Funded by a grant from Pennsylvania's Research Coordinating Unit, three key seminar-practicum courses were designed for psychomotor and cognitive skills development in the food service area of post-secondary hospitality education. This 36-week, 3-course sequence utilizes weekly seminars, self-instructional packages, and "real-life" experiences in food production problems, foods administration, and food systems components. The extensive color-keyed instructional materials contain ten lessons and skill descriptions which include required reading materials, related questions, student worksheets, and answer keys. A wide range of visual aids illustrates the text, which is 3-hole punched for ease in insertion and removal of pages. The first annual report concerning the development of these instructional materials precedes the ten units, which include various resource materials and a pilot form of a vocational commitment index. (AG)
FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

Project 19-1016
School Unit 14-463

Development of a Validated
Instructional System for Hospitality
Education

Submitted to:

Dr. Furman Moody, Director
Research Coordinating Unit
Department of Education
Harrisburg, Pa. 17126

by:

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Human Development Building

THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE UNIVERSITY
University Park, Pa. 16802

July 1, 1972
I. Introduction

With funds made available by a grant from the Research Coordinating Unit of the Department of Education of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, the Food Service and Housing Administration Program has undertaken to develop a new approach to a number of key courses in post-secondary hospitality education. This approach relies principally on the development of a "seminar-practicum" which is based on a triad of learning opportunities: the workplace, self-instructional packages, and a weekly seminar.

In the fast growing field of hospitality education, the seminar-practicum offers three principal advantages.

1. The seminar-practicum eliminates the quantity foods lab which is expensive both from the point of view of the investment required to establish such a laboratory and the instructional operating costs of offering courses in such a laboratory.

2. The seminar-practicum should improve the quality of learning by moving the student from a laboratory simulation to a controlled experience in a "real world" setting.

3. Because the student is working in industry, he has an opportunity to earn while he learns, lowering the effective cost of education and, hence, making it available to lower income and disadvantaged groups.

The student in the seminar-practicum has the opportunity to learn from the workplace. The student's attention is focused, on a week-by-week basis, on different subject matter areas by the self-instructional packages and the learning experiences available to the student in the workplace are supplemented by subject matter content in the self-instructional package.
Finally, the student is involved in a weekly 2-1/2 hour seminar in which the "real world" can be contrasted with the "ideal world" of the text and matters not understood by the student can be clarified. An extremely important enriching element of this instructional system is thought to be the fact that students will, in effect, be teaching each other as they discuss their experiences in the seminar.
II. Instructional System Design

1. Course subject matter

The seminar-practicum courses are:

HFS 850 - Food Production Problems
Physical characteristics of principal food product groups considered. Topics include: preparation techniques, quality and cost control

HFS 860 - Food Production Systems
The principal Food Service Administrative routines are considered from the point of view of the supervisor and middle manager.

HFS 870 - Food and Beverage Administration
Components of food service systems are identified and studied as separate problems and as a total system.

2. The psychomotor domain

Psychomotor skills are required for each of the courses, although these are principally concentrated in the first course. It has been recognized that it is probably not practical to require the student to move uniformly through psychomotor learning experiences because the opportunities to work on the various stations where these skills may be acquired will not necessarily come to the student in the order desired. In general, therefore, it is expected that a certain number of psychomotor skills (75 of which have been identified for the first course) will be listed and the student will be expected, within the three course sequence of 36 weeks, to master each of these skills. Psychomotor skills appropriate to each week's subject matter will be specifically identified. The student will have the option of learning those skills that week, if possible, or of completing the skill learning assignment at some later
date. (or of having already completed at some earlier date.) He will be required to complete at least one-third of the skill learning assignments in each term.

Figure 1 presents a schematic diagram of the student behavior associated with psychomotor skills. The student identifies a skill from a list, practices it, and evaluates his own performance. If he is not satisfied, he has the option of seeking outside help or of doing it again by himself. If he decides to choose outside help, peer help from students or from employees in the place of employment is available. Having received outside help, the student has then the option to return and practice more or to move on to evaluation by the supervisor in the place of employment. If the supervisor considers that the student has not learned the skill, the student has the option of outside help or of practicing again by himself and he remains in this loop until he has not only satisfied himself, but his supervisor that he has learned the skill. At the time that the supervisor is willing to "sign off" on a skill, the student moves to another skill but is also subject, in the case of crucial skills, to academic faculty evaluation.

Psychomotor skill learning will be "accounted for" by giving the student a "skills form". On this form there will be a place for the skill number, the skill name, the student's signature certifying that he has learned the skill and the signature of his supervisor, certifying that he considers the student to have satisfactorily mastered this skill. There will be an additional provision for academic instructor validation in the case of crucial skills.

3. Cognitive domain

Figure 2 presents a model of the student behavior process in the cognitive domain. The student performs a learning activity and evaluates it by
answering or completing student workbook activities at the end of the content mentioned. If he judges that he has not yet learned it, he has the option of outside help including peer help and, if necessary, instructor help. At any point that the student is satisfied, he asks himself if he has completed all of the week's work and, if he has not, he moves on to the next learning activity. At the end of the week's work, workbook assignments are handed in to the instructor. Since most of the homework assignments will be self-tests with a key provided to the students for immediate feedback on whether he has or has not mastered the material, the grading significance of the homework and self-tests will be principally on a "go-no go" basis. The student receives credit if he has done the work and receives no credit if he has not.

The weekly class will begin with a class quiz covering the material assigned in the homework. If the student does not receive a satisfactory grade on the class quiz, a number of behavioral options are available to him, including relearning through peer help or instructor assistance, including the option of a requiz. The student, it is necessarily true, may decide to ignore poor performance.

Similarly, the class discussion performs a kind of self-test in which the student can ask himself whether he is satisfied with his performance, and if he is not, once again he has a number of behavioral options available to him, including relearning by himself, through peer help or by assistance from the instructor. Again, it is always the student's option to ignore unsatisfactory performance. At the end of each class, all students proceed to the next week until the tenth week of the class has been reached. At the end of that number of weeks, subject to final examination, a grade is recorded, and the student moves on to the next course.
While the above indicates a required progression, the concept of the seminar-practicum has been significantly refined as a result of interaction with Mr. Clarence Dittenhaffer of the Research Coordinating Unit Staff in Harrisburg. It had been earlier suggested by Dr. Mager, a consultant used during earlier quarters that the class not be forced to focus on just one station at each meeting in HFS 850 and that students be free to discuss whatever station they were interested in. While this seemed like a useful idea, staff could not determine exactly how such a class would be conducted. Accordingly the idea was shelved for use at a later date. In conferences held with Mr. Dittenhaffer both at University Park and at the RCU offices in Harrisburg, a concept which permitted the orderly movement through the package materials on a week-by-week basis in HFS 850 and at the same time permitted students to discuss those subjects which were of interest to them because of their work assignments during that week emerged. It is intended that the first portion of the class will be devoted to a discussion of the subject matter assigned for the week. Since many students will not have worked on that station, it is intended that this section of the class will principally be aimed at answering questions regarding text materials and making certain that students do, indeed, get through all the material at least one time. Also, during this period certain lecture material related to that subject matter or appropriate demonstrations may be presented.

During the second portion of the class, students will be asked to divide into interest groups to discuss briefly with peers who have had similar work assignments during the week, the problems discovered on various stations. (Students will be encouraged, if not required, to do the reading appropriate to the station on which they are working at the time that their work assignment takes them there as well as at the time that the class is assigned the
subject matter of that station.

Interest groups will then report questions and reactions to the instructor for discussion by the entire class. The project staff are indebted to Mr. Dittenhaffer of the Research Coordinating Unit for his interest and assistance in improving the format of the proposed seminar for HFS 850. Because the materials found in HFS 860 and 870 are significantly more conceptual in nature, it is not anticipated that this deviation from the general model will be possible in those courses.

4. Use of "Ideal Restaurant"

Sample instructional package design work has concentrated thus far principally on the first two courses. The presentation of the material has been facilitated by the identification and description of a "pedagogically ideal restaurant" which has been named the HFS (pronounced Bar HFS). The function of the HFS is to compare and contrast for the student an ideal model with the real-world work setting in which he is engaged. One of the important functions of the weekly seminar will be to discuss the contrast between the student's workplace and the "ideal" material presented in the HFS. One of the roles of the instructor will be to identify which variations from the ideal are acceptable and which are generally not acceptable.

Clearly, an important function of the HFS is to give a pedagogical means of establishing certain basic standards of performance and quality since students will be working in various work settings in which quality compromises may commonly be accepted.

5. HFS 850 Food Production Problems

A set of draft packages has been completed for HFS 850. This draft package is included as Appendix A of this report. It will be noted that the
student moves from work-station to work-station in progress through this course, familiarizing himself with the principles, problems, and practices related to the preparation of various food groups. In this course, it is intended to provide the student with the knowledge base necessary to supervise skilled workers. The principal emphasis is not on making the student a cook, but on giving the student reasonable level of familiarity which enables him to interact with skilled workers as an equal.

6. HFS 860 Food Production Systems

This course is now complete in first draft form. That draft, however, is not in sufficiently final form to be a useful adjunct to this report. It is hoped that the draft of HFS 860 may be included as an appendix of the first quarterly report for the academic year 1972-73 to be submitted in October 1972. Work on this course has proceeded at a slower pace because a much wider variety of subject matter specialists have had to participate in the development of subject matter for the course.

7. HFS 870 Food and Beverage Administration

Work is just beginning on the draft of HFS 870, although layout and design materials have been developed for this course and submitted to a consultant, Fred Schmidt Associates.
III. Validation

The development, refinement, and establishment of the Vocational Commitment Index has been completed. It appears to be a valid and reliable instrument to employ in the research for this project. A complete report on this index is included in the test manual attached as Appendix B.

The development of an achievement test for post-secondary hospitality education is completed. Although the test has not been pilot tested, information on test reliability and validity will be secured when it is administered during the Fall of 1972 for the purposes of testing project hypotheses. The test and manual is attached as Appendix C.

To secure data on the subject's socio-economic status, Hollingshead's (1957) Two Factor Index of Social Position will be employed. In view of the time required to complete all of the data gathering instruments, it appeared useful to select a method for assessing socio-economic status which would not require a lengthy device. The Hollingshead technique classifies the occupation and education of the subject's father according to the following scales:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupations</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Higher Executives, Proprietors, Major Professionals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Business Managers, proprietors of Medium Sized Businesses, Lesser Professionals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Administrative Personnel, Small Independent Businesses, Minor Professionals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>Clerical and Sales Workers, Technicians, Owners of Small Businesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>Skilled Manual Employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Machine and Semi-skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>Unskilled.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Occupations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Class</th>
<th>Range of Computed Scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I Upper Class</td>
<td>11-17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II Upper-middle Class</td>
<td>18-27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III Lower-middle Class</td>
<td>28-43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV Upper-lower Class</td>
<td>44-60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V Lower-lower Class</td>
<td>61-77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hollingshead's Two Factor Index of Social Position is derived by multiplying the continuum rating by the factor weight. The occupation and education factors are weighted with values of 7 and 4, respectively.

The Hollingshead social positions are finalized in the following manner:

Work Under Way

A device to be used by employers to rate subject's work performance has not yet been secured. However, one device which could be used or adapted for use is found on the following page.

Securing the samples for hypothesis testing has been begun but additional contact is needed to arrive at dates, times, places and numbers of subjects for data collection.
The following institutions have indicated a willingness to cooperate in providing subjects for this project:

Hotel and Resort Management Department
Paul Smith College
New York, New York

Hotel, Restaurant and Travel Administration Department
University of Massachusetts
Amherst, Massachusetts 01002

Food Service and Housing Administration
The Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pa. 16802

Data collection will require the administration of the packet of tests including the Vocational Commitment Index, the Achievement Test for post-secondary hospitality education and a personal data form. The test packet cannot be mailed to subjects and a test administrator will be needed to collect data.

Dr. Mary Quam was contacted to explore the possibilities of presenting the project at the 1973 Convention of the American Home Economics Association. This possibility has been confirmed by Dr. Quam whose letter is attached to this report as Appendix D.
APPRaisal RATING DEFINITIONS

Each factor is to be rated on one of the five degrees defined.

QUALITY OF WORK PRODUCED

5 Production always unusually high. Works very fast and steadily.
4 Production usually more than required. Considered noticeably satisfactory. Fast, steady worker.
3 Production normally meets standard requirements. Average worker. Performance satisfactory.
2 Production usually below standard requirements. Slow worker. Performance unsatisfactory.
1 Production very unsatisfactory. Seldom meets standards. Leaves, wastes time.

KNOWLEDGE OF JOB

5 Outstanding knowledge of present job and necessary related work. Considered as possessing highest skill and experience at regular assignment.
4 Good knowledge of present job and necessary related work. Considered thoroughly capable at regular assignments.
3 Fair knowledge of present job and necessary related work. Considered as possessing only average skill and capabilities.
2 Possesses no skill beyond routine work on present job. Work is generally unsatisfactory requiring close supervision and considerable instruction beyond average requirements.
1 Inadequate and definitely unsatisfactory knowledge of present job. No knowledge of related work. Unable to absorb or retain instruction.

CO-OPERATION AND DEPENDABILITY

5 Always reliable. Excellent teamworker. Accepts and handles assignment unusually well. Requires very little supervision.
4 Usually reliable. Good teamworker. Handles assignments very well. Requires little supervision.
3 Co-operates, but sometimes only to degree he deems necessary. Average dependability. Requires average supervision.
2 Unco-operative attitude and usually undependable. Requires close supervision.
1 Very unco-operative and very poor teamworker. Very unsatisfactory and unreliable. Requires excessive supervision.

ATTENDANCE AND PUNCTUALITY

5 Very punctual. Rarely absent or late without good cause.
4 Very punctual. Seldom absent or late without good cause.
3 Generally punctual. Occasionally absent or late without good cause.
2 Frequent:ly absent or late without good cause.
1 Habitually absent or late without good cause.

RATING

ABILITY TO PERFORM OTHER JOBS

5 Outstanding all-round employee. Performs all jobs expected of him exceptionally well and learns new jobs very fast. Considered as possessing highest skill and wide experience on generally related work.
4 Performs most jobs expected of him well and learns new jobs fairly fast. Good all-round employee. Considered thoroughly capable and experienced on generally related work.
3 Performs a few different jobs well but has difficulty in learning some new jobs. Requires at least average amount of time in becoming proficient at any new type of work. Considered only moderately versatile.
2 Slow in learning most new jobs although may perform some routine tasks in satisfactory manner. Very limited ability and normally considered only capable of performing simple tasks.
1 Exceedingly slow in learning new work of any type and generally incapable of performing even routine tasks in a satisfactory manner. Unable to follow or remember instructions except those involving very simplest of routine.

JUDGMENT

5 Has unusual ability to analyze, to evaluate, and to make prompt decisions which promote customer good will. Conclusions very sensible, intelligent, and reliable.
4 Capable of some analysis and of making most decisions relating to work. Conclusions usually sensible and reliable.
3 Judgment usually dependable on semi-routine matters. Has average ability to analyze and evaluate facts. Conclusions usually reliable although considerable time required to make decisions.
2 Judgment erratic and not very reliable. Seldom analyzes facts and conditions. Requires close supervision and guidance.
1 Has very poor ability to analyze facts and exercise independent judgment. Decisions seldom practical or sound or acceptable to customers. Requires excessive supervision and guidance.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

5 Excellent, well-balanced personality. Even temperament. Very neat and presents very good appearance. Impress customers and employees favorably.
4 Very good, friendly personality. Generally neat and presents good appearance.
3 Has average personality. Usually neat and presents satisfactory appearance.
2 Frequently inclined to be sullen or moody. Careless about appearance.
1 Ill-natured or unpleasant personality. Sloppy in appearance.
IV. Implications of this program

The assistance granted by the Research Coordinating Unit to the Food Service and Housing Administration Program in the development of instructional design expertise has had a very considerable impact on the work of that program. A Special Improvement Project was submitted to Allied Health in January of 1972 and has subsequently been funded in the amount of $190,000 to be spent over the coming five years with funding during the first year at $63,000 level. These funds will be used to prepare, within the existing two-year curriculum, a separate set of self-instructional packages appropriate to hospital food service. This project also funds a full-time instructor for the York Campus of the Pennsylvania State University. This project, which is intended as a pattern for other two-year institutions, would simply not have been forthcoming had it not been for the work done on the development of the general model of this instructional system and the expertise developed under the grant from the Research Coordinating Unit of the Department of Education.

