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THE EFFECTS OF REALISTIC JOB PREVIEWS ON TURNOVER

A Thesis
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State
University, San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science
in
Psychology

by
Susan Janet Hartshorn Black

June 1988

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ABSTRACT

A longitudinal field experiment was conducted with stock clerks at a defense plant to assess the effect of realistic job previews on voluntary turnover with 96 new hires who were monitored for one year after entry. While realistic job previews were not found to significantly lower employee voluntary turnover rates, a self-selection process may have affected initial hiring rates. Among all applicants, 18 percent attrition occurred after administration of the realistic job previews and prior to entry. Future research suggestions are offered.

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My appreciation to Jim Rogers for his unspoken statements of "Susan, you can do it".

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INTRODUCTION

Korman, in his work, *The Psychology of Motivation* (1974), divided the study of psychology into three major areas:

- 1) Biological-Physicalist
- 2) Cultural
- 3) Philosophical-Theological

It should be noted that these divisions are not rigidly exclusive of one another. Their components tend to overlap in certain areas and they share generally similar terms and conceptualizations.

The Biological-Physicalist tradition originated from the work of the 19th century physiologists and the Darwinian revolution in scientific thought. To explain the arousal, direction and persistence of behavior, psychologists John Watson, Kenneth Spence and others used such terms as drives and instincts.

The Cultural approach utilizes the terms wishes, feelings, desires, needs, and motives to postulate that learned experience and the nature of psychosocial environment are the critical factors in the development of explanatory variables in the process of understanding arousal, direction and persistence of behavior.

The Philosophical-Theological approach deals with several aspects of need satisfaction priority as set forth by Maslow (1943, 1954, 1968). Further need satisfaction criteria have been proposed and defined by Alderfer (1969, 1971) and by Hackman and Lawler (1971).

The Biological-Physicalist approach and the Cultural approach, due to the intrinsically behavioral and cognitive views, are among those which are generally considered process theories, while the Philosophical-Theological albeit extrinsic approach has been referred to as content theory (Campbell and Pritchard, 1976).

The above three approaches can be applied to the arousal, direction and persistence of behavior as it pertains to work-related motivational theory. According to Korman (1974),

Most psychologists working in field of motivation agree on the need for utilizing both characteristics of the behaving individual at the time it is perceived by the behaving individual in developing an adequate framework for understanding the arousal, direction and persistence of behavior (p. 106).

For the purposes of this paper, behavior will be defined as including the function of the expectancy value attainment at the time and in that particular environment and the actual degree of value (or incentive/reward) that is available to the perceiving individual.

Realistic job previews have been utilized to inform the

prospective employee of the negative as well as positive aspects of the job with the assumed consequence of curbing turnover. To more closely examine the effects of realistic job previews on employee turnover, it is necessary to clarify the approaches to the study of work related motivation.

Vroom's VIE Theory

A convenient way of categorizing most of the contemporary theories of work motivation is intrinsic versus extrinsic, or content versus process. Content theory is not relevant to the approach of this paper and will not be discussed.

Within the process theory, psychologists proposed that each individual has cognitive expectancies about the outcomes that will probably occur as a consequence of his/her acts and choices. In addition to this, each individual perceives that certain outcomes are preferable to realistic outcomes and places the greatest value on the most desirable outcome possible.

Lewin's (1938) theoretical models (and some preliminary work by Georgopoulos, Mahoney, and Jones, 1957) provided the foundation upon which Vroom established his theoretical formulations of expectancy-valence theory of work motivation as applied to organizational behavior. Vroom postulates that an individual will behave as a result of

the combination of two factors: a) those consequences that are most important to him (that is, having the highest valence) and b) those consequences that have the highest expectancy of realization.

Vroom (1964) states in his theory that motivation to perform an action or achieve a goal is determined by the individual's perception of the expectancy of goal attainment and the valence (perceived value) of the desired goal.

The value of goal attainment is determined by the instrumentality for the attainment of various outcomes, and the valence or desirability of those outcomes.

These three components: expectancy (E), instrumentality (I), and outcome valence (V) combine to determine total motivational force (F) according to the equation (an approximation, generally reported as $F = VIE$). (See Mitchell, 1974 and Wahba and House, 1974 for greater detail. Also see Graen, 1969 for enlargement and Lawler, 1971, 1973 for modifications).

At this time, it would be useful to examine the differences between expectancy and expectancy-valence. Expectancy theory places its emphasis on the perception of the probabilities involved in the formation of an individual's expectancies. The critical factors are the individual's cognizance of the probability that performance depends on effort and the probability that desired rewards

depend on performance. Each of these perceived sets of probabilities depends on an information feedback loop in which performance is directly related to the product of perceived probabilities multiplied by the value (valence) of the desired reward.

Values, also referred to as rewards of determinate value, must exist within expectancy theory. These performance rewards can be extrinsic or intrinsic, depending upon the individual's perception of their value (Schwab, Gottlieb, and Heneman, 1979).

Extrinsically, the possibility of reward attainment can be controlled by an employment organization. These organizations determine what sort of gratifications individuals expect to derive from their performance and subsequently can exert performance standards upon the individual. These rewards are typically displayed in the form of recognition, pay increases, promotions, better working conditions, and job security.

The attainment of these rewards is within the power of the organization and contingent upon the performance and value judgement of the individual. Thus, organizations hypothesize that the possibility of such value attainment (rewards) will result in increased performance and that these possible outcomes will serve as incentives for better performance, provided the individual believes the rewards

are actually attainable through his efforts, and that he perceives them worthwhile to attain.

Therefore, if the reward is perceived by the individual as a goal that is worthwhile and attainable, the offering of this reward can impact the individual's expectations, behavior and attitudes. (See also Georgopoulos, et al., 1957; Hackman and Porter, 1968; Goodman, Rose, and Furcon, 1970; Hackman et al., 1971).

Expectancy Theory and Work Behavior

Porter and Steers (1973) applied the theory of expectancy-valence to understanding the behavior of people in work situations. Using a sample of 154 managers from a diverse population, they statistically supported their hypothesis that the amount of effort a person expends on their job (as judged by superior and peers) was related to the extent to which they perceived they could achieve desired outcomes by engaging in such effort. Conversely, this person's overall performance was directly related to their perceptions and expectations of rewards to be attained by performance, which is also affected by their ability and the desirability and accuracy of their perceptions concerning the role (job) they are to perform. Thus worker performance is impacted by the expectancy of perceived rewards.

Another aspect of work behavior linked to expectation

x is withdrawal. Focusing on met expectations as it relates to withdrawal behavior, Porter et al., (1973) compiled a literature review which examined studies on avoidable turnover and absenteeism. Met expectations has been defined as

{ the discrepancy between what a person encounters on the job in the way of positive and negative experiences and what he expects to encounter (p. 152). }

Porter et al., (1973) consistently emphasize the importance of perceived equity (reward) and expectations as significant variables in a withdrawal decision. More significantly, however, they assert that regardless of the type of expectation held by the employee, it is essential that the employee believe that their expectation has been substantially met if the employee is to decide that it is worthwhile to remain with the organization. Porter and Steers further maintain that it is necessary to balance received or potential reward with desired expectations because when an employee's

expectations are not substantially met, his propensity to withdrawal would increase (p. 152).

{ The contention of various authors, including Weitz (1956), suggests that a way to reduce turnover is to clarify the expectations of applicants to bring them into closer alignment with available rewards. This may be accomplished by improving communications concerning the

positive and negative aspects and potential rewards of a particular task. It is, therefore, postulated that when an employee fully understands what is expected of him and what the organization offers in return, the likelihood of the employee forming unrealistic expectations should decrease. This would result in the increased possibility of the employee's realistic expectations being met. It is also suggested that prior to and during the initial employment period, the integration of the new employee's expectations into the organizational ideology is a crucial factor in the reduction of withdrawal behavior (Zaharia, 1981; Feldman, 1976; Porter et al., 1973; Crow, 1967 and Caplow, 1964).

Turnover, Expectation and Job Satisfaction

During the last two decades, research on turnover as it related to realistic expectation has been derived from the study of a widely diverse population including manufacturing managers, insurance agents, college graduates, nurses, and West Point graduates.

The findings of this research indicate that voluntary turnover is closely associated with the expectations an employee maintains toward his job and the organization (Ilgen and Seely, 1974; Dunnette, Arvey, and Banas, 1973; Wanous, 1973). Therefore, an employee's expectations (created prior to job entry and during the initial

adjustment period) can in many cases be incongruent with the demand characteristics of the job.

Zaharia's (1981) study of 398 prospective technicians in a residential facility for the retarded concluded that a misalignment of initial expectations ... is a major irritant contributing to the withdrawal process (p. 19).

