schools to prepare them to take supervisory positions in food preparation. The trainees received \$15 to \$22 per week, plus meals and laundry service. At the completion of this training course, the women had no trouble in finding positions with the better restaurants. Many of the schools of home economics, especially those in the universities of Tennessee and Pennsylvania, were placing some of their graduates in industrial food-service operations instead of hospital internships for their final year of training.

Some industrial plants had trained women food managers in the cafeterias in positions of responsibility while others had them merely as advisers (2). Some of the companies hired a man as manager and provided him with assistants, including a trained woman to plan menus, a chef in charge of the cooking, and a head waitress in charge of the dining-room service (25). In addition to seeing that nutritious food was served, the woman food supervisor was sometimes expected to handle complaints and to prepare folders on nutrition for home

distribution (38). A joint committee representing management, health, and cafeteria services was established in a number of factories to promote a plant-wide health and nutrition educational program (15).

The experience of one large electric manufacturing company was typical. Beginning about 1918, it had operated food facilities on a small scale, with 1 dining room and 2 lunchrooms which provided 4,000 to 5,000 meals at noon each day. At an hour designated for lunch, many employees went to commercial restaurants outside the plant. With the beginning of World War II, three shifts were installed in the plant, personnel was increased from 10,000 to 39,000, the lunch period was shortened, and food facilities were opened in various plants. This company, with its policy of promotion from within, was reluctant to hire experienced food specialists from outside the plant. Finally a man food-service manager was employed, who hired a few trained woman food-service supervisors. He had 14 restaurants, several dairy counters, and a central commissary in operation by the end of the war and was providing 53,000 meals per day. This company subsidized the food service mainly to the extent of providing building space, building upkeep, and general trucking. All "out-of-pocket" costs were paid by the income from the various quantity feeding operations.

Reports from other industries indicated that women trained as food-service managers were gaining acceptance as valuable employees. For example, a large midwestern rubber company employed a trained woman after 20 years of unsatisfactory experience with untrained personnel (36).

In this new field of industrial feeding, many impractical devices were suggested for the hard-pressed employer. In view of wartime labor shortages, for example, one trade journal actually advised industrialists to use temporarily incapacitated employees as assistants to the trained women managers and suggested that employees working in the factory could be employed as cashiers at mealtime and paid by a free meal (41). Some companies provided their workers with vitamin supplements and closely followed the results by frequent surveys (11). Another company found that frequency of meals, providing that the daily intake of food remained constant in quantity and quality, was a controlling factor in determining the rise and fall of muscular efficiency and industrial output (25). A textile mill introduced what was then an innovation in the industry: It provided a relief shift which rotated about the factory and permitted the regular workers time off for meals.

The colleges of the country were also expanding their food-service facilities and in fact were returning to the policy of earlier days. As far back as the eighteenth century, the college carried the responsibility for supplying students with their living as was the practice in the colleges of England. During the nineteenth century, the opposite condition prevailed in the United States whereby, as in Germany, the



Figure 12. College food-service manager supervises a quantity cookery class in institution management.

student furnished his own living through fraternities or otherwise. However, many colleges in the twentieth century had again assumed responsibility for the students' necessities and provided residence halls or commons with 21-meal service per week, cafeterias or other optional food service, and tearooms with provision for catering social events on the campus (46). Trained women food managers were placed in charge of these food services in many instances. One large mid-western college was reported to have had one trained food-service manager in charge of six large dining rooms serving thousands of students daily in 1937 (37), and another midwestern college employed at least eight trained managers in 1942 (34).

Women engaged in this work in commercial and industrial restaurants were usually known as food-service managers but in colleges they were called dietitians as often as they were designated as managers. They had given such good performance for the most part and made their services so indispensable during the war that they were in increasing demand in the postwar period.

## APPENDIX

### Usual Requirements for Completion of an Administrative Internship Approved by the American Dietetic Association<sup>1</sup>

(This training may be obtained in approved administrative internships providing experience in several food-service departments such as industrial units, college residence halls, and cafeterias, school lunchrooms, and restaurants.)

Completion of a course of 10 to 12 months in an approved food-service department other than a hospital, including:

1. Quantity food production, including preparation, service, and merchandising.
2. Recipe standardizing and figuring cost of recipe.
3. Menu making.
4. Study of organization and management relating to all types of large-scale feeding, such as that in educational institutions or commercial or industrial organizations.
5. Food purchasing.
6. Housekeeping administration.
7. Office procedure: record keeping, cost accounting, budget making, equipment buying.
8. Personnel management.

### Minimum Requirements for Students Applying for Admission to Apprentice Training Courses Offered by the National Restaurant Association.<sup>2</sup>

1. A Bachelor's Degree from an accredited college or university with the following distribution of courses and semester hours: Chemistry, 10 to 15 hours; biology, including human physiology and bacteriology, 6 to 8 hours; psychology including personnel management, 6 hours; economics, 3 to 6 hours; education with emphasis on methods of teaching, 3 to 6 hours; foods, including food selection and preparation, menu planning and service, experimental cookery, 8 hours; nutrition and dietetics, 6 hours; institution management, including quantity cookery, organization and management, and institution accounting, 12 to 15 hours.
2. Above average grades.
3. Qualities of leadership shown during college attendance.
4. A pleasing personality, good health, good appearance, poise, confidence, good voice, emotional stability, and good character.
5. A genuine interest in high-standard food and enthusiasm for the work.
6. A liking for people and ability to work well with different types of people.
7. Executive potentialities—ability to take responsibility and to plan and direct work for others.
8. Ability to work well with the hands.
9. Aptitude and judgment in evaluating details and in making decisions.
10. Ability in mathematics for accuracy and understanding of cost reports.

<sup>1</sup> The Association requires that the courses listed consist of formal classes, seminars, and conferences. A list of approved training centers is available from the American Dietetic Association, 620 North Michigan Ave., Chicago 11, Ill.

<sup>2</sup> 8 South Michigan Ave., Chicago 3, Ill.

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