As increasing sophistication develops in instructional system design, the interests of the workers involved in the project begin to broaden. As a direct result of the instructional system design work undertaken under the subject grant, work is now going forward on developing other innovative curricular structures. A proposal has been submitted to Allied Health for the development of an external associate degree for dietary technicians, making use of correspondence and other media in a manner such that a student need never be involved in formal classroom settings. A similar proposal is in the process of preparation to be submitted to the Department of Agriculture. This proposal intends to use the same curriculum shell but to develop material appropriate for School Food Service Managers.
It is difficult to measure the impact of the subject grant in any quantitative way, but, in summary, it is appropriate to note that hospitality education has long been a highly traditionalist field and that these traditionalist patterns are, indeed, being broken both by work being done under the grant from the Research Coordinating Unit and by work which has been stimulated by the exposure to that project.
% of skills noted as "crucial" evaluated by student and establishment supervisor only
90% of skills noted as "crucial" evaluated by academic faculty member
10% of skills noted as "crucial" spot-checked by academic faculty member

Includes classmates and employees of the establishment

Figure 1

Model: Diagram of Student Behavior Process (Psychomotor)
Figure 2

Model: DIAGRAM OF STUDENT BEHAVIOR PROCESS (COGNITIVE)

Includes classmates and employees of establishment.
September 20, 1972

Dr. Furman Moody, Director
Research Coordinating Unit
Pennsylvania Department of Education
P.O. Box 911
Harrisburg, Pa. 17126

Dear Dr. Moody:

In my recent annual report, I inadvertently neglected to specifically state that the excellent work so manifested in that report having to do with the preparation of validation instruments for our new curriculum was undertaken by Dr. Susan Weis of the Home Economics Education Department of this University.

I sincerely regret this error on my part because, without Dr. Weis' invaluable contributions, the work we are doing with this curriculum would simply not be possible. I would very much appreciate your making this letter a part of the annual report and submit, herewith, ten copies for that purpose.

Thank you for your consideration in this matter.

Very truly yours,

THOMAS F. POWERS
Professor in Charge
Food Service & Housing Administration

TFP:rw
Encl.

cc: Dr. Weis
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to express their gratitude to Dr. Twyla M. Shear, Dr. Robert F. Mager, and Dr. Frank H. Waskey for their invaluable assistance in the design of the instructional system for Food Production Operations and in the critical review of the text. While these contributors were helpful in improving our work, they are certainly not responsible for any deficiencies which may remain.
INTRODUCTION

Welcome to the HFS Restaurant (pronounced Bar HFS). In the coming weeks you will get to know this restaurant pretty well, and, at the same time, you will be working in your own establishment. We have presented the HFS because we want you to have a look at a high standard for an operation that is fairly complicated and quality conscious. In many cases your own workplace will have better solutions to problems than those that we present in the HFS. In other cases, the quality standards of the HFS may be higher than those which are judged necessary in your operation. We are at no point suggesting that the place you are working in is "wrong". We are suggesting that there is a standard of operation that is generally desirable. One of the most important things that you will do is to compare the HFS with the operation you are working in and the other operations that friends of yours in class are working with by way of seeing how many different good solutions there are to a problem--and every now and then seeing some "solutions" which really are not acceptable. You will, then, be developing a pretty cosmopolitan view of food service which recognizes the wide variety of practice and at the same time you will be developing your own personal standards--and I hope that you will make it a point to see that those standards are really high because quality food service will always be the name of the game.

The HFS really exists--we can't say just where--but if it did not exist we would have to invent it to serve as a vehicle for presenting the information we want you to know about food production (and in later courses about food service supervision and food service systems analysis). The HFS not only helps us to present this material, it helps us to organize it in a meaningful way that will lend itself to supporting your learning experience
on the job.

It is important to notice that you may not be working on the station that you are expected to study in a given week, but you will be in a position to observe that station and to ask the person working on that station questions that seem useful to you. Therefore, you should be able to perform the learning tasks that we have assigned in the text for that station even if you are not working on the appropriate station in a given week.

In this course we are looking at what academics call "the knowledge base" connected with food production. That is to say that we have identified the important generalizations and facts that you ought to know in order to prepare yourself for your work. Let us notice that your work is not the work of a cooks. Your work is the supervision of cooks. You are not expected to become an expert cook--although the more expertise you develop, the easier your life will be as a supervisor. You are expected to develop a basic familiarity and a vocabulary which permits you to work with and supervise the highly skilled workers of a kitchen. One of the most important characteristics of the food service team is that the worker expects the supervisor to be able to step in and help when the worker gets "stuck". You had better be able to be of help to your workers when you become a supervisor or you will find yourself "stuck"--that is, you will be unable to function as a leader of skilled workers.

In succeeding courses, we will continue to look at the food service operation but at a supervisory and managerial level. There is no point in looking at food service supervision and management, however, until you have acquired the basic skills necessary to permit you to interact with the skilled workers who make up the food service team.
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<td>Cereals, Starches and Pasta</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>SKILLS (Performance Descriptions): (White)</td>
<td>1-27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ABOUT THE COURSE

This course has been especially designed to be completed while you, the student, are working in some type of food service operation. Each week you will be given a different lesson to complete before coming to the next seminar. These lessons will consist of information that you must read and master, questions related to this information that you must answer, and a variety of other activities that you must complete. (This will be explained in more detail by your instructor.)

COURSE OUTLINE (Revised)

Week 1: Introduction to EFS, Recipes, Measuring, Cooking Terms
Week 2: Sanitation and Safety (and Equipment)
Week 3: Vegetables
Week 4: Salads
Week 5: Starches and Pasta
Week 6: Soups, Sauces and Gravies
Week 7: Desserts
Week 8: Breakfast, Short Order, Sandwiches
Week 9: Meats I
Week 10: Meats II
ABOUT LESSON 1

The material in Lesson 1 includes the importance of tested, standardized recipes, the importance of accurate measuring in food production, and the necessity of understanding common cooking terms. After you complete this lesson, you should be able to do the following: read and understand recipes, convert recipes to produce a larger or smaller number of portions, know equivalent measures, and know how to measure specific ingredients.

STUDENT DIRECTIONS

1. Read pages 1-16.
2. Complete the Workbook Exercises on pages 17 and 18.
3. Check your answers with the Workbook Key on page 19.
4. If you have answered questions incorrectly, re-read the appropriate material and re-answer any questions you missed before going on to #5.
   Read the Introduction to the RifS on pages 20-22.
5. Read the RifS SPECIFICS on pages 23 and 24.
6. Answer the RifS questions on page 25.
7. You have now completed Lesson 1. If you still feel you do not understand any part of this lesson, consult with a classmate, a fellow worker, the establishment supervisor, or the University instructor about your questions. You will be given a quiz on the material presented in Lesson 1 during the next class seminar.
MEASURING AND RECIPES

During the last ten years or so, food preparation has developed as a science or a system of skills which is very complex. It is no longer necessary for a person to depend on personal experience and apprenticeship to master the field of cookery. Before now, learning to cook was mainly a system of trial and error. Mastery was developed only after long hours of practice. Even this experience did not provide answers to why some products could not be properly prepared.

Master chefs and experienced cooks (even your grandmother or mother) developed their skills over a long period of time. They developed their own recipes largely by trial and error or perhaps by memorizing a basic recipe and changing it as time went on. The experience of making food items over and over again eventually allowed the cook to prepare the item without measuring ingredients at all—he could tell by looking or touching that the amount he used was correct. He might say that he developed a "sixth sense" (accuracy) by practicing many hours.

You can see how difficult it would be for an untrained person to successfully produce quality food items time after time if he did not have this "sixth sense." This mastery would come only after long hours of practice, experience, and usually, mistakes. Even after this ability to combine the correct quantities without measuring was developed, it may only hold true for that one cook's recipes. And if a recipe was not written but only memorized, a person who was training to become a cook will have problems when he tries to prepare other unwritten recipes with which he is not familiar. His training was dependent upon the person who did the teaching and differed greatly from place to place and from cook to cook. In view of these facts, it is easy to understand why training took such a great deal of time and why so few "skilled" cooks were ever produced.
There are still many people who depend largely upon this system for learning
to cook. In quantity (and quality) food service operations this system is
inefficient and unreliable. Therefore, it is necessary to utilize the advancements
that science has made to prepare persons for skilled positions in a short
period of time. Standardization in cooking is a development which has greatly
assisted to achieve this end.

The standardization of measuring equipment is one area that was a result
of advancement. Instead of directions that read "a teacup" of this, there have
been exact terms stated--"one cup." Half of a liquid pint--eight fluid ounces--
was adopted as the standard measuring cup. Its equivalent is 16 level table-
spoons. The cup is graduated on one side to read 1/4, 1/2, and 3/4; the other
side reads 1/3 and 2/3.

A set of standard measuring spoons consisting of one tablespoon, one
tea spoon, 1/2 teaspoon, and 1/4 teaspoon was also adopted. The latter two insure
accuracy when small amounts are called for and simplify the process of measuring
them. The tablespoon is the equivalent of three level teaspoons.

In addition to standard measures, standard cooking terms and standard
temperatures have greatly helped the food service industry to train people
and to consistently produce quality products.

The standardized methods previously mentioned and the use of standardized
recipes have enabled persons to produce a "standard" product. One of the most
difficult jobs for a cook is recognizing a quality or standard product.
Therefore, it is a necessity that such methods be used so the product can be
easily evaluated.

Standardized recipes use standard measures, terms, and instructions to
take guesswork out of cooking. These recipes should be carefully tested as to
the quantities or weights of various ingredients, methods of combining, cooking
process and time, and the yield or number and size of servings.
Is it necessary to use each recipe without any variation? The answer is no. A recipe is a written set of instructions for the preparation of a specific dish. The cook should treat recipes sometimes as an order and sometimes as a series of suggestions. Therefore, it is important to be able to distinguish between the essential and non-essential ingredients in a recipe.

What ingredients should be considered essential in a tested recipe? In general, those ingredients which determine the consistency, lightness, and tenderness of a mixture should be used in the proportion given in a recipe. In a hot cake, for example, the amount of flour, liquid, fat, sugar, baking powder and egg should be altered only on the basis of experience. A cook may discover that one type of flour may not require as much liquid as another type, consequently, he would hold back a portion of the liquid specified in the recipe.

What ingredients would be considered optional in a tested recipe? In contrast to the ingredients which determine the basic characteristics of many mixtures, there are other ingredients which may be used in greater or smaller amounts—or even left out entirely. In this group come spices, flavoring extracts and other ingredients affecting flavor. Here the recipe can express only the preference of a small group of individuals. It is for each user to modify it to suit the tastes of the greatest number of persons being fed. If the cookbook puts onions in meat balls, but the people prefer them without onions, this change should be made. Recipes for salads and sandwich fillings usually represent mere suggestions as to combinations of ingredients. The cook should not hesitate to leave out an ingredient which is not available or to add something which seems appropriate. Amount of salt, pepper, and spice should be altered to suit the taste of the customers.

What procedures should be followed for using a recipe? In all cases, before you start to make a dish, read the recipe all the way through. If any cookery term, ingredient, or method is new to you, look up its meaning.
Next, get out and assemble on your work table all the cooking utensils you will need. Recipes indicate pan and casserole sizes. If your recipe calls for ingredients measured in both spoons and cups, you will know that you will need measuring spoons and a measuring cup. By reading your recipe you will know if you need a sauce pan, skillet, double boiler, or any other equipment.

Next, line up and measure out all the ingredients called for, being accurate in your measurements. Remember that the abbreviation "C." means cupful, "t." or "tsp." means teaspoonful, "T." or "Tbsp.," means tablespoonful and "f.g." means few grains.

Why is it necessary to have standard methods for measuring ingredients? Standard measuring equipment as well as standard methods for measuring ingredients have been established. If there were no standard ways to measure ingredients, measuring equipment would not serve its purpose. For instance, if four cooks are measuring a cup of flour and each used his own method of measuring, there would probably be four different amounts of flour.

How should flour be measured? Flour should be sifted once before measuring. In filling the cup, dip flour with a spoon and fill lightly into the cup until the cup is heaping full. Cut off level with the edge of a knife. Do not dip cup into flour as this causes packing of the flour and you get more than a cup. It is important not to shake or tap the cup while it is being filled, as either will cause packing of the flour and will result in more than a cup.

What other ingredients call for special measuring procedures? There are special measuring procedures for liquids, fat, sugar, sirup or molasses. It is necessary to know the types of food that require special handling and the proper procedure to use. In all cases, remember that measurements are level.

If the dish is one that is to be baked you should next turn on the oven heat and set the oven heat control for the desired temperature.
LADLES

Ladles may be used in serving soups, creamed dishes, stews, sauces, gravies, and other similar products.

The following sizes of ladles are most frequently used:

- 1/4 cup (2 ounces)
- 1/2 cup (4 ounces)
- 3/4 cup (6 ounces)
- 1 cup (8 ounces)

SERVING SPOONS

A serving spoon (solid or perforated) may be used instead of a scoop. Since these spoons are not identified by number, it is necessary to measure or weigh food in the spoons used to obtain the approximate serving size desired.

SCOPES

The number of the scoop indicates the number of scoopfuls it takes to make one quart. The tables below show the numbers and approximate capacities for scoop sizes commonly used in portion control.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scoop Number</th>
<th>Level Measure</th>
<th>Ounces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2/3 cup</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1/2 cup</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>2/5 cup</td>
<td>3-1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1/3 cup</td>
<td>2-1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1/4 cup</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>3-1/5 tablespoons</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>2-2/3 tablespoons</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>2-1/5 tablespoons</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>1-3/5 tablespoons</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The care the finished product receives is important. Follow closely any directions given for removing cakes from the pan, unwrapping gelatin desserts, etc.

Quite often one is faced with the problem of needing more or less of a product than is specified in a recipe. Recipes may be doubled or halved according to need, if certain precautions are taken. First, make sure that all ingredients in a recipe are either increased or decreased. To that end, it is well to write the new proportions beside those on the page of the cookbook. Otherwise, even the experienced cook will find that he has used half the batter and all the flour, etc.

There may be slight differences in the cooking of foods as a result of the changed proportions. For example, if half the recipe for cornstarch pudding is being made in a full-size boiler, a greater proportion of water will evaporate from the surface and the pudding may be unpleasantly thick unless a small amount of milk is added to compensate for the evaporation. The milk may be added warm and stirred into the product, thereby thinning the mixture.

No change is introduced in the baking time as long as the size of the unit is not altered. In other words, two pans of corn bread will cook as quickly as one pan, but if a larger amount is placed in one pan, the baking time will be increased. By observing these few precautions it is possible to prepare double a recipe or cut the recipe in half without difficulty.

It is not advisable to make more than double a recipe. If more is needed, simply prepare the number of mixes necessary.

HOW TO CONVERT RECIPES

Step 1: Divide the desired yield by the known yield of the recipe to obtain your basic FACTOR. (120 divided by 60 = 1 1/2)

Step 2: When possible, convert to weight all amounts of ingredients given in the original recipe. (If some ingredients are in such
small amounts that they cannot be changed to weight leave them in measure and follow Step 3 carefully for them just as you do for weighted amounts.) Add weights of all ingredients to get the total weight of the original recipe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ingredient</th>
<th>Portion: 1/2 scoop</th>
<th>2 gallons</th>
<th>3 gallons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ingredient A</td>
<td></td>
<td>1-1/4 gal.</td>
<td>To student: each quantity under the 2 gallon column is multiplied by 1.5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredient B</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 lb. 9 oz.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredient C</td>
<td></td>
<td>12 oz.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredient D</td>
<td></td>
<td>12 oz.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredient E</td>
<td></td>
<td>1-1/4 tsp.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredient F</td>
<td></td>
<td>14 oz.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredient G</td>
<td></td>
<td>1-3/4 qt.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredient H</td>
<td></td>
<td>2-1/2 T.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredient I</td>
<td></td>
<td>14 oz.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredient J</td>
<td></td>
<td>11-1/2 oz.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Volume</td>
<td></td>
<td>2 gallons</td>
<td>3 gallons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Weight</td>
<td></td>
<td>19 lbs. 1-1/2 oz.</td>
<td>28 lbs. 10-1/4 oz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Portions</td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Step 3: Multiply the amount of each ingredient in the original recipe by the FACTOR. In the example, this means you multiply each by 1.5.

Step 4: Multiply the original total weight by the FACTOR. You may find it easier to multiply pounds and ounces separately by 1.5 and then combine them.

\[
\begin{align*}
(19 \text{ pounds} \times 1.5 &= 28.5 \text{ pounds} \\
(1-1/2 \text{ ounces} \times 1.5 &= 2-1/4 \text{ ounces}
\end{align*}
\]

Be careful to convert fractional or decimal parts of a pound correctly when you total them.
Step 5: Add together the new weights of all ingredients for the adjusted recipe. If your answers for Step 4 and Step 5 are not the same, check your calculations and find the mistake. A mistake in arithmetic will certainly spoil your product.

Step 6: Change weights of any ingredients which can be more easily measured than weighed back to measure. (With practice, you need not change individual ingredients to weights. Your competence in multiplying or dividing by the FACTOR greatly determines this.)

Note: In most quality cook books there is a table for converting measured amounts of certain foods to weights to eliminate unnecessary measuring and weighing. In many instances it is simply easier to use the FACTOR to multiply or divide both weights and measures rather than rounding all ingredients to weights.