Thus, holding unrealistic expectations about the job and the organization has a direct effect upon the tenure of the employee (Wanous, 1980; Bray, Campbell, and Grant, 1974).

Scott (1972) suggests that when

there is considerable evidence to indicate that if a prospective employee is not given a realistic description of what to expect in his new working role, early turnover is a definite possibility (p. 362).

Therefore, it can be concluded that to reduce voluntary turnover, a potential employee's expectations should be realistic and preferably align with that of the job and the organization.

Unrealistic expectations has also been shown to adversely affect job satisfaction (Popovich and Wanous, 1982; Wanous, 1980, 1976; Scott 1972). In defining job satisfaction, one must include an evaluation the employee makes about the job. This evaluation compares the employee's multiple values with the perceptions they are receiving from the job (Locke, 1975, 1976).

Mobley (1977) contends that

to the extent that the job is perceived as providing what one highly values, satisfaction is enhanced. To the extent that the job is perceived as not providing what one values, satisfaction is diminished (p. 125).

In essence, job satisfaction can be viewed as a function of what the employee perceives.

Job satisfaction can also impact turnover.

Literature surveys indicate that the lower the job satisfaction is, the greater the probability of turnover (Muchinsky and Tuttle, 1979; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino, 1979; Price, 1977; Locke, 1975; Porter et al., 1973; Vroom, 1964; and Brayfield and Crockett, 1955).

Dunnette et al. (1973), in a study on turnover using over 1,000 college graduates, found that discontentment leading to job dissatisfaction develops from the job not attaining the new hire's expectations. This discontentment

spilled over to engender feelings of little accomplishment, boredom with the work, and little hope for advancing upwards in the organization. In other words, the bright picture that they hoped for and expected at the time they accepted employment simply failed to materialize (p. 33).

An employee may become frustrated when the job does not live up to the employee's expectations and hopes. This frustration of expectations can cause job dissatisfaction and eventual voluntary turnover (Wanous, 1980).

It can be proposed, therefore, that realistic job

expectations need to be stated prior to job entry to match the employee's expectations with the organizations. Job characteristics made available prior to and during initial employment can create more realistic expectations of the job for the potential employee, thereby decreasing job dissatisfaction and voluntary turnover.

Realistic Job Previews

To attract potential employees to an organization, the company's image may be portrayed in glowing terms during the recruitment process. This image can cause potential employees to have inflated expectations about the organization (Wanous, 1980). Examples of literature reviews on this employment tactic and its impact on potential employees expectations has been studied in the Armed Forces and in graduate schools by Wanous (1976).

Porter et al., (1973) examining research over the last decade, suggests that a potential employee can develop realistic expectations concerning the nature of the job and its benefits for effective performance through increased communications. The type of essential communication needed to develop realistic expectations can be found in realistic job previews (RJP) (Wanous, 1975a).

Realistic job previews inform the applicant of the true reality of organizational life by including both positive and negative information regarding the job. This

information has been shown to lead to a realistic set of expectations for the employee (Popovich et al., 1982; Raphael, 1975).

Regardless of methodology, realistic information can have the effect of lowering job expectations before entering and during initial entry into an organization (Wanous, 1980). This lowering effect has been referred to as

a vaccination against the negative aspects of real organization life (McGuire, 1964, p. 41).

Thus, lowering job expectations creates a positive effect for the employee by revealing a true picture of the organizational life through increased communications of both the positive and negative aspects of the organization.

Realistic job previews, when used prior to organization entry, require the company's recruiters to shift from promoting the image of the organization to portraying the true nature of the job. The recruiters more realistic approach to job requirements facilitates realistic levels of employee expectations prior to job entry thereby benefiting both the company and the new employee with lowered turnover rates. Indeed, properly implemented realistic job previews have had a substantial cost savings affect of up to \$450,000 (Mobley, 1982, p. 3).

Considerable amounts of research using realistic job previews have been done in the areas of: a) its effects on

reducing voluntary turnover (Mobley, et al., 1979; Forrest, Cummings, and Johnson, 1977; Price, 1977; Porter et al., 1973), and b) its affects on recruitment and selection of new employees (Reilly, Brown, Blood, and Maletesta, 1981; Reilly, Sperling and Tenopyr, 1979; Wanous, 1976; Ilgen et al., 1974; Marion and Trief, 1969; and Saleh, Lee, and Prien, 1965).

In the Ilgen et al. (1974) study, results reported showed that higher survival rates were found for life insurance agents receiving realistic information. Similar results have been found at West Point for its potential cadets (Weitz, 1956). Another study revealed that life insurance agents showed a 30% decrease in voluntary turnover (Weitz, 1956 p. 246).

Using a realistic job description on potential employees can result in their being more satisfied and consequently less likely to leave the job voluntarily (Franke, 1982; Dugoni and Ilgen, 1981; Milbourn and Cuba, 1981; and Farr, O'Leary, and Barlett, 1973).

It is, therefore, hypothesized that using realistic job previews on newly hired employees may reduce voluntary turnover.

Reasons For This Study

It has been shown that potential employees may enter an organization with preconceived expectations. At the same

time, the organization may maintain its own expectations of the new employee. When these two sets of expectations do not satisfactorily merge, both the company and the new employee may be detrimentally affected. The company may institute a variety of procedures, initiate the reprimand cycle or terminate the employee. The employee may react in a variety of ways including job dissatisfaction which may lead to higher absenteeism and/or tardiness and, in extreme form, sabotage and/or voluntary termination.

Realistic job previews have been shown to decrease job dissatisfaction and voluntary turnover (Wanous, 1980). Studies using realistic job previews and turnover have covered a variety occupational and organizational settings typically studying jobs that require the educated. Wanous, Keon, and Latack, (1983), states that

the participants in these studies continue to come from predominantly academic, or at least well educated sources... As long as this trend continues, the generalizability of results will be somewhat limited to the more literate segments of our population (p. 74).

Realistic job previews have not always been shown to have positive results or beneficial outcomes (Schaub, 1981). Dugoni et al. (1981), in studying 320 potential employees of five retail outlets of a large midwest food chain, found support for the RJP's ability to lower initial expectations, however, they found no support for a link between lowered expectations and higher job

satisfaction. In addition, Reilly et al. (1981), in studying 842 potential employees for a telephone service, found no significant relationship between RJP's and turnover. Similar results were concluded with the Reilly et al. (1979) study. Finally, a recent study by Dean and Wanous (1984) found no support for RJP's reducing turnover.

The present research was initiated when a large defense-related organization requested a longitudinal study be undertaken to effectively reduce their high turnover rate among less skilled new employees. In so doing, this company plans to effect cost reduction procedures that may also significantly lower voluntary turnover. Introduction of RJP's was included in the techniques under consideration.

In summary, the reason for this longitudinal study on realistic job previews and voluntary turnover is to retest then expand the generalizability of results to jobs not requiring the more academically skilled employee as well as further test the inconsistencies in the realistic job preview literature.

METHODS

This study assessed the effects of a realistic job previews (RJP) on turnover. The critical test for this study was to ascertain if a RJP administered prior to employment could impact employee tenure by lowering voluntary turnover. Turnover has been defined as

the cessation of membership in an organization by an individual who receives monetary compensation from the organization (Mobley, 1982, p. 10).

Turnover rates for the experimental and control groups were assessed in terms of reasons for termination. Reasons for termination were classified as voluntary (such as quit, moved, promoted, or transferred) or involuntary (such as theft, drugs, and/or fired). (See McEvoy, and Cascio, 1985 for further details). For the purposes of this paper, only voluntary termination was addressed. Tenure was a continuous measure and was expressed in the number of days on the job.

Therefore, the null hypothesis states that using realistic job previews does not effect voluntary turnover and the alternative hypothesis states that using realistic job previews has some effect on voluntary turnover.

Subjects

The subject pool consisted of all persons who filed applications for employment at a local aerospace company with primarily defense-related contracts during a two year period from May 1982 to May 1984, for full time positions of:

- (1) Stock Clerk - Internal
- (2) Stock Clerk - External

Due to the nature and duties of these positions, they attracted and required the less academically skilled employee.

Instruments

Information was compiled from a variety of sources; however, management and workers were predominately used to develop the realistic job previews used in this study. From the first sources, the workers, five employees from each of the two areas were randomly selected to be observed during their normal working hours noting their duties, demands, traits, and responsibilities for each job. Each selected employee had six or more months of experience in their position. Informed consent forms were given and signed by each participant. Before each participant was interviewed for approximately one hour using a structured questionnaire; each was assured anonymity by stating that participation was on a voluntary basis and their answers

would remain completely anonymous and be identified only by a code number.