As has been previously stated, it is necessary that a person preparing food from a recipe understands the words used in the directions in that recipe. It will be to your advantage if you learn the following common terms:

**COMMON COOKING TERMS**

**Bake:** To cook by dry heat, usually in an oven. Griddle cakes may be baked on hot metal.

**Barbecue:** To roast or cook slowly, basting with a highly seasoned sauce.

**Baste:** To moisten with liquid, seasoning, or melted fat during cooking to prevent drying of surface and to add flavor.

**Beat:** To use a fast, rotary, over and under movement to incorporate air into a product.

** Blanch:** To cook in hot, deep fat for a short time until partially cooked but not brown. To dip in boiling water for a few minutes for the purpose of removing the skins from vegetables, fruits and nuts. In some instances, blanched foods are dipped in a cold bath to shrink or cool the product after blanching.
Blend: To mix thoroughly two or more ingredients so they lose their original properties and become an entirely new mixture.

Boil: To cook in water in which bubbles rise and break at the surface.

Braise: To brown in fat and then cook slowly in a small amount of liquid in a covered utensil.

Bread: To cover with crumbs or other suitable dry coating material.

Broil: To cook by direct heat.

Brown: To produce a brown color on the surface of food by subjecting it to heat.

Chop: To cut any food into small pieces.

Coat: To completely cover the outer surface of any food with a suitable coating material such as flour or crumbs.

Cream: Using a spoon or mechanical mixer to soften the consistency of any given food.

Cube: To cut any food into cube shaped size.

Dice: Same as cube.

Dot: To place small pieces of such foods as butter or cheese over surface of a food product to be baked or broiled prior to putting in oven.

Fold: To combine two or more ingredients together with a cutting and folding motion.

Fricassee: To cook by browning in a small amount of fat followed by stewing or steaming. Similar to braising.

Frying: To cook in fat.

1. Pan frying or sauteeing---Small amount of fat used.
2. Shallow frying---Food partially covered with hot fat.
3. Deep fat frying---Food surrounded by hot fat.
Garnish: To add suitable accessory to a food item for color and eye appeal.
Grate: To rub any food over a rough surfaced instrument, such as a grater, to break it into small pieces or shreds.
Grill: To cook on a griddle, draining or scraping off fat as it collects.
Marinate: To place in oil, cream, milk, vinegar, French dressing or lemon juice for a period of time to alter the flavor, improve the flavor, or soften the product.
Pan-Broil: To cook in dry, hot frying pan, pouring off fat as it collects.
Parboil: To partially cook in boiling water.
Pare: To remove the skin or rind from any food by cutting off with a knife or other suitable instrument.
Peach: To cook food in a simmering liquid.
Purée: To press food through a sieve or a food mill.
Render: To melt and separate fat from meats by heating slowly at low temperature.
Roast: To cook by dry heat, usually in an oven.
Roll: To cover pieces of food with flour, cornmeal or crumbs.
Sauté: To cook in a small amount of fat on top of the stove.
Scald: To heat a liquid to a point just below the boiling point.
Score: To cut shallow slits in a food item, across the top or in a pattern.
Shred: To cut or tear in small pieces or strips.
Sift: To run dry ingredients through a sifter to remove lumps or impurities.
Simmer: To cook in a liquid just below the boiling point at a temperature of 185° F. to 210° F. Bubbles form slowly and break below the surface.
Stew: To simmer in a small quantity of liquid.
Stir: To blend two or more ingredients, using a circular motion with a spoon or other suitable instrument.
Toast: To brown any food by direct heat either over or under the direct source of heat.
Toss: To mix lightly two or more ingredients.
Truss: To bind or fasten securely. Used mainly in reference to poultry.
Whip: To beat rapidly in order to increase volume by incorporating air.
MEASURING EQUIPMENT

The standard measuring cup is of 1/2 pint or eight ounce capacity. Cups can now be had which are based on United States standards and are so labeled. Subdivisions are marked on the cup for measuring one-fourth, one-half, three-fourths, one-third, and two-thirds cup. The majority of cups do not show smaller subdivisions.

Individual cups for fractional measurements as well as full cup measurements are also available. The fractional cups, if standardized, permit more nearly accurate measurements than can be obtained in the cup with subdivisions.

Measuring spoons are standardized as well as measuring cups. Sets of spoons which measure one tablespoon, one teaspoon, one-half and one-fourth teaspoon can be obtained. Sixteen level tablespoons are required to fill one cup, and three level teaspoons are equal to one level tablespoon.

How to Measure Staple Foods

Granted that accurate measuring equipment is available, measuring problems still exist. Inaccuracies may occur through the manner in which the equipment is used. Also, variable and individual methods which may be used tend toward producing less uniform results than may be obtained when certain fairly well standardized methods of measuring are used.

Flour. Flour should be sifted once before measuring. Sifting should be fairly recent, since sifted flour tends to pack on standing. The quantity of flour sifted at one time is best limited to an amount which will not tend to pack.

In filling the cup, dip flour with a tablespoon and fill lightly into the cup until the cup is heaping full. Cut off level with the edge of a knife. It is important not to shake or tap the cup while it is being filled, as either will cause packing of the flour. Fractional cups are measured by leveling as
accurately as possible to the mark. In filling tablespoon or teaspoon, fill spoon heaping full by dipping into flour. Cut off level with the edge of a knife. Half spoonfuls are measured by cutting in half lengthwise and scraping out half. Quarter spoonfuls are measured by cutting in half crosswise into two equal portions and scraping out half.

**Liquid.** Place cup upon a flat surface and fill as full as the cup can be filled without overflowing or spilling the contents when it is carefully lifted.

**Fat.** Solid fats should be removed from the refrigerator long enough before measuring to permit them to become plastic. Very hard fats are difficult to measure accurately. Press the fat into the cup so that air spaces are forced out. Cut off level with the edge of a knife. In measuring fractional cups, cut off top surface at the division mark. For measurements up to one-quarter or one-third cup, it is probably easier and quicker to measure by level tablespoonfuls. The water displacement method may also be used. To measure one-half cup of solid fat, for example, the measuring cup is half filled with water and then enough solid fat is added to bring the water level to the one cup mark.

**Sugar.**
1. Granulated—Fill cup as for flour, omitting sifting.
2. Brown—Roll out lumps. Press sugar firmly into the cup. Measured in this way, one cup of brown sugar is approximately equal to one cup granulated sugar.
3. Confectioners'—Roll out lumps, then sift. Measure as for flour. One cup of confectioners' sugar is slightly heavier than one-half cup of granulated sugar. About one and three-fourths cups of confectioners' sugar is equal to one cup granulated sugar.
Sirup or Molasses. Place cup upon a flat surface. Fill completely full. Because of the thickness of the liquid it may tend to round up higher than level full. Cut off level with the edge of a knife. Measure spoonfuls by pouring sirup into spoon and cutting off level with the edge of a knife.

Care should be used to avoid spilling fats and sirups on the outside of the cup or spoon.

Symbols for Measurements

- t = teaspoon
- c = cup
- T = tablespoon
- f.g. = few grains

Table of Common Measurements Used in Food Preparation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 t = 1 T</td>
<td>12 T = 3/4 c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 T = 1 c.</td>
<td>5-1/3 T = 1/3 c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 T = 1/2 c.</td>
<td>10-2/3 T = 2/3 c.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 T = 1/4 c.</td>
<td>2 c. = 1 pt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table is useful enough to justify memorizing it. The following table of measurements and weights will also be found valuable because of its usefulness.

Approximate Number Cups or Units in a Pound of Some Common Foods

- 2-1/4 c. granulated sugar
- 4 c. grated cheese
- 4 c. family or bread flour
- 2 c. butter or other fat
- 4-1/2 c. pastry flour
- About 10 average eggs (without shells)

A Guide to Common Can Sizes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Can Sizes</th>
<th>Approximate Cups Per Can</th>
<th>Average Net Weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8 oz.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8 oz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 1 (picnic)</td>
<td>1-1/4</td>
<td>10-1/2 oz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 300</td>
<td>1-3/4</td>
<td>15-1/2 oz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 303</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1 lb.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 2</td>
<td>2-1/2</td>
<td>1 lb. 4 oz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 2-1/2</td>
<td>3-1/2</td>
<td>1 lb. 13 oz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 oz.</td>
<td>5-3/4</td>
<td>46 oz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. 10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6 lb. 9 oz.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LADLES

Ladles may be used in serving soups, creamed dishes, stews, sauces, gravies, and other similar products.

The following sizes of ladles are most frequently used:

- 1/4 cup (2 ounces)
- 1/2 cup (4 ounces)
- 3/4 cup (6 ounces)
- 1 cup (8 ounces)

SERVING SPOONS

A serving spoon (solid or perforated) may be used instead of a scoop.

Since these spoons are not identified by number, it is necessary to measure or weigh food in the spoons used to obtain the approximate serving size desired.

SCOOPS

The number of the scoop indicates the number of scoopfuls it takes to make one quart. The tables below show the numbers and approximate capacities for scoop sizes commonly used in portion control.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scoop Number</th>
<th>Level Measure</th>
<th>Ounces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2/3 cup</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1/2 cup</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>2/5 cup</td>
<td>3-1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1/3 cup</td>
<td>2-1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1/4 cup</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>3-1/5 tablespoons</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>2-2/3 tablespoons</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>2-1/5 tablespoons</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>1-3/5 tablespoons</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONVERSION OF TEMPERATURES

Conversion of Centigrade to Fahrenheit

°C times 9/5 plus 32 equals °F

Conversion of Fahrenheit to Centigrade

°F minus 32 times 5/9 equals °C
WORKBOOK EXERCISES

Lesson 1

1. In what three ways has standardizing affected the food service industry?

2. Fill in the blanks:
   A. One quart = ____ ounces.
   B. One pint = ____ cups.
   C. One cup = ____ ounces.
   D. One gallon = ____ pints.
   E. One tablespoon = ____ teaspoons.
   F. One cup = ____ tablespoons.

3. Matching:

   ____ 1. Beat
   ____ 2. Blend
   ____ 3. Fold
   ____ 4. Stir
   ____ 5. Whip

A. To blend two or more ingredients, using a circular motion with a spoon or other suitable instrument.

B. To use a fast, rotary, over and under movement to incorporate air into a product.

C. To mix thoroughly two or more ingredients so they lose their original properties and become an entirely new mixture.

D. To beat rapidly in order to increase volume by incorporating air.

E. To combine two or more ingredients together with a cutting and folding motion.
Convert this recipe to produce 75 portions:

Chocolate Soufflé - 50 portions (202)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ingredients</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>Volume</th>
<th>New (Volume) Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Butter</td>
<td>8 oz.</td>
<td>1 c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Flour</td>
<td>5-1/2 oz.</td>
<td>1-1/3 c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Salt</td>
<td>1 tsp.</td>
<td>1 tsp.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Milk</td>
<td>3 lb.</td>
<td>1-1/2 qt.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Chocolate, unsweetened</td>
<td>8 oz.</td>
<td>1 c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Sugar</td>
<td>10-1/2 oz.</td>
<td>1-1/3 c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Egg yolks</td>
<td>10 oz.</td>
<td>1-1/4 c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Egg whites</td>
<td>1 lb. 2 oz.</td>
<td>2-1/4 c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Cream of Tartar</td>
<td>2 tsp.</td>
<td>2 tsp.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Sugar</td>
<td>10-1/2 oz.</td>
<td>1-1/3 c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K. Vanilla</td>
<td>3/4 oz.</td>
<td>1-1/2 T.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
KEY TO WORKBOOK EXERCISES

Lesson 1

1. Standardized recipes, standardized measures, and common or standardized cooking terms have aided in producing consistent quality products.

2. A. 32
   B. 2
   C. 8
   D. 6
   E. 3
   F. 16

3. Matching
   1. E
   2. C
   3. E
   4. A
   5. D

4. Key measure
   A. 1-1/2 c.
   B. 2 c.
   C. 1-1/2 tsp.
   D. 2-1/4 qt.
   E. 1-1/2 c.
   F. 2 c.
   G. 1-7/8 c.
   H. 3-3/8 c.
   I. 1 T.
   J. 2 c.
   K. 2-1/4 T.
THE EFS: A MODEL RESTAURANT

At the end of each lesson in this course, there will be a section called "EFS SPECIFICS" and one called "EFS EXERCISES". The EFS SPECIFICS will further explain the types of things you read about in each lesson and will apply them to a model restaurant (The EFS).

The EFS is a 300 seat restaurant based on a Western theme (thus, the name "Bar EFS"). It serves breakfast, lunch and dinner meals, has a 50 seat cocktail lounge with a complete bar set-up, and two smaller banquet rooms that can accommodate private parties of up to 50 persons each.

Like all privately owned establishments, the main purpose of the EFS is to make a profit so that it can stay in business. This can be done only if the restaurant manager and the other EFS employees use the available resources in the best way possible and if they satisfy the needs of the customers at the same time.

Since the EFS is located in an area where there are many other restaurants that compete with it for customers, special emphasis must be placed upon meeting the demands of the customers. If this is not accomplished, there is nothing to stop the people from going to a restaurant down the street.

Before looking at the EFS resources, it should be understood that like most food service operations, the EFS does not have a large profit margin. Reasons for this are as follows:

1. It has a large investment in equipment.
2. It has rather large fixed expenses (wages, gas, electricity and so on).
3. In relation to #1 and #2, the volume of sales is small.

In view of these three facts, the necessity of making the most of available resources is clear.

There are four major classes of resources that are available to the EFS (or any food service operation) that must be managed to create a profit. They are man (labor), money (capital), machinery (equipment and physical plant), and materials (food and supplies). The way in which the manager and his staff use these resources
will determine two things: 1) the degree of customer satisfaction, and 2) the amount of profit the HFS will recover from the operation.

The interrelation of resources and the management of them is illustrated in the following example:

Assume that a restaurant has sufficient equipment to produce large quantities of food. If this same restaurant does not have enough waitresses to provide efficient, courteous service to the customers, the customers will not return to that restaurant. Lack of customers will eventually put the operation out of business.

The exact opposite of the above situation is also a problem:

Assume that the restaurant has enough waitresses to serve the customer, but that its equipment is old and does not have the production capacity to supply the necessary quantities of food. The result is this: some of our resources (the waitresses) will be standing around waiting for food to serve to the customer, and the customer will become very nervous and irritated that his meal is taking so long to get to him.

Because of the importance of proper resource management, these four resources will be discussed further in the HFS SPECIFICS at the end of each lesson. At this time it is important for you to see that without using resources in the best way possible, a food service operation will not be able to make a profit.

A common starting point for all food service operations is a menu that will satisfy the desires of the intended customer. The HFS is no exception. It is the menu that determines the amount and kind of necessary equipment and the physical layout of this equipment, the number of employees and the skills they need, and the amount of money needed to operate the business.

The menu also determines how the work units, which will be referred to as 'stations', are organized in the kitchen so as to create a logical and efficient flow of food products to the customer. From the HFS 850 course outline, one can see that each lesson deals with various activities that take place in a typical restaurant or food service operation. In lessons 3 through 10, the emphasis is upon food production problems that a food service worker may encounter. The HFS SPECIFICS for these lessons will tell you which worker performs certain tasks and
will show you the equipment he uses. You will be required to make comparisons and contrasts between the GFS operations and those of your work place. Such contrasts are important to note since they will present differences between an "ideal" situation and a practical situation. (NOTE: When there is a difference between what takes place in your work place and what this course teaches, do not condemn your work place. This will only cause unpleasantness for you and friction will develop between you and the people with whom you work. Instead of telling them they're wrong, try to discover WHY the situation is handled like it is and make notes in your workbook as to how some things could be changed.) These differences that you record will be used as discussion points in the class seminar.
FIGURE 1.2: IFS KITCHEN

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EFS SPECIFICS: LESSON 1

The IIPS is a restaurant that relies heavily on internal controls such as standardized recipes, predicted yields, and portion control, to make a profit from the food it sells. In terms of the four available resources, the system can be explained as follows: The worker must prepare food products using certain equipment. The worker is paid a wage, food products cost money, and the equipment must be bought and operated which creates bills. If the worker makes a mistake, say in making pie dough, all of the resources have been affected. Assume the worker added 3 tablespoons of baking powder instead of 3 teaspoons of baking powder and did not realize his mistake until after the pie crusts were baked. The worker's mistake wasted time since his efforts would have to be repeated (which means he still collects money for putting in time even though he will accomplish one job in twice the normal amount of time that job takes), certain food products have been wasted which costs the establishment money, and since the oven and mixer were used in making the first pie crusts, the cost of using them was also wasted since new pie crusts must also be prepared. On the other hand, if his mistake was not discovered until after the pies were served, the customer satisfaction would decrease because the pie tasted lousy, and the establishment's reputation and business would decline.

The above example is one that explains the necessity of following a recipe. Had the worker been more observant in the first place, none of the resources would have been misused. An inferior product may be the result of not following the recipe.

Likewise, if a cook does not measure recipe ingredients exactly, does not combine the ingredients properly, and/or fails to follow the proper cooking instructions, the final product may not be of high quality. In view of the importance of recipes, measuring, understanding recipe terms, and cooking instructions, it is clear that the IIPS cooks must practice these procedures.
The HFS cooks sometimes have to convert recipes to produce a larger or smaller yield than that for which the recipe is written. More often, HFS recipe cards include a chart that represents volumes of 50, 100, and perhaps 200 portions.

Converting recipes requires not only a knowledge of multiplying or dividing but also an understanding of equivalent measures. For example, if a recipe that yielded 100 servings had to be decreased to serve 50, and one ingredient was 1 Tablespoon lemon juice, the person must know that 1T = 3 tsp. in order to know that 1 1/2 teaspoons of lemon juice must be used. Failure to extend or decrease a recipe properly may yield a poor finished product.

If, while preparing a certain product, the cook does not understand any part of the recipe, he asks either the head cook or the HFS dietitian to explain what is not clear. This prevents the possibility of making an unnecessary error. This idea is one you (as a trainee) should practice frequently. Nobody expects you to know everything—if you did you wouldn't be there. Remember: It's better to ask a stupid question than to make a stupid mistake.

On a typical day in the HFS, most station cooks follow these procedures:

1. When he (or she) is ready to begin preparing the day's menu items, he first obtains the worksheet for his station. The worksheet tells him the foods he must prepare for lunch and dinner and the amounts he should prepare. (All breakfast items are made to order.)

2. Along with the worksheet, he is given all the recipe cards he will need to prepare these food products.

3. Depending upon the amount of necessary preparation and cooking time, the cook may work on a number of food items at a time so that they are all ready for serving when needed. He may determine his own time schedule or it may be written for him by a superior. The time schedule is an approximate one that helps the cook to gear his progress to meet the serving time.

4. In the process of preparing food items, the cook may come across recipe terms that are not familiar to him. Since his understanding of these terms will determine the success of the finished food product, it is his responsibility to find out the meaning of the terms and how to perform the activities associated with them. A fellow worker, the head cook, or a dietitian are usually his most reliable resources.
HPS EXERCISES

1. Are the recipes used in your establishment standardized? (Describe how you know if they are or are not.)

2. How could the recipe system in your operation be improved?

3. Who in your work place determines how much of a certain recipe should be produced?

4. Who is responsible for converting a recipe if a larger amount must be made?

5. If there are things about a recipe that you do not understand, who in your establishment do you ask to explain things?
ABOUT LESSON 2

The material in Lesson 2 deals with basic principles of accident prevention and sanitation. After you read this lesson, you should know and apply the rules to prevent machine injuries, burns, falls, strains, food poisoning, and food contamination. The emphasis is placed upon what preventive measures you, as a food service worker, can take to make your establishment safer and more sanitary.

STUDENT DIRECTIONS

1. Read pages 1-12.
2. Complete the Workbook Exercises on pages 13 and 14.
3. Check your answers with the Workbook Key on page 15.
4. If you have answered questions incorrectly, re-read the appropriate material and re-answer any questions you missed before going on to #5.
5. Read the HFS SPECIFICS on pages 16-18.
6. Answer the HFS questions on pages 19 and 20.
7. On page 21 you will find a list of SKILLS appropriate for this lesson. Practice these SKILLS whenever possible. When you feel you have mastered any one SKILL, go to the work place supervisor and perform the SKILL. If he feels you have performed the SKILL adequately, he will complete the checklist form, sign and date it, and will give it to you. You must hand this paper in to your class instructor at the next class meeting. This is the procedure to follow for all SKILLS.
8. You have now completed Lesson 2. If you still feel you do not understand any part of this lesson, consult with a classmate, a fellow worker, the establishment supervisor, or the University instructor about your questions. You will be given a quiz on the material presented in Lesson 2 during the next class seminar.

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SAFETY AND SANITATION

This lesson will deal with an overview of the basic principles of safety and sanitation in a food service operation. You, as a food service employee, must know and apply the concepts discussed in this unit. Failure on your part to practice these general rules may cause you physical harm or may cause your work place to gain a bad reputation.

SAFETY AND ACCIDENT PREVENTION

Accidents in a food service operation can generally be prevented if the working conditions are safely maintained and if the worker develops safe working habits. The worker can prevent accidents generally by using all tools, utensils, and equipment properly, by wearing appropriate clothing, by maintaining an orderly work station, and by practicing safe work habits when lifting and moving items. In order to accomplish the above, the following specific rules must be applied:

1. To prevent cuts from knives:
   A. Always use the right knife for the job. Knives are designed with specific uses in mind. The style of the blade and its size makes it easy for the worker to perform the task for which that particular knife was made. If the worker uses the wrong knife for the job, not only is he making it more difficult for himself, but he is also risking a serious cut. The right knife for the job makes the task easier, not harder for the worker.
   B. Know how to use the knife. Beside being able to choose the right knife for the job, the worker must use the knife properly. One of the main causes of knife cuts is improper use of the knife. When possible, cut away from yourself. Keep hands and fingers clear of the blade. To prevent cuts if the knife slips, do not put your hand in the line of cutting or near it.
C. Always use a sharp knife. Many people hesitate to use sharp knives since they regard them as being dangerous. This is untrue since a sharp knife requires less effort to use than does a dull one. Using a dull knife can be very frustrating to the worker and frustration causes carelessness. If a worker knows how to use a knife properly to begin with, the sharpness of the blade is a definite advantage instead of a drawback. (Learn how to sharpen knives properly.)

D. Keep knives in their proper place or in plain view. When a knife is stored properly with the sharp edge down, there is little chance that the next person to use it will get cut due to your carelessness. If a knife is set aside for a while, be sure it can be seen by other workers. Do not put it where it can be knocked off the workbench by a person walking by.

E. If a knife falls, don’t try to catch it. It is better to let the knife break than to seriously cut yourself. A knife can easily be replaced—not so with a worker!

F. Use a cutting board. Cutting boards are designed so that they do not slip around on the work surface. They also eliminate slipping of the item being cut. It is also better to use a cutting board than to permanently damage the surface of a work table that was not intended for that purpose.

G. Always pay attention to what you are doing. A serious cut may be the result of talking to someone or looking around when you should be concentrating. If you have to socialize, don’t cut at the same time.

H. Never argue or play games with a knife in your hands. A sharp knife is a dangerous weapon. It is not meant to be handled by a fool or a careless person.
2. To prevent cuts from broken glass and dishes:
   A. Never handle broken dishes or glass with your bare hands. Sharp edges and small slivers can easily give you a cut you weren't expecting. Remove broken articles with a broom and dustpan; any remaining glass should be carefully picked up with a wet paper towel and properly disposed of.
   B. Dispose of broken glass in a special container. This prevents the possibility of harming another person who may not be aware of its presence.
   C. Never pass broken glass to another person. By allowing a broken item to get past you, an innocent person may fail to see the danger, thus risking an unnecessary injury.

3. To prevent strains:
   A. Lift items with your legs rather than with your back. It is not childish to bend your knees. By bending you use your legs as a lever to easily lift heavy loads. Bending at the waist requires your back to do all the work. A bad strain could keep you out of work for a lengthy period of time.
   B. Ask for help with heavy loads. If you think an item is too heavy for you, don't be afraid to get help from a co-worker. After all, you're a food service worker, not a circus strongman!
   C. Use a properly loaded dolly or cart. To move many items, it is to your benefit to use a cart or a dolly since this saves work and trips. Be sure not to overload the cart or dolly—make sure you can easily maneuver it and can see where you're going.

4. To prevent burns:
   A. Learn what areas are possible sources for burns and scalds and be particularly careful when you are working with or near them. Your general awareness can prevent serious injury.
B. Warn others when something is hot. This is a good habit to develop since others will know to avoid bumping into you. This prevents both you and them from possible burns.

C. When you operate any heating equipment, know what you’re doing. You should know recommended pressures for steam equipment. Avoid exposed steam pipes. Open steam valves slowly. If you find a leak in a steam pipe, report it immediately to your supervisor.

D. Be careful when you are using a boiling kettle. If it has a lid, lift the back of the lid away from you so that the escaping steam does not hit you in the face. When stirring, use a long-handled utensil. Use hand protection when stirring or moving a hot kettle. Do not fill the kettle to the top since this makes it difficult to stir and handle.

E. When using the deep fat fryer fill the kettle with fat only to the line. If you overfill the container you encourage splashing and spilling of the hot fat. A basket should be used to lower food into the fat since dropping food in creates splashing and encourages burns.

F. Be careful when lighting a gas oven or burner. Always check pilot light before turning on the gas. Make sure the range is properly ventilated and gas oven or burner is off before lighting the pilot. After pilot is on, stand back when turning on gas.

G. Always use dry towels or hot pads to carry hot containers. Never use your apron since it may not be adequate protection. Wet towels or pot holders should not be used since they conduct heat.

H. Make sure the handles of pots and pans on the range are turned away from the aisle. A serious burn could result if the pan is knocked from the range and spills over the person.
5. To prevent falls:

A. **Always wear proper footwear.** Rubber soled shoes are recommended since they provide better traction than leather or composition soles. High heeled shoes should not be worn.

B. **Wipe up what you spill on the floor immediately.** If you just leave it, it is a hazard for another person who may not see the wet area and slip.

C. **Pick up anything you drop on the floor.** Again, this is a potential hazard to your co-workers.

D. **If you see a hazard developing, report it to your superior.** Traffic area hazards should be corrected immediately.

E. **After mopping a floor with soapy water, dry mop the area.** If an area is still wet, put up a sign in the area that is big enough to be seen.

F. **Be careful when climbing stairs.** Stairways should be properly lit. You should use the handrail whenever possible. Even when carrying things, make sure you can see your feet.

G. **Be careful when using a ladder.** In the first place, use the ladder! Do not stack boxes or use a chair to reach items. Make sure the ladder is sturdy and will hold your weight. Place the ladder directly in front of what you're after. Avoid having to reach while you're off-balance. Do not put up the ladder in a place where someone may trip over it (especially while you're standing on it!).

6. To prevent machine injuries:

A. **Do not operate any machine unless you have been trained to operate it.** Always follow machine directions. Although machines save time and energy, they can be very dangerous if not properly operated.

B. **Do not wear loose clothing, jewelry, or anything that can snag on the machine.**

C. **If the machine has safety guards, make sure they are in place before you turn on the machine.**
D. Make sure the power switch on the machine is in the "off" position before you plug the power cord into the electrical outlet.

E. Always make sure your hands are dry and that you are standing on a dry surface before plugging in a power cord.

F. Use a plunger to force food into a grinder—not your hands.

G. If a machine jams, turn it off before you try to free it. Then use only the proper tools to free the machine.

H. Report any machine that malfunctions. Do not try to fix it yourself.

I. Always disconnect the machine from the power source before you begin to clean it. Then, if you accidentally turn the machine on, no damage is done.

In addition to the part a worker plays in accident prevention, the establishment can also assist in lowering the accident rate in the following ways:

1. By providing proper lighting.
2. By keeping work areas uncluttered.
3. By seeing that there are no obstacles in traffic areas.
4. By having non-slip floor surfaces.
5. By quickly fixing all things reported by employees as potential hazards.
SANITATION

Since you have previously completed a three credit course in Sanitation, this section of Lesson 2 will serve as a review to you.

For these purposes, the following four aspects of sanitation that apply to the food service worker will be considered:

1. Personal cleanliness, health, and work habits.
2. Food handling and storage.
3. Cleaning equipment.
4. Cleaning other parts of the food service facility.

Your personal cleanliness, health, and work habits have a great effect upon the maintenance of sanitary conditions where you work. Learn and apply these rules:

1. Always keep your hands clean and out of direct contact with food as much as possible. Your hands carry germs that can infect the food and may create illness for the customers.
2. Never handle food if you have cuts or infections on your hands.
3. When tasting food, use a clean spoon for each taste or use a tasting dish. Once you have used a spoon, you may transfer germs from it into the food if it is used again.
4. Always grasp cooking utensils, eating utensils, and serving plates by the part that does NOT come in contact with the food.
5. Always wear a clean uniform and a clean apron. Germs can be transmitted from your clothing to the food.
6. If you are sick, don't go to work. The germs from your illness can contaminate food.
7. Never smoke in the food preparation area. If you do smoke, wash your hands before going back to work. Your hands pick up germs from your mouth when you smoke and can infect the food.

The second area of concern for the food service worker is that of handling and storing foods. Both in their raw and cooked stages, foods can become contaminated unless proper precautions are taken. The following rules should be learned and practiced:

1. Always keep pests away from food. Flies, roaches, and other pests are carriers of germs and should be exterminated. Never keep poisons near the food or in a place where they might be mistaken for harmless spices or food products used in cooking.

2. Always employ processes that control the growth of germs in food.
   A. By keeping foods stored at temperatures below 45° F., growth of germs is retarded. Since germs need warmth, water, and food to grow, refrigeration limits growth. Reducing the temperature of the food within two hours is necessary and can easily be accomplished by storing food in shallow pans. Although cooling does not kill germs, it limits their growth.
   B. Once foods have set at room temperature for any length of time, even cooling does not do much good. Room temperature (of any temperature between 45° F. and 140° F.) is ideal for the growth of harmful germs and bacteria. At these temperatures the growth is very great.
   C. At temperatures above 165° F., most disease-causing bacteria are killed. However, even if they are killed, the poisons that they produce are not destroyed and still contaminate the food. Some bacteria and germs can survive temperatures from 140° F. - 165° F., but most are killed above this range.
3. Food products must be properly refrigerated. The idea of proper refrigeration includes:

A. Packing food loosely to allow the air to circulate among food products and making sure vents are not blocked.
B. Covering food to protect it from dripping, from taking on or giving off odors, and from drying out.
C. Placing prepared foods above raw foods since the moisture from raw foods that carries germs should not be allowed to contaminate prepared foods.
D. Opening the refrigerator door only when necessary to reduce a change in the temperature.
E. Checking the temperature of the refrigeration unit daily.
F. Defrosting the refrigeration unit before 1/4" of frost develops on the elements so that a maximum amount of cooling takes place.

The third area of concern for the food service worker is that of properly cleaning the equipment used for food preparation. Since the equipment comes in direct contact with the food, a piece of equipment that is not properly sanitized carries bacteria and germs that are potential hazards to the food and the customer.

Some general tips for cleaning the equipment you use are as follows:

1. Clean the equipment as soon as possible after it has been used. Waiting makes it more difficult to remove food particles since they dry out and stick to the equipment.

2. Learn the procedures for cleaning all equipment, especially those machines with movable or removable parts.
3. Use only the proper types of cleaning fluids or powders that are specified for cleaning that piece of equipment. Certain abrasive materials and cleaners should not be used unless indicated by the manufacturer.

Now read pages 24-26 in the booklet Sanitation of Food Service Establishments that is included in this lesson.

The final area of concern is cleaning other parts of the food service facility. This category will include pots and pans, dishes, silverware, and cooking utensils.

Read pages 17-23 in the sanitation booklet included with this lesson.

Keep in mind that the same general rules hold true for this section that were mentioned in the cleaning of equipment. In addition, when you handle clean dishes and utensils, do not touch the area that will come in contact with the food.

A reminder: The most important step in sanitizing any piece of equipment or any utensil is the RINSE process. The act of washing merely dissolves food particles into solution. The rinse serves to remove the dissolved solution and sanitize the item by using water of a high temperature. This is why it is so important to maintain a high temperature rinse so that any remaining bacteria will be killed.
RULES FOR ALL FOOD SERVICE WORKERS

1. Report every injury at once, regardless of severity, to your supervisor for first aid. Avoid delay.

2. Report all unsafe conditions. Look for damaged chairs, tables, or electric fixtures.

3. Understand the safe way to perform any task assigned to you. If in doubt, see your supervisor. Never take unnecessary chances.

4. Aisles, passageways, stairways must be kept clean and free from obstructions. Do not permit brooms, pails, mops, cans, boxes, etc., to remain where someone can fall over them. Wipe up any grease or wet spots from stairs or floors at once. These are serious falling hazards.

5. Walk, do not run, in the hall, down stairs, or around work areas. Be careful when passing through swinging doors.

6. Wear safe, sensible clothes for your work. Wear safe, comfortable shoes, with good soles. Never wear thin-soled or broken-down shoes. Do not wear high-heeled shoes for work. Ragged or over-long sleeves or ragged clothing may result in an injury.

7. If you have to reach for a high object, use a ladder, not a chair or table. Be careful when you have to reach high to fill coffee urns, milk tanks, etc.

8. Keep floors clean and dry. Pick up any loose object from the floor immediately to prevent someone from falling.

9. Do not overload your trays. Trays should be loaded to give good balance. An improperly loaded tray can become dangerous.