The information gathered included job duties, tasks, responsibilities, working conditions, training, equipment operation, necessary paperwork, tools used, special knowledge, skills or abilities required to perform the job plus the general aspects of the job such as union membership, working hours, probationary period and clothing required.

The second source of information was gathered from a pool of supervisors within the two job categories. A total of two supervisors, one from each of the job classifications, was randomly selected for this study from among a pool of supervisors whose employees worked within the above two job categories. Each was assured anonymity by stating that participation was on a voluntary basis and their answers would remain completely identifiable only by a code number. Each was given and signed an informed consent form. Participating supervisors each had a minimum of one year of management experience. Using a structured questionnaire, each supervisor was interviewed for approximately one hour. The information gathered included occupational summary, work performed, typical materials, tools and equipment used, contacts, direction of others, knowledge and ability required, working conditions, effort, and ranking of this job relative to other related jobs.

A summary of each job classification was developed from the job analysis above, company-approved job descriptions, and supplemental discussions with company supervision. These summaries were approximately four pages in length and served as the preliminary realistic job previews. Care was taken by staff psychologists to depict both positive and negative job aspects as fairly and candidly as possible (Wanous, 1980). A total of ten preliminary realistic job previews for each job classification were given to and returned from a second group of existing workers selected at random who had been on the job a minimum of six months or more. These workers were advised by the staff psychologists that their answers would remain anonymous and would be identified only by a code number. The written instructions asked the workers to rate the accuracy of the realistic job preview as it would be used to describe their job to a person applying to the company. Respondents were encouraged to indicate what statements they disagreed with and to suggest changes. Management amended the discrepancies of these realistic job previews where it was deemed important for successful job performance (Schneider, 1976). The final revision of each realistic job preview was again reviewed by both management and workers and was deemed to be an accurate and realistic description of the jobs.

Procedure

A total of 254 people applied for the positions of:

- (1) Stock Clerk - Internal
- (2) Stock Clerk - External

All subjects filled out standard job applications indicating in which position they would be interested. These applications were reviewed by the Personnel Department and selectively, on the basis of qualifications, 189 potential employees were asked to come in for an interview.

On their scheduled interview day, 163 potential employees returned to be interviewed for one of the two jobs. Every other applicant (experimental = 82, control = 81) was given a written job preview (realistic job preview). Realistic job previews contain realistic and candid descriptions of the job and its characteristics for the position in which they were interested.

The experimental group was asked to read, sign and return to the Personnel Department their realistic job preview brochure. After reading the RJP, 7 subjects decided not to be interviewed. From a total of 156 who were interviewed, 96 were offered employment.

Subjects who received a realistic job preview were the experimental group (n = 43) whereas subjects who did not

received a realistic job preview comprised the control group (n = 53). Then the subjects or applicants would be asked if he or she still wanted an interview. If they expressed continued interest in the position, they were granted an interview, the applicant could be accepted or rejected after the close of the interview. After reading the RJP, four applicants who were offered jobs, rejected the positions (see Figure 1).

Thus, a total of 92 people from which 44 were males and 48 were females accepted employment. This constituted an experimental group of 39 and a control group of 53. Attrition among the experimental and control groups were monitored over a three year period, with each subject being monitored for a minimum of one year or until termination. In the experimental group, 16 employees voluntarily terminated and 23 employees voluntarily stayed. In the control group, 20 employees voluntarily terminated and 33 voluntarily stayed (see Table 1).

FIGURE 1

EXPERIMENTAL VS CONTROL
163 POTENTIAL EMPLOYEES

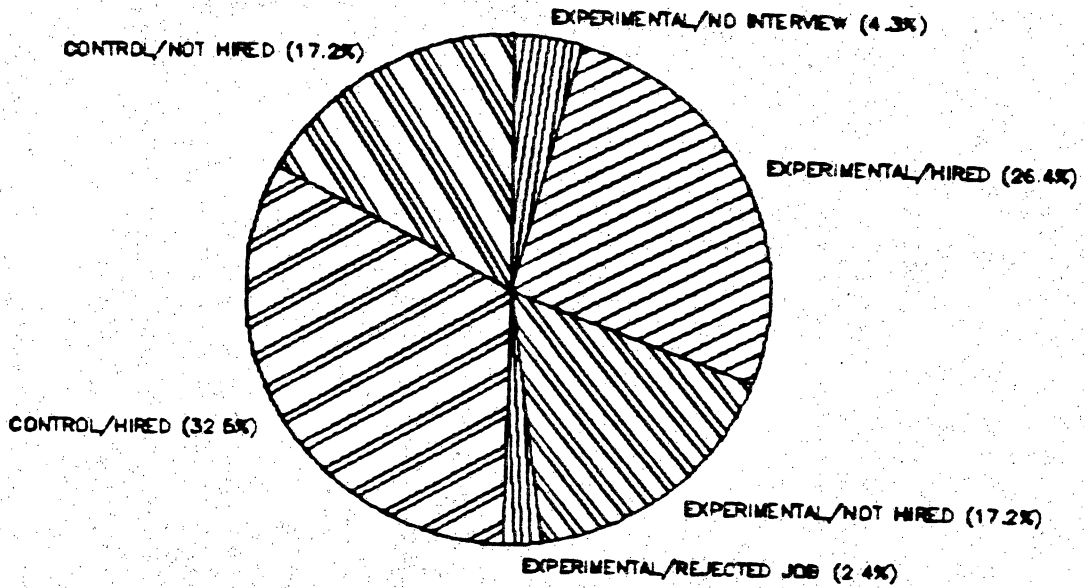


TABLE 1

	VOLUNTARY TERMINATED	VOLUNTARY STAYED	
EXPERIMENTAL	16	23	26 FEMALES <u>13</u> MALES 39
CONTROL	20	33	22 FEMALES <u>31</u> MALES 53
	17 FEMALES <u>19</u> MALES 36	31 FEMALES <u>25</u> MALES 56	92

RESULTS

A total of 36 people voluntarily terminated of which 19 were male and 17 were female. From both the experimental and control groups, more employees voluntarily stayed than voluntarily terminated. More applicants in the control group were hired than in the experimental group. After reading the RJP, 6.8% of the experimental group declined either the interview or the position (see Figure 2).

The mean length of employment for those who voluntarily terminated was 74 days for the experimental group and 102 days for the control group. Within both groups, females terminated faster (1 to 493 days) than men (7 to 319 days). Also within the experimental group, the shortest length of employment was 24 days whereas the longest was 262 days. Within the control group, the length of employment ranged from one-half day to 493 days (see Figure 3).

Males terminated at the same rate as females (6/6). Control males terminated consistently within each time period. Three control females terminated with the first 30 days only; termination after the 30 day period occurs again after 181 days. Two experimental males terminated at the 1-30 day category and one at the 61-90 day category. They did not terminate again until after 181 days. Nine