10. Dispose of all broken glass and china immediately. Never serve a guest with a cracked or chipped glass or piece of china. Check all silverware.

11. Help new employees to work safely on the job. Show them the right way to do the job—the safe way.

12. Get help with heavy lifting. Crouch down, don't bend over. Lift with the legs, and keep the back straight.

13. Be familiar with the fire alarm boxes and the use of fire extinguishers and equipment.
RULES FOR HANDLING FOOD PROPERLY

1. Keep perishable foods under refrigeration until used.

2. Keep hot foods hot (140° F. or above) and cold foods chilled (40° F. or less).

3. Remove left over foods from Bain Marie, and/or other food warming devices immediately after each feeding period.

4. Cool left over foods at room temperature promptly and place under refrigeration as quickly as possible.

5. Never hold hot foods in the Bain Marie or, other food warming devices from one feeding period to the next. Bain Marie temperatures are usually too low to kill bacteria and are ideal for the rapid growth of bacteria over a period of several hours.

6. Wash your hands thoroughly with soap and water after using the lavatory. Keep hands out of your hair, eyes, and mouth. All cuts and/or sores you have should be reported for treatment.

7. Eliminate flies, roaches, rodents and other pests.

8. Never use galvanized containers for the storage of moist or acid foods.

9. Food workers must be healthy since colds and other diseases may be passed on to others.
Lesson 2

1. What are the six specific areas of accident prevention that are discussed in the Safety Section of this lesson?
   A.  
   B.  
   C.  
   D.  
   E.  
   F.  

   TRUE OR FALSE

2. _____ Aside from knowing how to use the proper knife for a job, your next biggest concern is how to clean the knife.

3. _____ Knives should be kept in plain view when they have been set aside for a moment.

4. _____ The first thing to do when you see a piece of broken glass or china is to find out who broke it.

5. _____ When cleaning up broken glass, remove the largest pieces by hand.

6. _____ A cart or dolly should be used when moving heavy loads.

7. _____ When hot pads are not around, use your apron to lift a hot pot or pan.

8. _____ When you are lifting the lid of a hot kettle, remove it quickly.

9. _____ By warning others when something is hot, you help prevent accidental burns.

10. _____ Improper lighting is a safety hazard.

11. _____ Use a ladder that supports your weight when you are climbing.

12. _____ Do not use any equipment you have not been trained for.

13. _____ A wedding band is the only article of jewelry that may be worn by a food service worker on the job.

14. _____ By standing on a wet floor while plugging in a machine, one can become a victim of electrical shock.

15. _____ When cleaning a machine, the primary concern is to make sure the switch is in "OFF" position.
16. Germs are killed when food is refrigerated or frozen.

17. If you are sick, stay home rather than risking the chance of contaminating the food with which you work.

18. The "danger zone" (when bacteria grow and reproduce best) is between 45° and 120° F.

19. Once the bacteria have been killed, a food product is safe for eating.

20. Shallow pans are recommended for storing cooked food since they allow food to cool faster than when in deep pans.
KEY TO WORKBOOK EXERCISES

Lesson 2

1. A. Preventing cuts from knives
   B. Preventing cuts from glass.
   C. Preventing strains.
   D. Preventing burns.
   E. Preventing falls.
   F. Preventing machine injuries.

2. False
3. True
4. False
5. False
6. True
7. False
8. False
9. True
10. True
11. True
12. True
13. False—No jewelry
14. True
15. False
16. False
17. True
18. False
19. False
20. True
The HFS, as you will see in the SPECIFICS for lessons 3 - 10, produces a wide variety of menu items that require the food service workers to operate many different types of equipment. If a worker does not practice safety measures while he is using this equipment, he leaves himself open to injury. In turn, if the worker is hurt, the establishment will have to employ a replacement for the injured worker and may have to pay for doctor and/or hospital bills (and perhaps unemployment benefits).

Not only is safety a necessity when a worker operates machinery—it must be employed at all times to prevent cuts, burns, falls, and strains. The establishment's design of the work stations (placement of equipment, walkways, and the like) can make the workplace less of a hazard to the employee. They may have non-slip surfaces on the floors, well-lighted stairways, adequately lighted work stations, and enough space between equipment to prevent crowding. But the safety of the working conditions still rests upon the workers. When the workers are careless in performing their jobs, accidents occur more readily.

The employees of the HFS have been trained to recognize potential safety hazards and to report them. They have learned accident prevention measures and they practice these measures on the job. To encourage safety in the HFS, the management has this incentive plan: for every month on the job that a worker does not lose time on the job because of an accident, he receives 1/2 day free paid vacation. He can "win" up to a week's vacation with pay in a year. This system increases all worker's awareness of safety procedures and, in turn, increases their productivity during the hours they work.

In addition to being safety conscious, HFS workers are constantly encouraged to practice sanitation. The management has posted signs in the dressing rooms and lavatories that remind the workers to wash their hands before returning to their stations. Cleanliness of the stations and the equipment is also stressed by the supervisors. All employees are trained how to clean the station areas and equipment and how to properly store and handle food products to prevent spoilage and food poisoning.
Safety and sanitation in the EFS are not looked upon as being childish precautions that are easily ignored. The workers are encouraged to view safety and sanitation as a way of life that must be practiced to have a successful food service operation. A safe, clean establishment is a reflection of employees that take pride in their jobs.

The dishroom in the EFS greatly resembles that of any food service facility. (See Figure 2.1) It is the responsibility of the morning dishwasher to set up the dish machine as described in SKILL #1. Once the machine is ready for use, the activity in the dishroom proceeds as follows: As the dishes are removed from the serving areas, they are placed on a conveyor belt that moves them into the dishroom. One worker removes excess food and garbage from the dishes, sprays them to remove soft particles of food, and places them in racks for washing. These racks move the soiled dishes into the three-compartment dish machine where they are washed, rinsed and sanitized. The same basic process is followed for silverware except that it is soaked first for a short period of time to soften the food particles. (All silverware, glasses, and dishes should be separated for washing.) Once the dishes have run through the machine, a second worker removes them from the racks and sorts them into piles. The same is done for glasses and silverware. The clean utensils are taken to the serving line or to the place where they are used for service.

At least once each day, usually at closing time, the dishwasher must clean the dish machine. He follows the procedure outlined in SKILL #2 to perform the operation.

The potwashing area in the EFS is shown in Figure 2.2. It includes an area where soiled pots, pans, and other utensils are stacked before soaking, a soaking sink, a rinsing sink, and a sanitizing sink. After all utensils have been sanitized, they are placed in racks on the drainboard to dry before being stacked and returned to the stations. The procedure followed by the EFS potwasher is the same...
FIGURE 1.2: HPS KITCHEN

5/30/72 MER 2254: SW
Figure 2.A: DISHWASHING AREA

NOTE: Arrows show flow of dishes and silver.

KEY
A. Sorting counter  
B. Conveyor belt  
C. Garbage can  
D. Automatic disposal  
E. Sink  
F. Spray  
G. Feeder for dish racks  
H. Automatic dish machine  
I. Belt from machine  
J. Sorting area (clean dishes)  
K. Stacking area

Figure 2.B: POTWASHING AREA

NOTE. Arrows show flow pattern of pots and pans.
as the one described on pages 17-19 of the book, Sanitation of Food Service Establishments which is enclosed in the lesson.

Note how the placement of both the dishwashing and potwashing areas in the RFS are convenient for the flow of soiled and clean utensils. Both are fairly close to the serving and preparation areas which limits the amount of walking that must be done by HFS employees. (See Figure 1.2.)
HFS EXERCISES

1. List as many conditions as you can that exist in your workplace that are potential safety hazards and tell how you would correct them.

2. List ways in your establishment that employees could improve their habits to prevent accidents.
3. Do you feel that the food service employees in your establishment apply the principle of sanitation mentioned in this lesson? Give specific examples (below) of why you answered the question as you did.
SKILLS

Safety and Sanitation

1. A. Set up and operate a dishwashing machine.
   B. Clean and close up a dishwashing machine.
2. Clean a grill.
3. Clean a trunnion or steam kettle.
4. Clean a broiler grid.
5. Clean out a deep fat fryer.

RELATED SKILLS: Cleaning the equipment mentioned in these SKILLS: #'s 13, 49, 53.
ABOUT LESSON 3

The material in Lesson 3 concentrates upon reasons for, principles of, and problems encountered in vegetable cookery. After you complete this lesson, you should be able to recommend methods of cooking various types of vegetables and your reasons for choosing these methods. You should also know and apply the considerations for handling and storing fresh, frozen, canned, and dried vegetables.

STUDENT DIRECTIONS

1. Read pages 1-7.
2. Complete the Workbook Exercises on pages 8 and 9.
3. Check answers with the Workbook Key on page 10.
4. If you have answered questions incorrectly, re-read the material and re-answer any questions you missed before you proceed to #5.
5. Read the HFS SPECIFICS on pages 11 and 12.
6. Answer the HFS questions on pages 13 and 14.
7. See list of SKILLS appropriate for this lesson on page 15.
8. Follow the procedure for checking off SKILLS.
9. You have now completed Lesson 3. If you still feel you do not understand any part of this lesson, consult with a classmate, a fellow worker, the establishment supervisor, or the University instructor about your questions. You will be given a quiz on the material presented in Lesson 3 during the next class seminar.
VEGETABLES

As a group, vegetables are the primary source of vitamins and minerals necessary for growth and maintenance of health. This nutritive value must be preserved in the storage, cooking, and handling processes. If proper methods are not employed, the nutritive value is lost and the vegetables are worthless nutritionally.

Reasons for Cooking Vegetables

There are three reasons for cooking vegetables: to improve their digestibility, acceptability, and palatability.

The digestibility of vegetables is many times improved by cooking. Some vegetables such as salad greens, can and should be eaten raw, but there are others that cannot be fully digested in an uncooked state.

Through proper preparation and cookery, the structure and texture of vegetables change, giving them a more desirable and attractive appearance. A variety of cooking methods may be employed to eliminate repetition and enhance acceptability.

The flavor of cooked vegetables differs from those eaten in their raw state. Cooking may serve to release desirable flavors or to modify undesirable ones, thus increasing palatability.

Storage of Vegetables

In order to conserve nutrients, vegetables must be properly stored before their use. Before they reach the restaurant or hospital, they should be properly packed and transported with such things as temperature, humidity, and gentle handling kept in mind.

Fresh vegetables, particularly, may spoil and lose nutritional value easily if they are not handled and stored properly. The specific temperatures at which to store particular vegetables vary, as does the relative humidity.
Generally, greens are stored slightly above 32° F. Other vegetables (with a few exceptions) are kept between 36-40° F.

Frozen vegetables should be stored at 0° F. or below. Once they are thawed or partially defrosted, they should be used as quickly as possible.

Unless opened, canned vegetables and dried vegetables need not be refrigerated. They should be stored in a cool, dry area, away from direct sunlight, however.

Classification of Vegetables

For our purposes, we will classify vegetables according to their color pigmentation rather than by whether they are seeds, roots, stalks, leaves, or fruit-type in origin.

Green vegetables are colored by a substance called chlorophyll. The natural green color is the most appealing color they can have and should, therefore, be preserved in cooking. This color is affected by acids, alkalies, and the presence of heat. When subjected to acid (such as vinegar), or high or prolonged heat, the vegetables turn olive green which is undesirable. The presence of baking soda (alkali) intensifies the green color (a desirable change as far as color), but destroys some of the vitamin content of the vegetable. Soda also makes the vegetable mushy and makes it look artificial because of the bright green color.

Red vegetables react exactly the opposite from green vegetables when acids or alkalies are added to the cooking water. The acid intensifies the color while the alkaline water creates a bluish or purple tinge which is a negative effect.

White vegetables turn more white in acidic water (positive effect). When overcooked, they tend to turn gray. Care should be taken only to cook them until tender in as short a time as is possible.
Yellow (and orange) vegetables are not subject to color change unless exposed to excessive heat. This would also produce an overcooked product, and would lighten the color of the vegetable. Overcooking causes negative changes in both color and nutritional value.

Remember: Overcooking any vegetable will destroy much of its nutritional value.

Preparation and Cooking of Fresh Vegetables:

A. Wash thoroughly.

1. A vegetable brush helps in cleaning such vegetables as potatoes, carrots, and celery.

2. Greens must be thoroughly washed in cool water to keep food value high and waste low. NEVER SOAK VEGETABLES IN WATER. This destroys minerals and some vitamins by leeching them out.

3. Broccoli, brussel sprouts, and cauliflower should be soaked in salt water to remove insects and worms.

B. Preparation for Cooking.

1. Limit paring and coring to a minimum. Excessive paring removes nutrients near the surface of the vegetable and raises the amount of waste.

2. When slicing or chopping vegetables for cooking, do not make the pieces very small. The greater the surface area of the vegetable that is exposed to heat and/or water, the larger the nutritional loss.

3. Prepare amounts fairly close to what will be needed for serving. This lowers the amount of leftovers which lose more nutrients each time they are reheated.

C. Cooking methods: The cooking method chosen for any particular vegetable should suit that vegetable so that when cooked it has the highest possible food value, fresh flavor, good color, and good texture.

1. Baking: This is done by direct oven heat using whole, pared, sliced, or diced vegetables. They are placed in a covered casserole with or without sauce added. Baking a vegetable in its skin is another way to bake vegetables with a minimum of nutrient loss.

2. Steaming: This method involves cooking in a steam media with or without added pressure. Since this method conserves most of the water soluble nutrients, it is a good way to retain food value. The vegetables also retain their shape.
3. Boiling: This is the most common method of cooking vegetables. Except for the cabbage family vegetables, vegetables should be cooked in a minimum amount of water—only enough to cover them. The vegetables in the cabbage family should be cooked uncovered in an excess amount of water in order to eliminate volatile acids. The following points should be practiced when cooking fresh or frozen vegetables:

a. Drop vegetables into boiling salted water.
b. Cook as quickly as possible.
c. Use a minimum amount of cooking water.
d. Do not vigorously boil vegetables.
e. Do not let cooked vegetables stand in the cooking water.
f. Utilize cooking water in making soups, sauces, and gravies.

4. Frying: Vegetables may be pan fried, sautéed, or deep fat fried. For deep fat frying, some vegetables are placed in a batter before frying (as is eggplant) or just placed in the fat (French fries).

Frozen Vegetables

With the exception of washing, the majority of the rules that apply to fresh vegetables also apply to the frozen variety. Most frozen vegetables should be cooked in the frozen state. Because they are partially cooked before freezing, a process called "blanching," frozen vegetables require less cooking time than do fresh vegetables. For specifics, follow the directions on the package.

Canned Vegetables

Canned vegetables require only a short reheating time since they were cooked in the canning process. They need not be boiled—this overcooks the vegetable. The vegetable should be cooked in their own juices and seasoned carefully to taste before serving. These juices may then be used in soups, sauces, or gravies.

Dehydrated Vegetables

The availability of fresh vegetables year round has greatly cut down on the use of dried vegetables. The reconstitution process merely involves replacing moisture that was lost in ripening and drying of the vegetables. This is done by soaking the
dried product in water. Care should be taken to measure the water accurately—too much results in a loss of nutrients while too little will not permit the product to absorb all the water it lost, thus causing a product with poor volume and texture. The vegetables should then be simmered, not boiled, since boiling toughens them.

Methods of Serving Vegetables

There are a variety of ways to serve vegetables that add variety as well as food value. The most popular ones are as follows:

1. With fats: This is the simplest method and is done by adding butter or fat from bacon to the cooked product. (Example: green beans and bacon.)

2. With sauce: Sauces may be combined directly with the vegetables (as a white sauce) or added to the vegetables in serving (Hollandaise sauce). Example: asparagus with Hollandaise sauce.

3. Scalloped: Raw layers of sliced vegetables are placed in a buttered baking dish, sprinkled with seasoning, butter, and flour. Milk is then added (white sauce is used with cooked vegetables). (Example: scalloped potatoes)

4. Au Gratin: White sauce is added to the cooked vegetables in a baking dish covered with buttered bread crumbs. It is browned in a hot oven for 10-12 minutes. Grated cheese is added. (It can also be blended in the white sauce.) (Example: Broccoli or cauliflower au gratin.)

5. Croquettes: Chopped cooked vegetables are combined with a very thick white sauce. They can be shaped, dipped in eggs, then into crumbs, and fried in deep fat. If the croquettes are chilled for about an hour before they are fried, they are more easily handled.
6. Custards: Chopped or diced vegetables are added to a combination of egg and milk to form a custard. It is seasoned and placed in a greased baking dish. The dish is then placed in a pan of hot water and baked in a slow oven until the custard sets. (Example: mixed vegetables)

7. Fritters: Pieces of vegetables are combined with a batter, spooned out, and dropped into deep fat.

8. Glazed: Vegetables are sliced and placed in a baking pan. Syrup is poured on top. They are baked in a moderate oven and basted during cooking. (Example: glazed carrots)

9. Souffles: Vegetables are mashed or finely chopped and thickened to a consistency of a thick white sauce. Egg yolks are combined with the thickened puree. Beaten egg whites are folded in. It is baked in a slow oven until it sets. (Example: spinach souffle)

10. Stuffed: A variety of vegetables are stuffed with various mixtures (for example, stuffed peppers)

Use of Leftover Vegetables

Leftovers may be a result of many different things, including preparing too much, preparing improperly, and poor choice of an item on the menu. When reusing leftovers, the following should be kept in mind: (1) they must be "fit to eat;" (2) the leftovers should not be used in their original form if they can be altered; (3) store leftovers properly; (4) they should not be overcooked--only warming is required; (5) they should be properly seasoned, keeping in mind that they had previously been seasoned and (6) the leftover vegetables can be used in soups, gravies, sauces, and vegetable casseroles.
Special Reminders in Vegetable Cookery

To retain food value, flavors, color, and texture:

1. Cook as quickly as possible.
2. Use as little water as possible (except cabbage family).
3. The vegetable should be added to boiling, salted water.
4. If the vegetables are to be steamed, spread the vegetables in pans in shallow layers.
5. NEVER add soda to cooking water.
6. Cook the vegetables in their skins whenever possible.
7. Bake or steam when practical.
8. Prepare only what is needed immediately—holding for long periods of time destroys food value, color, texture, and taste.
9. Use cooking water in soups, sauces, or gravies.
10. Have the fresh vegetables crisp before cooking.
11. Cook only until tender—better to undercook than overcook.
12. Handle fresh vegetables gently and as little as possible.
13. Never serve any item that is not "fit for eating".
Elements of Food Preparation

Lesson 3

1. Considering what you have learned in this lesson, determine if the following is a good practice and explain your reasoning: To store lettuce, remove the leaves from the heads and pack in chipped ice.

2. Fill in the following chart according to color change when numbers one through four are subjected to the conditions described above each column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pigment</th>
<th>Add Acid</th>
<th>Add Alkali</th>
<th>Excessive Heat or Overcook</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Green</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Red</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Yellow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. White</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. List three vegetables that are baked.

4. List five vegetables that can be steamed.

5. Which requires more cooking time—fresh green beans or frozen green beans? Why?

6. What effect would thawing at room temperature have on frozen vegetables?
7. How do you cook canned corn?

8. What general ill effects does the addition of soda have upon vegetables?

9. What is the standard portion size of vegetables where you work?

10. Classify the following vegetables in color groups
    
    (g = green, r = red, y = yellow, w = white)

    String beans _____
    Cauliflower _____
    Beets _____
    Onions _____
    Potatoes _____
    Sweet Potatoes _____
    Tomatoes _____
    Carrots _____
    Celery _____
1. It is a poor practice mainly because packing in ice bruises the leaves and has the same effect as soaking (removes vitamins and minerals).

2. 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pigment</th>
<th>Add Acid</th>
<th>Add Alkali</th>
<th>Excessive Heat or Overcook</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Green</td>
<td>Turns Olive Green</td>
<td>Turns Bright Red</td>
<td>Mushy and Olive Green Color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red</td>
<td>Turns Bright Red</td>
<td>Turns bluish</td>
<td>Color Fades</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>No visible color change</td>
<td>No visible color change</td>
<td>Turn lighter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>Whitens</td>
<td>No effect</td>
<td>Turn gray</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Possible answers include potatoes, vegetables in casseroles, onions, eggplant, and squash.

4. Almost any vegetable that is boiled can be steamed.

5. Fresh; frozen foods are partially cooked (blanched) before freezing, thus reducing total cooking time.

6. It allows bacterial growth that would be hindered at refrigeration temperatures.

7. Merely warm it in its own liquid.

8. It makes the texture mushy and destroys nutrients.

9. Depends upon work place.

10. g  v  r  w  y  r

C
The HFS menu offers a variety of plain and fancy vegetable items for every lunch and dinner meal. On most days the menu also includes a special entree, the "vegetable platter", for those weight-watching customers. The style of the menu requires the use of many fresh vegetables even when they are not in season. Fresh vegetables increase the amount of necessary handling, storage, pre-preparation, and preparation of vegetable items for the vegetable cook. Because of this extra work load, the HFS employs two full time workers on the vegetable station.

The activities of the vegetable station workers include cleaning, paring, slicing, and cooking vegetables. They may also be required to store vegetables after pre-preparation takes place. On occasion, the vegetable cooks may prepare vegetables that will be used in food products prepared by other station workers.

As the work day begins, one of the vegetable cooks obtains the day's menu, the worksheet, and the recipe cards needed to prepare luncheon and dinner items. He (or she) sets up the work station, determines a time schedule for preparation, and proceeds to follow the recipes to prepare the food products. Before beginning to prepare any vegetable item, one of the vegetable cooks checks the vegetable refrigerator to see what leftovers can be used. If this is not done, there is a possibility that leftovers will go to waste.

Depending upon the time schedule and the amounts and types of vegetables needed for a meal, the HFS vegetable cooks may only clean and cut up the vegetables, place them in pans, in which they will eventually be cooked, and return them to the refrigerator. In the case of vegetables (such as potatoes) that discolor when exposed to air, the cooks add an anti-oxidation solution which retards this. They must be aware of how to properly store not only partially prepared items, but leftovers as well.
The HFS vegetable cooks use the following cooking methods in preparing vegetable items: steaming, boiling, baking, sauteeing, braising, and frying (although most of the deep fat frying is done in the pantry area). Usually the method of preparation is determined by the recipe (or menu) which relieves the cooks of making one decision. However, they must concern themselves with producing a quality product by maintaining food value, color, texture, and taste. Therefore, they must know and employ methods of proper handling, storage, cooking, and holding techniques.

Steaming vegetables may be performed either in the stack steamer or in the speed cooker, depending upon the necessary amounts. The trunnions (steam kettles) may be used for boiling, sauteeing and braising vegetables. Baking operations are performed in the oven. The deep fat fryer is used only when the fryer in the short order unit is overloaded with other food products that must be deep fat fried. (See the vegetable station layout in Figure 3.) The arrangement of equipment in the HFS vegetable station allows good product flow from the vegetable refrigerator to the vegetable preparation area or to the station and finally to the steam table. Because of this logical set up, the station workers save time, steps, and energy in performing their jobs.

The HFS emphasizes the importance of producing a quality product. Vegetables, because of their composition, lose quality and appeal if they are cooked too long before the serving period. One of the most difficult things to judge with vegetable preparation is supplying enough fresh vegetables to meet the demand. In order to maintain a quality product and insure food value, the HFS cooks prepare only small quantities of vegetables at any one time. They must be able to time the cooking of the vegetables that cannot be held for long periods of time so that there is enough to meet the demand but not so much that the quality is damaged. This is an activity that can only be achieved with experience.

REFERENCE: If you encounter practices in your work place that are not like those in Lesson 3 or the HFS SPECIFICS, do not express this to the employees in that establishment! Concentrate on the reasons for such differences and bring them out in your seminar discussion.
FIGURE 1.2: ÍFS KITCHEN

5/30/72 MMR 2254: SW
Figure 3: VEGETABLE PREP. AND VEGETABLE STATION

KEY
1. Automatic potato peeler
2. Food chopper-grinder
3. Sinks
4. Ice machine
5. Veg.-Salad refrigerator
6. Sink
7. Built-in cutting board (2)
8. Veg. work tables (3)
9. Stack steamer
10. Two 20 quart trunnions on table
11. 30 gallon trunnion
12. Floor mixer
13. Raised shelf for recipes
HFS EXERCISES

Vegetable Station

1. Make a rough drawing of the "vegetable station" in your establishment. Show placement of equipment as is done in Figure 2.

2. A. List all frozen vegetables used in your establishment.

B. List all canned vegetables used in your establishment.

C. List any other vegetables your work place uses and state if they are fresh or dehydrated.
D. What are the reasons that your establishment purchases more vegetables in one form than another (i.e., canned rather than frozen)?

3. Name three dishes in your workplace that are made using leftover vegetables.
SKILLS

Vegetable Preparation

6. Set up deep fat fryer
7. Run deep fat fryer
8. Strain fat in deep fat fryer
9. Peel potatoes
10. Use a French knife to:
    1. dice
    2. slice.
11. Use a steamer to cook vegetables
12. Reconstitute leftover vegetables
13. Operate automatic potato peeler

RELATED SKILLS: #'s 3, 5, 15, 17, 18, 23, 49, 53, 58.
ABOUT LESSON 4

Lesson 4 deals with the basic principles of making good salads. The material includes the purposes of different types of salads, how to handle, clean, and store salad ingredients, and the preparation and use of basic salad dressings. Upon completing this lesson, you should be able to understand and apply the basics of salad preparation.

STUDENT DIRECTIONS

1. Read pages 1-6.
2. Complete the Workbook Exercises on pages 7 and 8.
3. Check your answers with the Workbook Key on page 9.
4. If you have answered questions incorrectly, re-read the appropriate material and re-answer any questions you missed before going on to #5.
5. Read the HFS Specifics on pages 10 and 11.
6. Answer the HFS questions on pages 12 and 13.
7. On page 14 you will find a list of SKILLS appropriate for this lesson. Follow the procedure for checking off SKILL.
8. You have now completed Lesson 4. If you still feel you do not understand any part of this lesson, consult with a classmate, a fellow worker, the establishment supervisor, or the University instructor about your questions. You will be given a quiz on the material presented in Lesson 4 during the next class seminar.
SALADS

A salad may be defined (generally) as any cold dish of vegetables, dairy products, meat, fish, poultry, or fruit usually served with some form of dressing. These ingredients may be served alone or in combination. There are a few exceptions to this definition such as various hot salads.

Salads, depending upon their ingredients, are capable of providing foods from any of the Basic Four Food Groups. They may supply many essential vitamins and minerals. The role of salads should not be looked upon as minor. They provide an ideal way to complement and highlight a meal as well as a means to aid nutrition.

Principles of Good Salads

1. Quality of the ingredients of salads includes freshness, proper cleaning of greens and all salad items, and proper storage before and after preparation. Excess handling should be avoided since this bruises food items and increases waste. It also decreases nutritional value.

2. Foods should be properly drained. Greens should be dry.

3. All salads should be neat and attractive on the plate.

4. Salads should be simple in composition.

5. The taste and texture should be appetizing.

6. The salad should be properly chilled.

7. Foods combined in a salad should go well together.

Salad Categories

A salad may serve one of four general purposes in a meal. It may be an appetizer, an accompaniment, a main dish, or a dessert.

The appetizer salad should stimulate the appetite. It should be light and served in a small portion. Examples are various fruit cups, shrimp or crabmeat cocktail, chopped chicken livers, or pickled herring.
A second means of determining doneness of meats is following a chart that specifies the number of minutes cooking per pound. This method may be deceiving, however, since various roasts have different surface areas--those having greater surface areas cooking faster.

A third means used to determine doneness of meats is that of inserting needles, withdrawing them and passing the needle over one's cheek or other sensitive skin area. This method visibly has its limits of accuracy, since no two people would probably agree upon the doneness and who would be able to say which one was more correct? It is not a very sanitary method either.

The fourth method is that of pushing on the roast with a fork or with one's finger. The use of fingers is usually done for steaks and chops. This method, like the needle method, is rather inaccurate. Doneness is "determined" by the relative firmness of the area depressed, (the more done it is, the firmer the meat) and experience.

The fifth and last method is pricking the meat with a fork to see how much juice is released and the color of the escaping juice. The problem is that this makes the product drier by permitting the juices to escape.

One additional consideration that we must keep in mind when cooking meat is that of carry-over cooking. Even after a product has been removed from the oven, heat is still being transferred to the center of the product by conduction. This is known as carry-over cooking. Especially with beef, people have preferences as to how well done they like their meat. Even when a roast is judged to be rare when removed from the oven, this additional cooking may produce meat that will be closer to medium when served. This is an excellent example of when a meat thermometer is very useful. To achieve a rare roast (140° F.), one would remove the roast from the oven when the thermometer reads 115-125° F. The roast is allowed to set and, when served, the internal temperature will be that of a rare roast. (For medium remove roast from 135-145° F.; for well-done 155-165° F.)
One of the most difficult tasks, and possibly the most important, is that of carving meat. A good carving job results in portions of equal size (portion control) and serves to eliminate excessive waste. A general knowledge of anatomy of the animal and the correct tools kept in perfect condition are the first steps to proper carving. A few points you should keep in mind when carving are: (1) Cleanliness; carve on a cutting board that is clean. Have yourself and your equipment spotlessly clean. Have enough pans ready before you to complete the job. Use a separate container for scraps and keep the cutting board reasonably dry. (2) Proper equipment: use the correct knives that are razor sharp and above all, learn to use a meat fork. Always cut across the grain of the meat and away from yourself when possible. Stack cut portions in such a manner that they can be easily removed on the serving line without breaking or crumbling.

Use of a slicing machine eliminates many problems of carving, but the meat must be boned first.
I. Meat Section

A. GENERAL MEAT COOKERY

AND

B. ROASTING MEAT

1. From a "Beef Chart" list four cuts of beef that can be cooked by dry heat methods and four cuts that should be prepared using moist heat methods. Chart can be found in the University library food production texts or in some cookbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dry Heat</th>
<th>Moist Heat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
<td>A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B.</td>
<td>B.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C.</td>
<td>C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>D.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Explain the effects of a high temperature used for roasting (475°F).

3. Explain "carry-over cooking."

4. A. Define MIREPOIX.

B. What purpose does a MIREPOIX serve?

C. When is a MIREPOIX applied to a roast? Why?

5. Which cooks faster, a boned rolled roast or a bone-in roast of the same size? Why?
KEY TO WORKBOOK EXERCISES

Lesson 9

I. Meat Section

SECTIONS A AND B

1. **Dry**
   - A. Any cut from Rib, Short Loin,
   - B. or Sirloin (and)
   - C. Ground Beef
   - **Moist**
   - A. Any cut from Flank Steak,
   - B. Round, Chuck, Short Plate,
   - C. Fore Shank, Brisket, or
   - D. Knuckle

2. Larger cooking loss, drier product

3. Once a product is removed from the oven, cooking does not stop but continues because heat is being conducted to the center of the product

4. A. Combination of chopped celery, onion, and carrots
   - B. Add flavor to a roast and drippings
   - C. Near the end of the roasting period--just long enough to cook the vegetables. If it were added too soon, the vegetables would burn.

5. Bone in; the bone conducts heat and cooking occurs faster than if no bone were present.
C. Broiling Meats

Broiling, another dry heat method of cooking, is a process which mostly involves radiant heat (a minimal amount of broiling involves convection). Like roasting, the broiling process is recommended for tender cuts of meat.

Depending upon the type of equipment in the establishment, broiling may be accomplished by heat released from gas or electric elements or from charcoal. Although flames from other fuels such as gasoline, kerosene, alcohol, or lighter fluid would serve to broil a meat product, the flavor of these flames remains on the meat and leaves a foul taste. Use of some of these fuels for cooking would also be dangerous to a person's health.

There are many factors that one should consider when determining the desirable temperature for broiling a piece of meat. The kind of meat, the cut of meat, its thickness, the size, the temperature of the meat at the time when cooking is to begin, the amount of fat in the meat, and the intensity of the heat are all things that should be kept in mind.

Generally, a thicker piece of meat requires more broiling time than a thinner one; a frozen or near-frozen cut requires more time than a cut closer to being fully thawed; a more lean piece of meat requires more time than one with good fat distribution, depending on the thickness.

When dealing specifically with frozen meats, the following things should be kept in mind: (1) frozen steaks or chops can be broiled without being thawed. Keep temperature lower—until the meat has thawed, then raise the temperature. (The broiler rack may also be lowered at first, then raised as cooking progresses.) (2) if the thickness of a steak or chop is greater than one and one-half inches, these meats should be almost completely thawed before broiling to ensure that cooking takes place throughout (or use process described in #1 above). (3) because the interior of a frozen steak delays in cooking during the broiling process, it is easier to cook any steak (and especially thicker ones) to a rare state of doneness. The exterior browns faster and the interior remains rare.
To prepare a piece of meat for broiling, dip it into, or brush on, vegetable oil. Salt, pepper, garlic, paprika, and other seasonings may be added to this oil or sprinkled directly on the meat after the oil has been applied. The oil serves two purposes: it prevents the meat from sticking to the hot grid and it increases the surface temperature of the meat which causes browning. (Butter should not be used in place of oil since the smoke point of butter is too low for the heat of the broiler.)

The meat is placed on the grid and is turned to allow cooking to occur on both sides. The number of times a piece of meat is turned varies, depending upon the thickness of the meat. A thinner cut may only be turned once; a thick piece may be turned a number of times. Turning also produces x's on the surface of the meat (grid marks), which enhances its appearance.