FIGURE 2

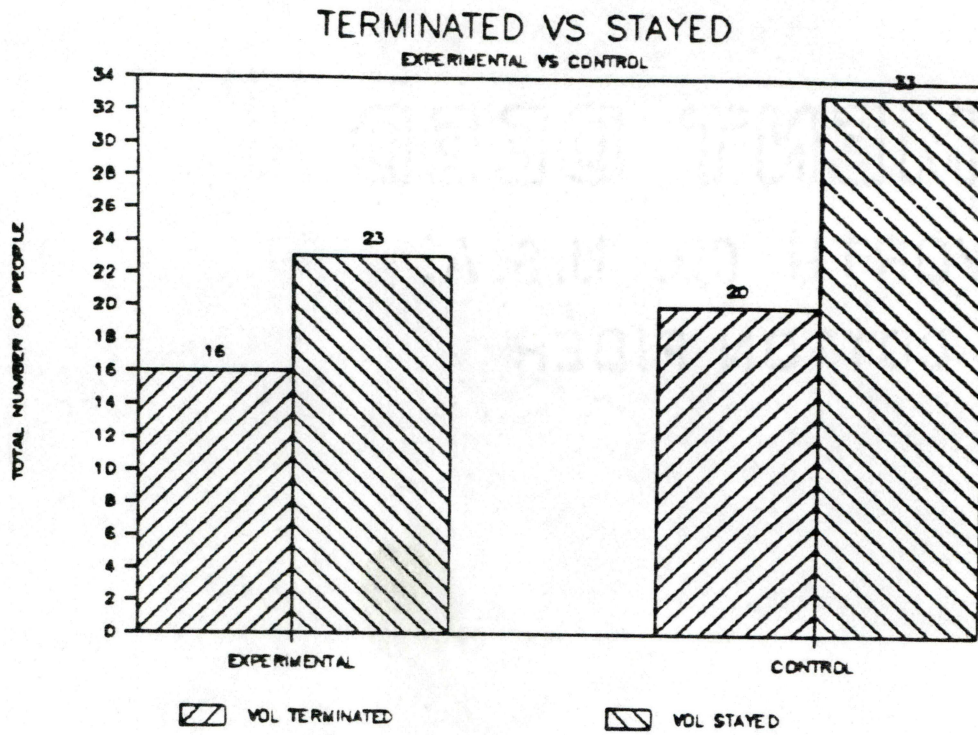
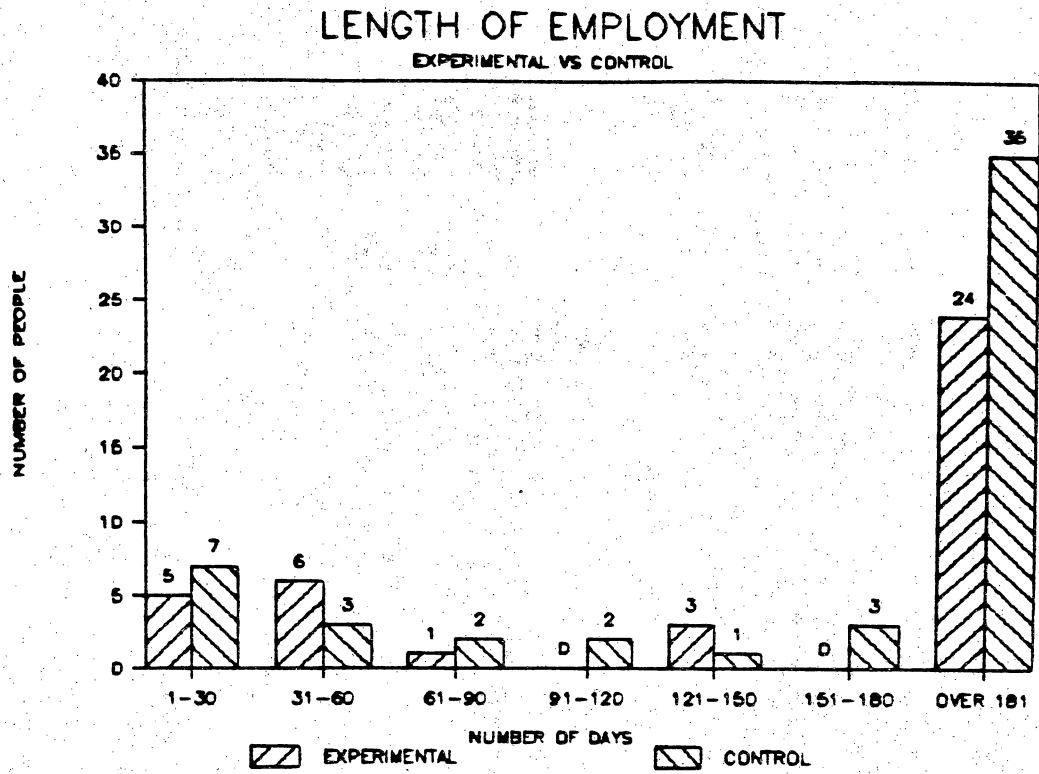


FIGURE 3



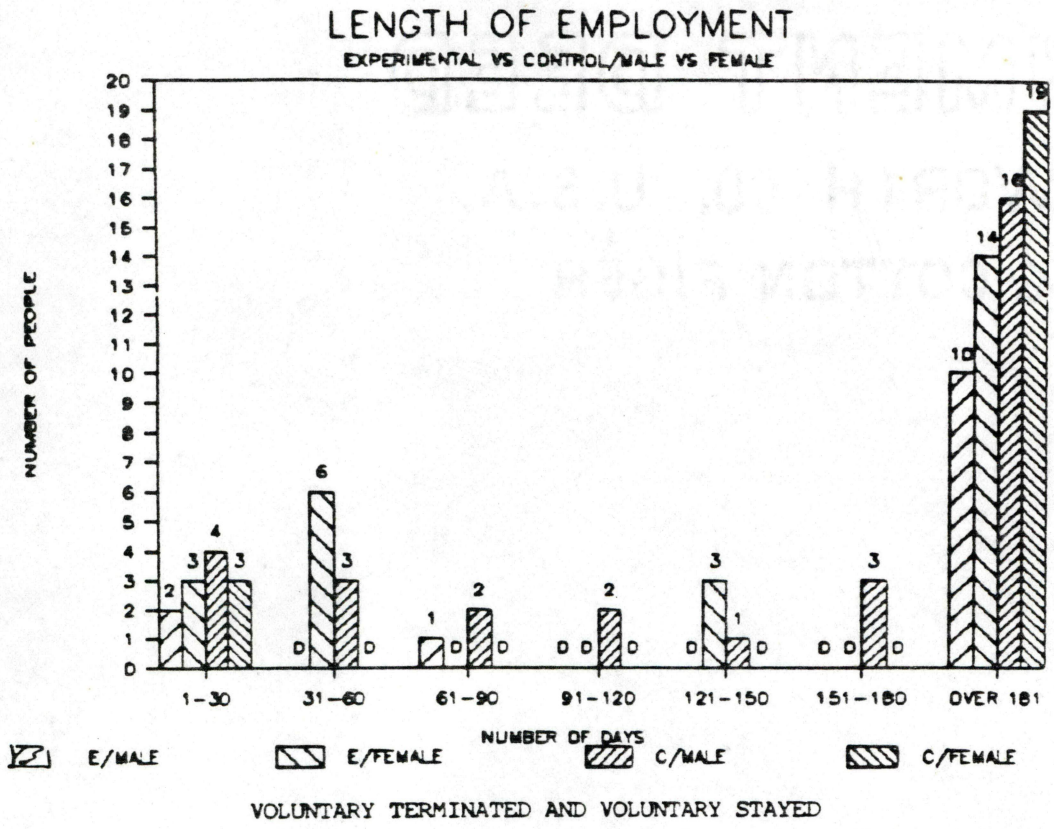
experimental females terminated within the first 60 days, three at 121-150 days and the remainder after 181 days (see Figure 4).

Those employees given the RJP appeared to terminate at the same rate as the control group within the first 90 days (12/12). The termination rate for the experimental group dropped below the control after 90 days (see Figure 5).

After reading the RJP, more potential employees from the experimental group rejected the job prior to entry than the control group ($\chi^2_{\text{obs}} = 10.411$, $df = 1$, significant at .01). This occurred both before (7) and after (4) the job interview.

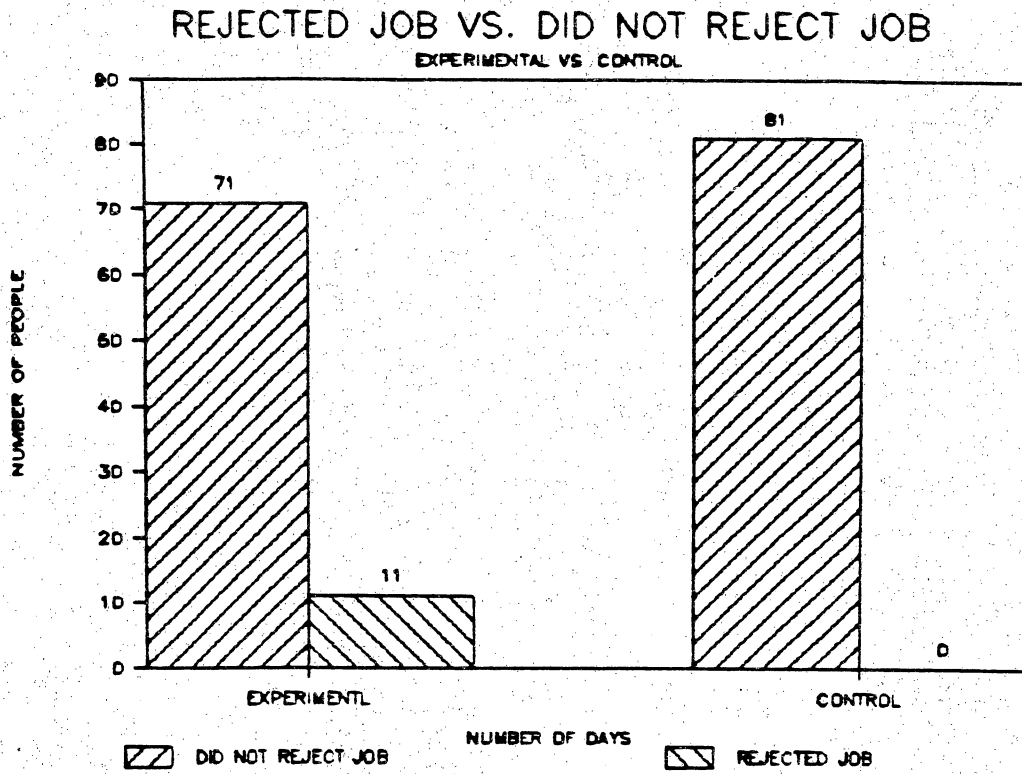
The null hypothesis stated that the use of realistic job previews (RJP) does not affect voluntary turnover. The contingency hypothesis could not be rejected at the .05 level using the Chi-Square Test of Significance with the Yates correction factor which was applied due to the small n ($\chi^2_{\text{obs}} = .0106$, $df = 1$) (Thorne, 1980). We conclude that a dependency does not exist in reducing turnover with the RJP during the initial employment period.

FIGURE 4



N - 92

FIGURE 5



N = 92

DISCUSSION

The present study was conducted to address and determine the effectiveness of the use of realistic job previews (RJP) in reducing turnover in work areas not requiring the more academic skilled employee. The results of this study have shown that voluntary turnover for the less skilled new employee is not significantly affected through the use of realistic job previews.

In the present study, a self-selection process seemed to have occurred. After reading the RJP, seven of the job applicants refused to be interviewed. In addition, four of the applicants administered the RJP and offered positions rejected such offers.

Although the process of self-selection has not always received favorable support (Colarelli, 1984), a study by Suskzko and Breaugh (1986), found a self-selection process to have taken place. In their study of 28 applicants for inventory taker positions, four of the applicants from the RJP administered group rejected job offers, while none refused from the control group. A study by Reilly et al. (1979) also found that individuals administered an RJP were more likely to have lower acceptance rates than those not administered an RJP.

Dean et al. (1984) in a field experiment using 249 bank

tellers suggest that a delayed self-selection may have taken place with applicants leaving during training but after accepting job positions (page 62). Using two types of RJPs (realistic specific, realistic general and no preview) to measure initial job expectations, they found that

when tellers were asked their interest in remaining at the bank...the specific RJP group had the lowest interest... (page 65).

In fact, both RJP groups

left at an accelerated rate (p. 67)

which appears to be a contradictory finding to the majority of the RJP literature.

Furthermore, Dean et al, (1984) found that

there were no overall differences among the three job preview groups in job survival rates (p. 65).

They note that more tellers in the control group sustained longer at the job than in the two RJP groups. They concluded that

RJP's appear to increase the rate of early turnover but have no impact on overall job survival (p. 65).

As contradictory as this finding is, Dean et al., offer an explanation of this reversal finding by suggesting that a delayed self-selection effect may have occurred. Also

it is possible that skeptical newcomers in the RJP groups only needed the additional experience and information

obtained during training to conclude that it was time to leave. In contrast, the no-preview recruits may have needed the additional experience after training to confirm skeptical feelings that were first aroused during training (p. 67).

Finally, Dean et al., (1984) speculate that

this particular type of low-level job may not be amenable to an RJP (p. 68)

(See also Reilly et al., 1981).

Within the present study, a self-selection process may have occurred within the experimental group as more potential employees from the experimental group rejected the job prior to entry than from the control group. In concert with Dean et al. (1984), a delayed self-selection effect also appears to have occurred within the control group for some who accepted the position but needed confirmation of their initial reactions to the job before deciding to terminate. This was demonstrated by the employee in the control group who voluntarily terminated after four hours on the job. Contrary to Dean et al. (1984), use of the RJP for low-level jobs is acceptable if used to increase the higher turnover rate of potential employees and thereby initiate a cost effective weeding out process.

In addition, this study also questioned the ability of the RJP to lower the expectancy level of potential employees. According to the literature, upon entering the job, the employee shown the RJP should find that his

altered expectations are fulfilled and thereby possess a greater job satisfaction. This statement was not proven. Although not directly addressed, this study failed to show that by lowering the expectancy level of the employee through the RJP, prior to employment, the potential job turnover rate would be lowered as well, thereby indirectly reducing the costs resulting from a turnover in a company. It has been suggested by Wanous et al., (1983) that

detailed questionnaires need to be implemented to directly test the expectancy theory (p. 75).

The research methodology in the present study is flawed in that the sample size is small and, due to a lack of detailed questionnaires, it did not directly test and prove the expectancy theory.

Further Analysis

Further discussion of other variables was necessary due to the nonsignificant results obtained. From a variety of variables that influenced turnover rates, one to be considered is withdrawal cognitions. Even though expectancy levels do not directly implicate job turnover rates, studies exist which support the theory that through withdrawal cognitions, job satisfaction can indirectly influence turnover. It has been shown that job satisfaction is related to turnover through its impact on

intentions to leave (Price et al., 1981; Youngblood et al., 1983).

Miller, Katerberg and Hulin (1979) in sampling 460 National Guard members, produced results indicating that

satisfaction and career mobility
influence turnover only through their
influence on withdrawal cognition
(p. 509).

The study further found that

intentions to quit and to search,
thinking of quitting, job satisfaction,
and age related significantly to
turnover, indicating their importance for
the turnover model (p. 515).

Furthermore, the study stated that intention to quit was
the

strongest and most consistent of all
these factors (p. 515).

Miller et al., (1979) also suggested that it would be of
interest to

investigate an alternate possibility that
various aspects of the job and job
context (eg., reward systems,
interpersonal relations, task
characteristics) translate simultaneously
into affective (dissatisfaction),
cognitive (thinking of quitting), and
behavioral withdrawal (absence, turnover)
and to extend this analysis to include
nonwork sources of influence (ie:
social/economic constraints) (p. 516).

Withdrawal cognitions, as well as other factors, impact
job satisfaction. Thompson and Terpening (1983), with
results from data collected of 143 full-time and part-time

employees of a medical laboratory, found that autonomy, routinization, instrumental communication, and upward mobility all impact job satisfaction, and that job satisfaction is related to intentions to leave. Thompson et al. (1983) found support in their results for

the importance of viewing job type as a factor that leads to different causes of intention to leave and job satisfaction (p. 673).

The study found that the degree of importance of certain variables differs for certain groups within the organization. For instance, the study found that autonomy and upward mobility were

dominant influences of satisfaction in the primary group and the absence of routine type task and presence of feedback were of major importance in the secondary group (p. 674).

Therefore, job types influence the individual desires and needs of the employees, thereby influencing satisfaction in the organization at the same time.

Withdrawal cognition is not the only factor that influences turnover. Price et al. (1981) found that opportunity, routinization, participation, instrumental communication, promotion opportunity, and kinship responsibilities were related to turnover through job satisfaction and its relation to intentions to leave. Martin (1979) found that routinization, instrumental communication, distributive justice, opportunity, sex, and

occupation were related to intent through job satisfaction. Hackman et al. (1971) found that job routinization influences job satisfaction in that employees who become bored with their work become dissatisfied with their jobs. Bluedorn (1982) found that equity and age are both determinants of satisfaction and commitment, whereas routinization is an antecedent to commitment and instrumental, in addition, information is causally related to satisfaction. Thus, job satisfaction can be affected by variables not considered in the expectancy theory.

Furthermore, there is evidence showing that organizational commitment is related to turnover. Steers (1977), in investigating 382 hospital employees and 119 scientists and engineers, found that personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences influenced organizational commitment, and that organizational commitment is related to intentions to leave and employee turnover. This finding is supported by Koch and Steer (1978) and Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian, (1974). Steers (1977) further asserted that commitment is

influenced by need for achievement, group attitudes toward the organization, education (inversely), organizational dependability, perceived personal importance to the organization, and task identity (p. 53).

In addition, Steers (1977) found that work experiences are more closely related to commitment than personal or job

characteristics.

Job commitment can also influence turnover. Rusbult and Farrell, (1983) studying 88 newly hired employees from two professional service organizations, one group of junior staff accountants and another of practical, registered, or baccalaureate nurses, found that

turnover appeared to be mediated by a decline over time in degree of job commitment (p. 429).

Furthermore, the study found that greater job reward and lower job costs influence job satisfaction and either encourage or discourage job commitment. Finally, Arnold and Feldman (1982) found that job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and age all directly influence intent, which then leads to turnover and other variables of tenure and perceived job security.

An explanation for the abundance of variable arises by Williams and Hazer (1986). In their recent study, they suggest a theory which combines the variables in job satisfaction and relates job satisfaction to organizational commitment, showing that in their relation to one another, satisfaction and commitment alike impact intent and through intent, job turnover.