Care should be taken when turning any item on the broiler. Tongs or a spatula should be used rather than a fork since the fork would puncture the meat and would allow juices to escape, thus causing a dry finished product. A fork may be used if care is taken only to pierce the fat covering of the meat.

When broiling steaks, the outside fat covering is scored (slit with a knife) about every inch. This prevents the fat from curling up as it dries; the steak will remain flat against the grids and will cook evenly. When scoring a steak, cut completely through the fat without cutting into the meat.

One of the most difficult things to determine is the doneness of a broiled item. This is almost always done by touch (firmness of the meat indicates degree of doneness) and by visual inspection. When a blunt instrument is pressed against the surface, the color of the escaping juices is the second indication of doneness. (The redder the juice, the rarer the meat.) It is not really worthwhile to use a meat thermometer when testing a broiled product for doneness since the meat is usually too thin to get an accurate reading and such a short period of cooking time and frequency of turning the meat does not justify going to so much trouble. Good judgment in this case is a direct result of experience and practice.
Steaks and chops that are broiled should be removed from the heat slightly before they reach the requested stage of doneness. This allows for the carry-over cooking that occurs once the meat is removed from the broiler.

Sirloin, porterhouse, T-bone, strip, Delmonico (rib eye), rib, club, and tenderloin (filet) are beef steaks that are tender enough for broiling (if the quality of beef they come from is high). Lamb chops and lamb steaks can be broiled, depending upon the amount of fat in them. Ground meats that contain 15 to 25% fat broil well. Fat meats and bacon can be broiled, as can ham steaks. Broiling of pork chops and spareribs is not recommended unless previously cooked to a well done state (finishing by broiling). This process may be reversed so that the chops and ribs are first broiled and finished in the oven.

Two variations of broiling are barbecuing and pan broiling. Barbecuing can be broiling with basting a product while it broils. Pan broiling is done in a skillet or shallow, flat pan. The fat from the skillet should be removed (poured off) as it accumulates to prevent frying from occurring. This is very difficult to do, and therefore most pan broiling results in a fried product. Although the appearance of a pan broiled product differs from one that has been broiled in the normal way, technically, the method is a form of actual broiling.

D. Cooking with Moist Heat (Meat)

Moist heat methods of cooking are generally used with less tender cuts of meat. The moist heat methods apply liquid through either simmering, steaming, frying, boiling, stewing, or poaching. Water, wine, tomatoes, and a variety of other products with liquid content may be added to tenderize meats. The one factor to remember when cooking meats in liquids is to keep the liquid at a temperature below boiling. These simmering temperatures (about 180°F.) serve to tenderize meats; boiling temperatures toughen the product.
Braising is one method of moist heat cookery. The meat is browned in a small amount of fat and cooked slowly on top of the stove with a small amount of water added. (The browning process may not be employed in all braising situations—when a fricassée is made—a blond stew—no browning is involved. The meat is cooked only in its own juices to limit browning.) Pot roasts, fricasses, and Swiss steaks are all prepared by braising. Meats used in braising may be rolled in seasoned flour and then browned in fat, though this is not always done. (Usually another cooking process is employed after braising to finish cooking the product.)

The process called sauteeing is merely the procedure used to brown meats in oleo, oil, butter, or shortening. Although there is usually an additional finishing process involved when meat is first sauteed, it could be the only process used in cooking meats. This, however, would only be recommended with small pieces of meat, since larger ones would not cook thoroughly under these conditions without burning on the surface.

Another moist heat method for cooking meats is steaming. Steaming involves adding water or other liquid to the product and covering the container so that steam forms. Pressure cooking is a variation of steaming and differs only in the fact that the product is cooked under pressure.

Since there are many variations in cooking times and temperatures in the above mentioned moist heat methods, we will not discuss these areas further. The recipes for making products by these methods are very specific about cooking times and temperatures; it is to our advantage not to get more detailed since each case would produce exceptions.
E. Cooking Stews

The stewing process is one that is closely related to simmering. It involves cooking meats and vegetables in water of about 165°F (a simmering temperature). The meat used for stewing is generally tough. It is usually cut into small pieces before cooking. These pieces are frequently floured and browned in a small amount of fat. A blond stew requires no browning of the meat. Water or other liquid is then added to the browned meat to sufficiently cover it. (The amount of liquid added is greater than that used in braising and simmering.) About 30 minutes before the meat is fully cooked, vegetables are added. If they are added at the beginning of the cooking period they would be overcooked and would fall apart.

When the meat and vegetables are both fully cooked, the liquid is thickened (usually with flour or corn starch) to make a light gravy. Care should be taken to add the thickening agent as recommended in Lesson 6 on Gravies to avoid lumps in the liquid portion of the stew.

Additional seasonings may be added to the stew at this time. The stew should be transferred from the cooking utensil (pot or steam jacketed kettle) to another pot or steam table pan and held (usually in a bain marie) until serving.
C. BROILING MEATS

1. What characteristics are desirable in a cut of meat that is to be broiled?

2. List 3 beef items that may be broiled.
   A.
   B.
   C.

3. You are given a frozen 2" T-bone steak to be broiled to a well-done state as quickly as possible. Describe in detail the steps you would go through and the considerations of temperature you would make.

4. Name two variations of broiling process and describe how they are different from standard broiling procedures.
   A.
   B.
WORKBOOK EXERCISES

Lesson 9

D. COOKING WITH MOIST HEAT

1. Explain the difference between braising and sauteing.

2. What is a fricassee?

3. What effects would an increase of 100°F produce in regard to how long
   the product would be cooked and quality of the finished product
   (shrinkage, loss, nutritional value, taste)?

4. Why is shortening preferable to butter when used for browning meats?

E. COOKING STEWS

1. What is the difference between stewing and braising?

2. Define RAGOUT. (Consult an outside reference.)
3. Consult with the meat cook in your establishment (or a textbook) to determine the basic difference between browned, blonde, and white stews.
SECTION C.

1. Tenderness, good fat distribution

2. A. Any cut from Rib, Shortloin, or Sirloin
   B. Same as A
   C. Same as A

3. Temperature should be kept extremely low, especially until steak is thawed, then raised slightly.

4. A. barbecuing--basting product with barbecue sauce while broiling
   B. pan broiling--use of a skillet and pouring off fat as it accumulates to prevent frying

SECTION D.

1. Braising is cooking in a small amount of liquid (about 1/3 of the meat is covered with water); sautéing is frying food in shallow fat in a frying pan.

2. a blonde stew--no browning of the meat has taken place

3. A 100°F. increase would probably put the temperature well above boiling. This toughens the product, increases shrinkage, decreases flavor, and may lower nutritional value.

4. Shortening is used because it has a higher smoke point than butter.

SECTION E.

1. The stewing process involves using more liquid (the product is fully covered) in cooking than braising (1/3 of the product is covered).

2. Ragout--well-seasoned meat and vegetables cooked in a thick sauce (a form of stew).

3. They involve browning of the meat to various degrees.
EFS SPECIFICS: LESSON 9

(Since both Lessons 9 and 10 deal with the activities of the meat cooks in preparing entree, this lesson will deal with the responsibilities of the HFS MEAT CUTTER - BROILERMAN in this lesson. The layout of the HFS Kitchen, Figure 1.2--next page--will show you the placement of both work areas.)

When the HFS Restaurant began its business (about 10 years ago), there was a definite advantage to buying meats in large quantities and cutting them on the premises. It was not unusual to purchase a side of beef or a whole forequarter or hindquarter and have the meat cutter butcher it. In this way, the HFS was able to ensure the quality of its steaks and roasts and could have them cut to desired specifications of size. In the long run, such a process would generally be less expensive than ordering individual steaks and the like.

In the present day situation, however, there is very little meat cutting done in the HFS. There are many reasons for this. First of all, with the great increase in sales, it hardly pays the HFS to hire a full time meat cutter when it can purchase high quality meats already cut at the same or even a lower price. In addition to the money paid to the meat cutter, the HFS had to purchase many large pieces of equipment, and the cost of operating this equipment was also great. The sum of these three items plus the cost of purchasing the meat almost always exceeded the price of pre-cut meats. As a result, the HFS decided to sell all of its large meat cutting equipment except for the meat grinder. (See Lesson 10, Figure 8.) This piece of equipment is still used to grind meat for hamburgers, meat loaf, ham loaf, and other items served in the HFS. Perhaps in the future, the HFS may purchase most of these items in the form of convenience products which will enable them to sell the meat grinder.

Besides using the meat grinder, the meat cutter may also be responsible for boning chicken breasts, boning roasts before or after cooking, skinning and portioning tenderloins, carving and portioning roasts, rolling and tying roasts, cutting and portioning various types of steaks (or chops), cutting pockets in pork
chops for stuffing, carving cooked turkeys, and cutting up chickens into their parts. The meat cutter is also responsible for keeping the equipment and utensils in good condition. This includes sharpening knives and employing proper techniques of sanitation.

Because the meat cutter's job does not involve enough work for it to be a full-time position, it is combined with a second part-time position— that of a broilerman. The broilerman works only during the evening meal since his meat cutting activities keep him occupied during part of the morning and early afternoon. He uses the broiler shown in Figure 7 (Sandwich Station) to broil steaks, chops, and other entree items on the HFS dinner menu. (Also see Figure 1.2.) All of these items are made to order and are broiled to the customer's specifications.

Before the rush period begins, the broilerman consults with the meat cooks to find out which items are on the menu for that meal that require broiling. Since these items have been previously portioned, they can be removed from the meat station and placed in the refrigerator in the short order station. When one of these items is requested, the waitress informs the broilerman and he prepares the order. Plates for serving are stored below the sandwich work table, thus making them easy for the broilerman to reach. He may be required to garnish finished entrees with a variety of garnishes that have been prepared by another kitchen worker. The completed entree is placed on the raised shelf above the sandwich work table where the waitress picks it up and serves it to the customer.

As you can see from this description, the HFS saves the meat cooks steps and time by placing the main broiler in the sandwich area. In this way, the orders are prepared and served quickly without wasted steps by the waitress or broilerman. This allows the products to be of the highest quality when they are served to the HFS guests.
FIGURE 1.2: HFS KITCHEN

5/30/72 MER 2254: SW
ÉPS EXERCISES

1. When a large roast is prepared in your establishment, is it frozen or thawed when cooking begins? Why?

2. Name and describe the type of oven(s) used for roasting where you work.

3. A. List the steps your cook follows when preparing a roast for the oven.

B. Does this differ from the procedure described in the lesson?

4. A. How is the doneness of a roast determined where you work?

B. What is the most accurate way to determine doneness?

5. Is the idea of "carry-over cooking" kept in mind when your cook checks a roast for doneness? (If you answered yes, how do you know? If not, what is the effect upon the final product?)

6. What is done with the drippings from a roast where you work?
7. What seasonings are used by the cook in your work place for roasts?

8. Describe the broiling equipment used at your place of employment (gas, electric, or other, fuel used, how to adjust level of heat, etc.).

9. From the meat cook in your establishment or from your instructor, obtain a recipe for a product that uses a moist heat cooking method. Describe how the product is seasoned. What is the procedure used for determining doneness?

10. In your work place, which is used for browning meats on the range, butter or another shortening?
SKILLS

Lesson 9

56. Carve a rib roast
57. Carve a rolled roast
58. Sharpen knives with steel
59. Determine the doneness of a roast using meat thermometer
60. Skin a tenderloin
61. Bone a roast
62. Roll a roast
63. Cut a pocket in a pork chop
64. Turn meat on a broiler
65. Score fat on meat before broiling
66. Adjust the broiler

RELATED SKILLS: #3, 4, 10, 11, 12, 23, 27, 28, 30, 31, 32, 49, 53, 54.
ABOUT LESSON 10

The material in this lesson deals with the principles of poultry cookery and fish and shellfish cookery. After you complete this lesson, you should be able to identify, describe, and perform the activities involved in properly preparing any poultry, fish, or shellfish item. You are also responsible for learning to set up, operate, and clean any piece of equipment that is used by the meat cook.

STUDENT DIRECTIONS

1. Read pages 1-4.
2. Complete the Workbook Exercises on page 5.
3. Check your answers with the Workbook Key on page 6.
4. If you have answered questions incorrectly, re-read the appropriate material and re-answer any questions you missed before going on to #5.
5. Read pages 7-11.
7. Check your answers with the Workbook Key on page 14.
8. If you have answered questions incorrectly, re-read the appropriate material and re-answer any questions you missed before going on to #9.
10. Complete the Workbook Exercises on pages 21 and 22.
11. Check your answers with the Workbook Key on page 23.
12. If you have answered questions incorrectly, re-read the appropriate material and re-answer any questions you missed before you go on to #13.
13. Read the HFS SPECIFICs on pages 24 and 25.
14. Answer the HFS questions on pages 26 and 27.
15. On page 28 you will find a list of SKILLS that pertain to this lesson. Follow the procedure for checking off SKILLS.
16. You have now completed Lesson 10 (and this course). If you still feel you do not understand any part of this lesson, consult with a classmate, a fellow worker, the establishment supervisor, or the University instructor about your questions. You will be given a quiz on the material presented in this lesson during the next class seminar.
F. Frying Meat and Poultry and Deep Fat Frying

Like braising, and unlike pan-broiling, frying and deep fat frying are considered moist cooking methods. In both frying and deep fat frying, foods are prepared by adding additional liquid to them. Food is fried when it is put in or submerged in oil or fat. The fat is at a high enough temperature to brown the surface of the food and cook the interior of the product.

Pan-frying. Generally, tender foods that lack fat of their own are fried. Chicken, veal, fish, and some beef cuts are examples. Usually, thinner pieces of meat are fried, the reason being that due to a high temperature on the surface, the interior of thicker food products will not fully cook before the outside is over-cooked. Frying, however, may be used either as the beginning step in a two-step process or as the second step. For example, breaded pork chops may be fried to brown them and then be finished by roasting in the oven.

Although there is no set temperature for frying, recommended temperatures range from 300° to 385° F. This will vary according to the type of food being fried, the equipment being used, the method used, the degree of doneness to be achieved, the type of fat used, and the amount of fat absorption desired.

All fried foods absorb fat. How much fat is absorbed depends largely upon the food and the temperature of the fat. Cold foods absorb more fat than foods at room temperature. Placing food in cold fat also increases the amount of fat absorbed. The amount of time a food is fried tends to affect the fat absorption; those products being exposed longest retain more fat than others fried for shorter time periods.

Foods that are going to be fried should be as dry as possible. If foods are excessively watery, the heat of the fat turns the water to steam. The steam, in turn, stays in a layer above the food and prevents browning and searing. The food is therefore not fried, but steamed or braised. For this reason, foods may be
salted and set aside for water to evaporate from their surfaces before frying. Care should be taken, however, not to add excess salt to the fat, since this tends to break down the fat and make it unsuitable for frying. Foods having high water content also encourage fat breakdown.

**Deep Fat Frying.** Deep fat frying is similar in principle to pan-frying except that in deep fat frying the food is completely submerged in fat. The length of the cooking process, therefore, is shorter since the food item does not have to be turned to finish cooking.

The equipment used for deep fat frying varies, but most establishments have a fryer used only for this purpose. (We will not deal with pressurized deep fat fryers—only the conventional fryers.) Either solid or liquid fat may be used in the deep fat fryer. Generally, hydrogenated fats are selected since they are more stable and do not break down with high heat. Such fats also have a high smoke point (unlike butter). If solid fat is placed in the deep fryer, the temperature should be set at 200°F to initially melt the fat. It is even better to melt the fat before placing it in the fryer; this prevents the possibility of burning the solid fat which comes in contact with the heating element. Likewise, when the fryer is not in use, the temperature should be kept between 200°F to 250°F to prevent breakdown of the fat. Continually high temperatures are another cause of fat breakdown.

Every deep fryer has some type of thermostat or temperature device that regulates the temperature of the fat. Because copper is a good heat conductor, it is often used in the thermostat—only after it has been plated with nickel or chrome. The reason behind this is that copper tends to break down the fat where nickel or other similar elements will not. The same materials are used to coat the frying basket. Neither the basket nor the thermostat should be cleaned with abrasive materials (such as cleanser) since this would result in chipping or removal of the coating.
One additional factor that promotes rapid fat breakdown is the frying of meats and seafoods that have a high fat content. When fried, these products leave behind various substances that encourage fat breakdown. Therefore, when frying a variety of foods in the deep fryer, attempts should be made to fry meats and seafood products last.

Broken down fat can be recognized by a rancid taste (or smell). The fat also forms a heavy, yellow foam and will smoke at normal frying temperatures. It yields products that are darker in color and are more greasy.

When deep frying breaded products, small pieces of breading break off and are left in the fat after the basket has been raised. If such particles are not removed from the fat at least once a day (more often during heavy use), the fat will break down. Fat should be strained and filtered through several layers of cheesecloth or a special filter at least once a day to keep fat breakdown at a minimum. The basket should not be shaken over the fat, nor should food be salted over the fat after frying. This also promotes fat breakdown. As you can see, all possible steps should be taken to prevent fat breakdown since this produces low quality products. Excessive waste of fat in this manner is also expensive for the establishment.