This theory of a link between satisfaction and commitment can be applied to the present study to analyze the negative results of the study and the failure of the expectancy theory. Williams et al. (1986) re-analyzed data

from previous studies done by Michaels and Spector (1982), and Bluedorn (1982). The study made the following conclusion: a relationship exists between job satisfaction and organizational commitment and that these two factors have an impact on job turnover through intent. The conclusion was based upon the following findings and analysis. First, that variables describing personal characteristics (eg. expectations, job characteristics, age, and instrumental information) do not have any direct impact upon turnover intentions. Williams et al. (1986) believe that this finding

substantiates the importance of satisfaction and commitment as intervening variables in models of turnover (p. 228).

Second, that these personal and work characteristics influence satisfaction directly but only influence commitment indirectly in its relation to satisfaction and subsequent effect on commitment (p. 228).

Third, commitment had a more important impact on intent to leave than did satisfaction. Williams et al. (1986) do not find this surprising because they claim that one of the components of organizational commitment is the desire to remain with the organization.

Fourth, the study indicated that there was indeed a direct link between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Finally, the study suggests that there is a

reciprocal relation between satisfaction and commitment but the study notes that less support was found for a causal link from commitment to satisfaction than for the reverse path or satisfaction to commitment.

The Williams et al. (1986) study can be applied to the present study. If, as the previous study suggests, personal and work characteristics influence only satisfaction directly and only influence commitment indirectly, and in addition, do not have a direct impact of turnover intention, then the expectancy theory will not suffice to lower turnover rates. Employee expectations merely enhance job satisfaction and organizational commitment, but do not directly motivate the intention to leave. Job satisfaction, as Williams et al. (1986) illustrated, stems from other factors as well and thus a sole factor will not completely determine turnover. Farrell and Rusbult (1981) and Rusbult et al. (1983) asserted that it is through the cognitive process of evaluation and assessment of costs and benefits that an individual's desires are satisfied. This satisfaction will result in the association or disassociation with the organization and thereby result in commitment or non-commitment, as the case may be. If the environment is evaluated as a whole for job satisfaction and commitment results from this evaluation, then it is not the variables

which impact turnover directly, but rather the relationship between the satisfaction and commitment levels.

Furthermore, job satisfaction serves as a mediator between the variables and the resulting turnover.

In conclusion, although a self-selection process may have occurred, this study did not find that the application of realistic job previews significantly impacted turnover, as was hypothesized. Rather, through examining other studies addressing turnover, this study suggests that a diverse set of variables should be taken into consideration. These variables include withdrawal cognition, age, sex, attitudes, reward systems, task characteristics, routinization, upward mobility, presence of feedback, social/economic constraints and intention to leave; which impact job satisfaction and organizational commitment and, through these, turnover. Future studies should attempt to address each variable, its interaction and its influence on turnover as well as the self-selection process.

APPENDIX A

Pomona Division

1/26/81

JOB AUDIT QUESTIONNAIRE

1) Occupational Summary

(Define, describe the basic purpose of the job, i.e., why does the job exist? What is the primary job and what does the job try to accomplish?)

2) Work Performed

(Describe the duties, tasks normally performed and methods used to accomplish given tasks. Also describe sources of information used to accomplish the job, i.e., blueprints and production aids - also define the amount, or % of time normally used to accomplish each task.)

3) Typical Materials, Tools and Equipment Used

(Describe type of materials worked on, materials worked with, tools or equipment used and the purpose for their use.)

APPENDIX A

Job Audit Questionnaire
Page 2

4) Contacts

(Describe the normal contacts within and outside the plant and purpose of contact)

5) Direction of Others

(Does the job require direction of other people; if so, define the type and extent of direction and # and type of people directed)

6) Knowledge and Ability Required

(In your opinion, describe the type and extent of education and/or experience normally required to perform this job)

7) Working Conditions

(Describe working conditions and any factors which would present any potential hazard to employees)

8) Effort

(Describe what are the difficult or complex parts of the job and why?)

APPENDIX A

Job Audit Questionnaire
Page 3

9) Ranking of this Job Relative to Other Jobs

(Rank this job in order of worth to the Company relative to other similar jobs after discussion with supervision)

10) Remarks

APPENDIX B

WHAT IT MEANS TO BE A HYBRID MICROELECTRONICS ASSEMBLER

An assembler in the Hybrid Microelectronic Assembly area performs many different operations ~~varying greatly~~ in skill needed and equipment used. The assembler's job consists of mounting delicate and tiny ^{chip} components onto a base substrate while looking through a microscope. ~~Trays of these newly assembled substrates are then manually transported to approximately nine other machines where, at each, they are individually unloaded with tweezers and worked upon.~~ The individualized work on each substrate often results in hours of performing the same activity repeatedly without interruption. By adhering to a series of set procedures the assembler ultimately assembles a hybrid microcircuit assembly.

SOME SPECIFICS

HOURS

Newly hired employees are typically placed on second shift and transferred to first shift on the basis of seniority and available space. The second shift begins work at 4:15 pm and ends at 12:45 am. The first shift starts at 7:00 am and ends at 3:30 pm. Both shifts have one-half hour lunch periods and two ten minute breaks.

UNION MEMBERSHIP

As a condition of employment payment of union dues is mandatory after 30 days. Union members are represented by the IAM (International Association of Machinists).

PROBATIONARY PERIOD

A 60 day company probationary period begins on the date of hire. During this time the employee's attendance, productivity, performance, and work habits are evaluated. Also, during this period, the decision to keep the individual as an employee is ~~completely for supervision to make~~ *completely by supervision*.

TRAINING

An inexperienced person usually requires two to three weeks of pre-production on-the-job training. After this time roughly 5% of the incumbents find that they are not right for this assembly job. It usually takes three months for a person to perform effectively as an assembler and require a minimum amount of supervision.

APPENDIX B

TOOLS USED/SKILLS REQUIRED

The assembler's job requires a great deal of work with tweezers, ~~and tongs~~. These tools are primarily used to transport substrates, which are highly susceptible to handling damage, from one operation to another. The assembler must operate about ten different machines in the process of building a hybrid microelectronic circuit. People who are capable of performing exacting work for long periods of time excel in this work. An assembler must be able to maintain close attention to detail while performing operations that often require the use of both hands and feet. *elaborate tools* A great deal of precision, hand/arm steadiness, concentration and patience are needed to perform this job successfully. *A and equipment* A vision test is required of all employees who perform this job, and near perfect depth perception is a must.

CLOTHING

To protect the chip components and substrates from body oils, finger cots must be worn. Smocks are also required to insure that the components remain lint-free. *factory regulated* Closed toe shoes must be worn in this area or in any area of the factory. Slacks are required; jeans are acceptable.

WORKING CONDITIONS

Assemblers work in an area referred to as a "clean room". This is required in order to protect the components being worked from contamination. As a result, a constant, moderate, clean air flow will circulate over some of the more susceptible work stations. This creates a slight breeze and a low rushing sound.

Personal belongings cannot be brought into the clean room. Also, no smoking, drinking, eating, or personal grooming is allowed.

An assembler's job allows for little mobility in the clean room. Approximately 85% of the assembler's time is spent sitting at a machine performing a repeated activity, while the remainder of the job time is spent walking short distances between work stations to perform operations on microcircuit assemblies that require the assembler to be standing up-right.

PERSONALITY TRAITS

The assembler's job requires the ability to strictly adhere to set procedures. Assemblers must be able to follow pictorial and verbal instructions perfectly. Due to the nature of this work, there is no room for innovation or creativity on the job. Successful assemblers are capable of working well over prolonged periods with machines. A mechanical inclination is a necessary characteristic for this job. People who have been successful assemblers often have hobbies that require, as does the job, an extreme amount of attention to detail, such as needlepoint, knitting, sewing and painting.

SOME FACTS ABOUT THE JOB FOR WHICH YOU ARE APPLYING

ONLY SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZED PARTS ARE HANDLED IN THIS STOCKROOM, THE LARGER PARTS ARE STORED IN A NEARBY WAREHOUSE. THE REMAINDER OF THE ROOM IS USED FOR TASKS SUCH AS THE KITTING, RECEIVING, AND COUNTING OF PARTS. IN THIS AREA, EACH EMPLOYEE HAS HIS OR HER OWN WORK STATION.

PERSONAL BELONGINGS ARE ALLOWED IN THE STOCKROOM AND ARE STORED AT EACH EMPLOYEE'S WORK STATION. HOWEVER, NO LOCKERS ARE PROVIDED. NO SMOKING, EATING, OR DRINKING IS PERMITTED AT THESE STATIONS.

THIS JOB REQUIRES THAT THE EMPLOYEE REMAIN AT HIS OR HER WORK STATION FOR DOING SUCH TASKS AS KITTING, VERIFYING PART NUMBERS TO PAPERWORK, AND UNPACKING AND COUNTING STOCK FOR ABOUT ONE-HALF OF THE WORKDAY. THE REST OF THE TIME IS SPENT AWAY FROM THE STATION PULLING PARTS FROM STOCK, DELIVERING INFORMATION TO THE COMPUTER INPUT PERSONNEL, OR PLACING PARTS IN STORAGE.

PERSONALITY TRAITS

THIS JOB REQUIRES THAT THE EMPLOYEE BE ABLE TO FOLLOW SET DIRECTIONS FROM INSTRUCTIONS, MAINTAIN THE REQUIRED PAPERWORK, USE BASIC ARITHMETIC SUCH AS ADDITION AND SUBTRACTION, AND PRINT LEGIBLY. THEREFORE, THE EMPLOYEE MUST HAVE A HIGH LEVEL OF CONCENTRATION, AND BE ABLE TO BE ACCURATE, NEAT, AND ALERT. THE JOB REQUIRES AN EXTREME AMOUNT OF ATTENTION TO DETAIL AND THE EXERCISING OF GREAT CARE WHEN MAINTAINING THE DISPOSITION OF ALL PARTS. OCCASIONALLY, THE EMPLOYEE IS RESPONSIBLE FOR SOLVING PROBLEMS SUCH AS INCORRECTLY SHIPPED PARTS OR MISMATCHED PARTS AND PAPERWORK. THIS MAY REQUIRE THEM TO COME INTO CONTACT WITH PROJECT COORDINATORS, SUPERVISORS, AND DISPATCHERS.

AFTER READING THIS JOB PREVIEW:

- I AM STILL INTERESTED IN APPLYING.
 I AM NO LONGER INTERESTED IN APPLYING.

SIGNATURE: _____

A STOCK CLERK IN THE MAIN STOCKROOM PERFORMS A VARIETY OF STOCKING AND ADMINISTRATIVE TASKS. THE JOB INVOLVES UNPACKING AND COUNTING ALL INCOMING, SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZED SHIPPED PRODUCTION PARTS AND TEST EQUIPMENT FROM OFFSITE FACILITIES OF THE POMONA DIVISION OR FROM THE INTERNAL FACTORY AREAS, CAREFULLY VERIFYING LONG PART NUMBERS TO THEIR ACCOMPANYING PAPERWORK, AND ROUTING ALL PARTS TO THE NECESSARY LOCATIONS. ADDITIONALLY, AS ONE OF THE ASSIGNMENTS, THIS JOB REQUIRES THE "KITTING" OF EITHER ELECTRONIC OR MECHANICAL PARTS. THE "KITTING" PROCESS CONSISTS OF MANUALLY FILLING AND PACKAGING AN ASSEMBLY ORDER ACCORDING TO SPECIFIC PLANNING INSTRUCTIONS. THESE KITS, WHICH ARE THEN READY FOR THE NEXT ASSEMBLY PROCESS IN THE FACTORY, ARE PLACED IN A CENTRAL HOLDING AREA FOR THE DISPATCHERS TO DISTRIBUTE TO THE FACTORY FOR PRODUCTION. THE STORING AND KITTING OF THESE PARTS REQUIRES PROPER HANDLING OF ALL PARTS AND PAPERWORK.

APPENDIX C

SOME SPECIFICS

HOURS

NEWLY HIRED EMPLOYEES ARE TYPICALLY PLACED ON FIRST SHIFT. THIS SHIFT BEGINS WORK AT 7:00 A.M. AND ENDS AT 3:30 P.M. WHEN OPENINGS OCCUR ON SECOND SHIFT, THOSE EMPLOYEES WITH LESS SENIORITY MAY BE REQUIRED TO FILL THE VACANCIES. THIS SHIFT BEGINS WORK AT 4:15 P.M. AND ENDS AT 12:45 A.M. BOTH SHIFTS HAVE A ONE-HALF HOUR LUNCH PERIOD AND TWO TEN MINUTE BREAKS.

UNION MEMBERSHIP

AS A CONDITION OF EMPLOYMENT PAYMENT OF UNION DUES IS MANDATORY AFTER 30 DAYS. UNION MEMBERS ARE REPRESENTED BY THE IAM (INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MACHINISTS AND AEROSPACE WORKERS).

PROBATIONARY PERIOD

A 60 DAY COMPANY PROBATIONARY PERIOD BEGINS ON THE DATE OF HIRE. DURING THIS TIME THE EMPLOYEE'S ATTENDANCE, PRODUCTIVITY, PERFORMANCE, AND WORK HABITS ARE EVALUATED. ALSO, DURING THIS PERIOD, THE DECISION TO KEEP THE INDIVIDUAL AS AN EMPLOYEE IS COMPLETELY FOR SUPERVISION TO MAKE. MOST EMPLOYEES, HOWEVER, SUCCESSFULLY PASS THE PROBATIONARY PERIOD.

TRAINING

NEW EMPLOYEES ARE GIVEN ON-THE-JOB TRAINING BY A FELLOW EMPLOYEE AND THE AREA'S SUPERVISOR DURING THE 60 DAY PROBATIONARY PERIOD. IT USUALLY TAKES THREE TO SIX MONTHS FOR A PERSON TO PERFORM EFFECTIVELY IN THIS JOB SO THAT A MINIMUM AMOUNT OF SUPERVISION IS NECESSARY.

TOOLS USED/SKILLS REQUIRED

THIS JOB INCLUDES NOT ONLY RECEIVING, PROCESSING AND STORING PARTS, AND KITTING ASSEMBLIES, BUT ALSO MAINTAINING ALL OF THE REPORTS THAT ACCOMPANY EACH OF THESE TASKS. APPROXIMATELY FIVE TO SEVEN DIFFERENT TYPES OF REPORTS ARE USED EACH DAY BY THE EMPLOYEES. COMMON OFFICE SUPPLIES SUCH AS SCISSORS, STAPLERS, PENS, AND TAPE ARE NEEDED FOR PACKAGING. A COMPUTER TERMINAL, MICROFICHE, AND CODE BOOKS ARE USED FOR CHECKING AND UPDATING THE DISPOSITION OF EACH PART. PARTS ARE STORED IN PLASTIC PANS OR CARDBOARD BOXES OF VARYING SIZES, AND PUSH CARTS ARE OFTEN NEEDED TO TRANSPORT THESE PARTS.

THIS JOB REQUIRES THAT THE PERSON BE ABLE TO FOLLOW WRITTEN DIRECTIONS FROM PLANNING DOCUMENTS AND WORK ON SEVERAL PROJECTS AT ONCE. ONE PARTICULARLY CRITICAL SKILL THAT THE EMPLOYEE MUST HAVE IS THE ABILITY TO COMPARE THE TAGGED PARTS TO PART NUMBERS ON THE PAPERWORK; APPROXIMATELY 30% OF AN EMPLOYEE'S TIME IS SPENT COMPARING THESE NUMBERS.

CLOTHING

TO PROTECT SENSITIVE PARTS FROM BODY OILS, FINGER COTS OR GLOVES MUST BE WORN FOR SOME OPERATIONS. CLOSED-TOE SHOES MUST BE WORN IN THIS AREA. CANVAS OR NYLON SHOES AND THOSE WITH SPIKED HEELS ARE NOT ALLOWED. SLACKS ARE REQUIRED; JEANS ARE ACCEPTABLE.

WORKING CONDITIONS

ABOUT 70 EMPLOYEES ARE NEEDED TO MAINTAIN THE STOCKROOM WHICH IS QUITE LARGE, BEING APPROXIMATELY THE LENGTH OF A FOOTBALL FIELD AND THE HEIGHT OF A TWO STORY HOUSE. PARTS ARE STORED ON A SERIES OF HIGH RISE SHELVES. CONVEYOR BELTS OR FORKLIFTS ARE NEEDED TO LIFT THE PARTS TO BE STOCKED ON THESE SHELVES. IN ADDITION TO THESE SHELVES, FLOOR SHELVES ARE ALSO USED FOR STORAGE, SINCE

SOME FACTS ABOUT THE JOB FOR WHICH YOU ARE APPLYING

ARE HANDLED IN THIS STOCKROOM, THE LARGER PARTS ARE STORED IN A HEAVY WAREHOUSE. THE REMAINDER OF THE ROOM IS USED FOR TASKS SUCH AS THE RECEIVING, PACKAGING, AND COUNTING OF PARTS. IN THIS AREA, EACH EMPLOYEE HAS HIS OR HER OWN WORK STATION.

PERSONAL BELONGINGS ARE ALLOWED IN THE STOCKROOM AND ARE STORED AT EACH EMPLOYEE'S WORK STATION. HOWEVER, NO LOCKERS ARE PROVIDED. NO SMOKING, EATING, OR DRINKING IS PERMITTED IN THESE STATIONS.

THIS JOB REQUIRES THAT THE EMPLOYEE REMAIN AT HIS OR HER WORK STATION FOR DOING SUCH TASKS AS UNPACKING AND COUNTING OF PARTS, VERIFYING PART NUMBERS TO PAPERWORK, AND BOXING OF THESE PARTS FOR ABOUT ONE-HALF OF THE WORKDAY. THE REST OF THE TIME IS SPENT AWAY FROM THE STATION PULLING PARTS FROM STOCK, FILLING ORDERS FOR PARTS GENERATED BY THE FACTORY, OR PLACING PARTS IN STORAGE.

PERSONALITY TRAITS

THIS JOB REQUIRES THAT THE EMPLOYEE BE ABLE TO READ VENDOR PAPERWORK, COUNT, PACKAGE, BOX AND STORE THE PARTS, USE BASIC ARITHMETIC, AND PRINT LEGIBLY IN BLOCK PRINTING. THEREFORE, A HIGH LEVEL OF CONCENTRATION, ACCURACY AND ALERTNESS IS NECESSARY. THE JOB REQUIRES AN EXTREME AMOUNT OF ATTENTION TO DETAIL AND THE EXERCISING OF GREAT CARE WHEN MAINTAINING THE DISPOSITION OF ALL PARTS. IT IS ALSO IMPORTANT FOR THE EMPLOYEE TO REMEMBER THAT HIS OR HER JOB IS A SERVICE JOB. WHEN PARTS ARE REQUESTED BY FACTORY PERSONNEL (USUALLY DISPATCHERS) EVERY EFFORT MUST BE MADE TO FILL THE ORDER IN A COURTEOUS AND TIMELY MANNER.

AFTER READING THIS JOB PREVIEW:

- I AM STILL INTERESTED IN APPLYING.
 I AM NO LONGER INTERESTED IN APPLYING.

SIGNATURE: _____

A STOCK CLERK IN THE MAIN STOCKROOM PERFORMS A VARIETY OF STOCKING AND ADMINISTRATIVE TASKS. THIS JOB BASICALLY INVOLVES UNPACKING, CHECKING, BOXING, AND LABELING SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZED PARTS THAT ARE SHIPPED TO THE POMONA DIVISION FROM OUTSIDE VENDORS. DURING THIS PROCESS IT IS VERY IMPORTANT THAT THE EMPLOYEE CAREFULLY VERIFY THE LONG PART NUMBERS THAT IDENTIFY EACH PART TO THE ACCOMPANYING PAPERWORK. AFTER THE PARTS HAVE BEEN MOVED AND LABELED, THE PERSON MUST STOCK ALL PARTS IN THEIR PROPER LOCATIONS. ADDITIONALLY, THE CLERKS ISSUE CERTAIN PARTS TO DIFFERENT AREAS OF THE FACTORY ON AN "AS NEEDED" BASIS. ONE OF THE ASSIGNMENTS OF STOCK CLERKS IS TO WORK OUTDOORS IN THE BARREL YARD. THIS JOB ENTAILS THE HANDLING OF BULK MATERIAL SUCH AS CHEMICALS IN 55 GALLON DRUMS AS WELL AS MAINTAINING THE ASSOCIATED PAPERWORK.

APPENDIX D

SOME SPECIFICS

HOURS

NEWLY HIRED EMPLOYEES ARE TYPICALLY PLACED ON FIRST SHIFT. THIS SHIFT BEGINS WORK AT 7:00 A.M. AND ENDS AT 3:30 P.M. AFTER THE REQUIRED 60 DAYS PROBATIONARY PERIOD, THE EMPLOYEE MAY BE ASKED TO SWITCH TO SECOND SHIFT. SECOND SHIFT BEGINS AT 4:15 P.M. AND ENDS AT 12:45 A.M. BOTH SHIFTS HAVE A ONE-HALF HOUR LUNCH PERIOD AND TWO TEN MINUTE BREAKS.

UNION MEMBERSHIP

AS A CONDITION OF EMPLOYMENT, PAYMENT OF UNION DUES IS MANDATORY AFTER 30 DAYS. UNION MEMBERS ARE REPRESENTED BY THE IAM (INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MACHINISTS AND AEROSPACE WORKERS).

PROBATIONARY PERIOD

A 60 DAY COMPANY PROBATIONARY PERIOD BEGINS ON THE DATE OF HIRE. DURING THIS TIME THE EMPLOYEE'S ATTENDANCE, PRODUCTIVITY, PERFORMANCE, AND WORK HABITS ARE EVALUATED. ALSO, DURING THIS PERIOD, THE DECISION TO KEEP THE INDIVIDUAL AS AN EMPLOYEE IS COMPLETELY FOR SUPERVISION TO MAKE. MORE THAN 95% OF THE PROBATIONARY EMPLOYEES, HOWEVER, DO SUCCESSFULLY COMPLETE THIS PERIOD.

TRAINING

NEW EMPLOYEES ARE GIVEN ON-THE-JOB TRAINING BY A FELLOW EMPLOYEE AND THE AREA SUPERVISOR FOR AT LEAST TWO WEEKS OR UNTIL THE NEW EMPLOYEE IS CONSIDERED CAPABLE OF WORKING INDEPENDENTLY. IT USUALLY TAKES THREE TO FOUR MONTHS FOR A PERSON TO PERFORM EFFECTIVELY IN THIS JOB SO THAT A MINIMUM AMOUNT OF SUPERVISION IS NECESSARY.

TOOLS USED/SKILLS REQUIRED

THIS JOB INCLUDES NOT ONLY RECEIVING, PROCESSING, AND STORING PARTS, BUT ALSO MAINTAINING ALL THE REPORTS THAT ACCOMPANY EACH OF THESE TASKS. APPROXIMATELY FOUR TO SIX DIFFERENT TYPES OF REPORTS ARE USED EACH DAY BY THE EMPLOYEES. COMMON OFFICE SUPPLIES SUCH AS SCISSORS, STAPLERS, PENS, AND TAPE ARE NEEDED FOR PACKAGING. EMPLOYEES ARE ALSO NEEDED TO TRANSPORT THE PARTS FROM THEIR WORK STATIONS TO SHELVES FOR STOCKING; CARTS ARE USED FOR THIS TASK.

THIS JOB REQUIRES THAT THE PERSON BE ABLE TO ACCURATELY READ A VENDOR'S PAPERWORK, COUNT, PACKAGE, BOX AND LABEL ALL PARTS. IT IS ALSO IMPORTANT THAT THE EMPLOYEES HAVE BASIC ARITHMETIC SKILLS SUCH AS ADDITION AND SUBTRACTION AND LEGIBLE BLOCK PRINTING. ONE PARTICULARLY CRITICAL SKILL THAT THE EMPLOYEES MUST HAVE IS THE ABILITY TO COMPARE TAGGED PARTS TO PART NUMBERS ON THE PAPERWORK; APPROXIMATELY 20% OF AN EMPLOYEE'S TIME IS SPENT COMPARING THESE NUMBERS. THE EMPLOYEES WHO WORK IN THE BARREL YARD MUST BE ABLE TO OPERATE A FORKLIFT FOR MOVING LARGE OBJECTS IN THE YARD.

CLOTHING

CLOSED TOE SHOES MUST BE WORN IN THIS AREA. CANVAS OR NYLON SHOES AND THOSE WITH SPIKED HEELS ARE NOT ALLOWED. SLACKS ARE REQUIRED; JEANS ARE ACCEPTABLE.

WORKING CONDITIONS

ABOUT 70 EMPLOYEES ARE NEEDED TO MAINTAIN THE STOCKROOM WHICH IS QUITE LARGE, BEING APPROXIMATELY THE LENGTH OF A FOOTBALL FIELD AND THE HEIGHT OF A TWO STORY HOUSE. PARTS ARE STORED ON A SERIES OF HIGH RISE SHELVES. CONVEYOR BELTS AND FORKLIFTS ARE OPERATED BY SOME EMPLOYEES TO LIFT THE PARTS TO BE STOCKED UP TO THESE SHELVES. IN ADDITION TO THESE SHELVES, FLOOR SHELVES ARE ALSO USED FOR STORAGE. SINCE ONLY SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZED PARTS

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