As we have previously stated, there is no real "correct" temperature for frying most food items. Although specific temperatures may be stated in recipes or on charts, the following factors influence these temperatures:

1. Size and shape of the food product--since more time is required to thoroughly cook a thick piece of food than a thinner one, the temperature should be lower to prevent burning.

2. The amount of food being fried in relation to the amount of fat in the fryer--to a certain point (maximum of 1 to 10 ratio) the amount of fat should be about ten times greater than the amount of food being fried. This means that more fat produces more heat to cook the food and there is less drop in temperature when foods absorb heat.
3. The amount of water in the food item—the higher the water content, the longer the period of frying since it takes more heat to raise the temperature of water than any other food product. High water content also breaks down fat.

4. Presence of breading on the food—the breading slows the transfer of heat and it must be fried too. As a result, an overall lower temperature is desirable since a high temperature will burn the breading before the product is thoroughly cooked.

5. Frozen or fresh—a frozen product requires 25% more frying time than the same product that is not frozen.

After food has been deep fried, it is removed from the fryer by lifting the basket, letting excess fat drain from the food above the fryer. Do not shake the basket over the fryer. The basket contents are then emptied into a pan whose bottom is covered with absorbent brown paper. This paper soaks up the additional fat from the fried items before they are served. Deep fat fried products are best when served soon after preparation. Long periods of holding decrease the quality of food items.

The fryer in your establishment may vary from the traditional two-basket model. It is up to you to acquaint yourself with this equipment and its specific functions in your operation.

Specifics in deep fat frying meat and poultry. Keeping in mind what has been stated about the principles of deep fat cookery, we will now deal specifically with the deep frying of meat and poultry.

Unless breaded, meats particularly are not deep fried. The process tends to dry out and toughen even the most tender cuts of meat.

Likewise, poultry that is deep fried is usually cut into pieces (leg, wing, etc.) and breaded before it is fried. This insulates the meat and protects it from drying out. Breading also prevents foods from absorbing an excessive amount of fat.

NOTE: The breading process may vary depending upon the establishment.

(See "poultry cookery"—frying.)
WORKBOOK EXERCISES

Lesson 10

F. FRYING MEAT AND POULTRY AND DEEP FAT FRYING

1. How do pan-frying and pan-broiling differ?

2. A thinner piece of meat should be fried slowly/quickly at a high/low temperature.

3. Why did you answer #2 above as you did?

4. Of what type of metal should the basket on a deep fat fryer be made?

5. Name three things that would encourage fat breakdown.
   A. 
   B. 
   C. 

6. What percent of additional frying time do frozen foods require?

7. What would be the procedure in determining thermostat accuracy?

8. How often should the thermostat be checked for accuracy?
1. In pan-frying the fat from the meat (and added fat) is left in the pan as the product cooks. In pan-broiling, the fat from the meat is removed as it accumulates to prevent frying from taking place.

2. quickly/high

3. Higher heat decreases cooking time and prevents an excess of fat absorption

4. It should be chrome plated

5. High temperatures, certain metals, foods with high fat content, particles of breading left in the fat, salt.

6. 25%

7. Every two weeks or so.

8. Set heat dial on fryer to a specific temperature, see what temperature thermostat registers, and submerge another thermostat or thermometer to check accuracy.
G. Poultry Cookery

Although the term poultry includes any domesticated bird raised for eggs or meat, we will deal only with chicken and turkey. These two forms of poultry may be purchased in a variety of ways: fresh or frozen, dressed or pan-ready and the like.

Poultry is classified in a number of ways generally based upon age and sex. The weight of the bird may vary within these classes and is not usually a means of categorizing poultry. For example, a bird of over ten months of age (either a hen or rooster) may range from four to six pounds (average weight).

The following charts may be good guidelines for classifying chicken and turkey.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLASS</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>AVERAGE WEIGHT</th>
<th>METHOD OF PREPARATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rock Cornish Hen</td>
<td>5-7 weeks</td>
<td>3/4 - 2 lb.</td>
<td>Bake or barbecue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broiler</td>
<td>9-12 weeks</td>
<td>3/4 - 2-1/2 lb.</td>
<td>Broil, roast,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fryer</td>
<td>9-12 weeks</td>
<td>2-1/2 - 3-1/2 lb.</td>
<td>deep fry, barbecue,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roaster</td>
<td>3-5 months</td>
<td>3-1/2 - 5 lb.</td>
<td>Broil, roast, or fricassee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capon</td>
<td>Under 6 months</td>
<td>3-1/2 - 9 lb.</td>
<td>Roast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stag</td>
<td>Under 10 months</td>
<td>3-1/2 - 6 lb.</td>
<td>Stew or braise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stewing hen or foul</td>
<td>Over 10 months</td>
<td>3-1/2 - 6 lb.</td>
<td>Stew or fricassee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cock or rooster</td>
<td>Over 10 months</td>
<td></td>
<td>Stew or soup</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TURKEY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fryer-roaster</td>
<td>16 weeks</td>
<td>4 - 9 lb.</td>
<td>Roast, braise, or barbecue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young hen</td>
<td>5-7 months</td>
<td>8-12; 12 - 18 lb.</td>
<td>Roast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Young Tom</td>
<td>5-7 months</td>
<td>8-12; 12 - 16;</td>
<td>Roast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old hen</td>
<td>8-15 months</td>
<td>10 - 20 lb.</td>
<td>Roast or stew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Tom</td>
<td>8-15 months</td>
<td>12 - 30 lb.</td>
<td>Roast or stew</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The age and size of the bird largely determines the method of cooking chosen. Large birds cannot easily be portioned for serving before cooking and are usually roasted or simmered, then portioned. Smaller birds can easily be halved, quarter-
ed, or sectioned into parts before being broiled, fricasséed, deep fried, or poached.

Since poultry is highly perishable it is desirable to either freeze (below 0°F.) or refrigerate it at 34-36°F. Once poultry has been defrosted, it should be used as quickly as possible and NEVER refrozen. Defrosting encourages bacteria and spoiling agents to multiply. (Care should be taken not to break the skin before storing since this protects the flesh from the harmful bacteria.)

As you can see from the chart, young, tender birds are cooked mostly by dry heat methods and older, tougher birds by moist heat methods. The age of the bird can largely be determined by the flexibility of the breastbone. The younger the bird, the more flexible the breastbone. This becomes hard and brittle with age. When birds are bought frozen, halved, or in pieces, the name classification determines the age of the bird (i.e., "stewing chicken.")

**ROASTING**

The roasting process is one of the most popular methods of cooking poultry. The white meat of poultry is generally drier than the dark meat and should, therefore, be prevented from drying out during the cooking process. One way to assure a moist product is to place the breast (white meat) at the bottom of the pan. (A roasting rack is used to elevate the bird to prevent frying from taking place at the bottom of the pan.) This way, the fat covering on the back of the bird melts during the cooking process and bastes the meat, thus making it more moist. The problem with this method is that the desired browning of the breast is not achieved. If the meat is portioned after roasting, this is really unimportant, but when the whole bird or parts are served intact, more browning is necessary. This can be facilitated by turning the bird breast up for the last 15 minutes of roasting and brushing on a coating of three parts honey to one part soy sauce.
If the bird is to be cooked the entire time breast up, it is necessary to frequently baste the bird with drippings. Basting can be lessened by covering the breast with a double folded piece of cheesecloth and basting only two or three times during the roasting period. The cloth should be removed 20 or 30 minutes before it is finished to allow adequate browning to occur.

Cooking a bird in aluminum foil or in plastic wrap is not recommended since the juices are kept inside the wrapping. This causes a steamed product rather than a roasted one; the result is a pot-roasted flavor that may be less desirable.

The normal roasting temperature for poultry is usually suggested in a recipe. It is possible to minimize shrinkage by roasting at 250° F. This lengthens the cooking period, however, and should be accounted for. It may also produce a dry product if the cooking period is very long. Cooking at temperatures above 350° F. tends to lessen roasting time but produces a dried, toughened product.

The best way to determine doneness of poultry is to use a meat thermometer. It should be placed in the thickest part of the thigh or breast away from the bone. The temperature should be 185-195° F. (or less for carry-over cooking—about 165° F. If the bird is stuffed, the thermometer may be placed in the center of the stuffing. This should reach a temperature of 165°.

In large quantity food operations, poultry is not stuffed. The dressing is prepared separately, in large pans to shorten cooking time and simplify the work. After it is prepared, the stuffing is portioned and served with slices of poultry or poultry parts.

If the roasted poultry is to be held for any length of time for serving, it should be covered either with a moist cloth or with aluminum foil to prevent drying and kept in a slow oven or a heating cabinet (food warmer).

BROILING

Since broiling is a dry heat cooking method, only young, tender poultry should be prepared in this way. The poultry is usually cut into parts or prepared by removing the backbone and partially cutting the wing and leg joints before broiling. Both methods cause the bird to lie flat under the broiler, thus allowing equal heat penetration to reach all parts.
The bird is dipped into a mixture of oil, salt, white pepper, and paprika and is placed on a pre-heated grid over or under the broiler. Depending on the thickness of the poultry and the intensity of the heat, the grid is adjusted so that the meat is four to six inches from the heat sources. If it is placed too close the skin will burn before the meat is thoroughly cooked inside. It should only be turned once.

If the bird is not dipped in oil prior to being placed under the broiler, it may be basted with clarified butter with paprika added (or some variation of this). It should be basted every four to five minutes. Since this method becomes terribly messy and time consuming, it is not standard procedure.

A popular variation of broiled chicken is barbecued chicken. This process involves broiling while basting with a specially prepared barbecue sauce. The poultry should be placed seven to nine inches from the heat source to allow slow cooking. The bird should be turned frequently to permit even cooking and browning (frequently done on a rotisserie).

FRYING

Because of the nature of the frying process regarding its toughening effect on meat, young, tender chickens (1-1/2 - 3-1/2 lbs.) as "fryers" or "roasters" are usually the only poultry products fried. Chicken may be pan fried, deep fried, or oven fried.

Pan frying involves dredging parts of the chicken (or flouring it) in seasoned flour (flour, salt, and paprika). The parts are placed in a skillet containing about one-half inch of cooking fat and are evenly browned and cooked. This may be the only method of cooking used, or the chicken may be finished in a moderate (350° F.) oven for ten minutes. The finishing process improves the final product. (The pan is usually covered for the first 15 minutes of the pan frying process and the cover is removed for the last five minutes or so to crisp the chicken.)
The deep frying process involves frying chicken in a large amount of fat after it has been breaded or batter-dipped. Breading consists of dredging the dry pieces of chicken in seasoned flour, dipping them in an egg and/or milk solution, and rolling them in fine crumbs. This coating must set (about 15 minutes on a rack) so that it adheres to the chicken in the deep frying process. Southern fried chicken is a popular breaded product.

Batter dipping merely consists of dipping the pieces in a batter, letting the excess drain off, and putting them in the fat. An example of a batter-dipped product is Maryland style chicken.

Deep frying takes relatively little time to thoroughly cook the chicken from its raw state to produce a tasty, golden brown product. The process is preferred over the other frying techniques because of its simplicity and the small amount of food handling it involves.

The oven frying process is one usually used for halves or quarters of chicken. It allows a thoroughly browned product without burning. Floured and breaded chicken is placed on greased baking sheets or pans. Oil is then poured over the surfaces of the single layer of chicken. The pans are placed in a 325-350° oven for approximately one hour.

The above mentioned methods have many variations. Recipes should be consulted for specifics.

Other Moist Heat Methods

Poultry may be cooked by simmering, steaming, or poaching as well as by the methods previously mentioned. See "Cooking with Moist Heat" for more information.
WORKBOOK EXERCISES

Lesson 10

G. POULTRY COOKING

1. You, as the assistant meat cook, are given the assignment of preparing chicken for a banquet of 100 people. The chickens have been delivered and are fryers. From the knowledge you have, choose two possible methods of preparation of the entree and justify your choice in terms of time required for preparation and quality of the finished product (acceptability).

2. Define POULTRY.

3. How are the poultry classes determined?

4. At what temperatures are poultry products refrigerated?
   Frozen?

5. How can you tell if a bird is young?

6. A. Why is poultry basted?
   B. How often?
7. In terms of portions per pound, which is more economical, a ten pound or a twenty pound turkey?

8. List two ways to defrost frozen poultry.
   A.
   B.

9. Why is it not a good idea to roast large, stuffed birds at 250° or lower?

10. Should poultry be carved as soon as it has been removed from the oven? Why or why not?

11. How can a deep brown surface on a bird be achieved?

12. What is the difference between stewing and poaching?
SECTION G

1. Possible methods: broil, roast, deep fat fry, barbecue, sauté, or poach.
   In terms of shortest preparation time and greatest acceptability, broiling
   and deep fat frying are probably best.

2. Any domesticated bird raised specifically for meat or eggs.

3. 1. AGE
    2. SEX
    3. WEIGHT

4. 34-36° F.; 0° F. or below

5. If the bird has a flexible breastbone, it is young.

6. A. To prevent drying out of the white meat
    B. This greatly depends upon size and age of bird and method of roasting.
       (Generally every half hour)

7. A 20 pound turkey

8. 1. Place in refrigerator in original wrapping or
    2. Place bird in wrapping under cold running water

9. The lower temperature and long roasting time to produce a fully cooked product
   encourage growth of harmful bacteria and micro-organisms in the stuffing.

10. No; it should be allowed to stand for about 30 minutes before carving to let
    the juices "set" and be re-absorbed by the muscles. This makes the meat
    firmer, thus making carving easier.

11. By brushing the surface of the bird with a mixture of three parts honey to one
    part soy sauce before the last 15 minutes roasting.

12. Stewing involves use of more water than does poaching.
We have previously dealt with determining methods of cooking meat and poultry, a decision which is largely based upon the tenderness of the flesh. Choosing methods by which to cook fish differs in that the fat content of the fish is the decisive factor. Unlike meat, there is little connective tissue in fish. This is why there is a difference in how to determine cooking methods. Generally, fish having a low fat content are deep fried, poached, or baked in a sauce. Those with a high fat content are prepared by broiling, baking or pan frying.

The following is a list of some of the most commonly eaten fish and their fat contents:

**Fish**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fish</th>
<th>Fat Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bass, giant sea</td>
<td>3% (low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bass, sea</td>
<td>3% (low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caviar</td>
<td>15% (high)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cod</td>
<td>1.5% (very low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flounder</td>
<td>.5% (very low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haddock</td>
<td>5% (low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Halibut</td>
<td>.8% (very low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mackerel</td>
<td>8% (moderate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perch</td>
<td>1.2% (very low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salmon</td>
<td>16% (high)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shad</td>
<td>9.5% (moderate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smelt</td>
<td>4% (low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sturgeon</td>
<td>4.5% (low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swordfish</td>
<td>3.8% (low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trout</td>
<td>2% (very low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuna</td>
<td>8% (moderate)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Shellfish**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shellfish</th>
<th>Fat Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clams</td>
<td>1.4% (very low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crabs</td>
<td>2.5% (very low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lobster</td>
<td>1.9% (very low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oyster</td>
<td>2.0% (very low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scallops</td>
<td>1.3% (very low)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shrimp</td>
<td>1.5% (very low)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the quantity food business, fish may be purchased in these forms: whole, fillets (side cuts), sticks (fillets that have been portioned), and steaks (cross-section). It may be fresh or frozen.
Because of its nature, fish is a highly perishable food. If it is not stored properly, it spoils very quickly. Fresh fish should be refrigerated at temperatures below 40°F, preferably at 32-36°F. It should be wrapped in a moisture-proof wrapping to hold its moisture in and to prevent it from absorbing and releasing off-flavors. Fish that is exposed to air spoils quickly.

Frozen fish should be wrapped like fresh fish if it is not so packaged upon arrival and kept at temperatures below 0°F. It should not be thawed until just before its use.

Frozen fish is usually thawed before cooking although it may be cooked from a frozen state if adequate time is allowed. There are two methods acceptable for thawing frozen fish. One is to thaw it in the refrigerator at 37° to 40°F (about eight hours, depending upon size of the container). This method is preferred over the second method. The second method involves leaving the fish in its wrapping and placing it under COLD running water until thawed. Hot water should never be used to force-thaw fish nor should fish be thawed at room temperature. Both of these methods encourage the growth of undesirable bacteria that lowers the quality of the product. They cause loss of nutrients and loss of flavor. They also cause a loss of moisture that results in a drier product.

**BAKING FISH**

Fish having high or moderate fat content are chosen for baking and broiling. Such fish as salmon and mackerel bake well. The whole fish, fish steaks, or the fillets (sides of the fish) may be baked. A whole fish may be stuffed before baking although this is not necessary.

Before baking the fish is salted, peppered, and sprinkled with lemon juice. It may be buttered and sprinkled with paprika if desired. The fish is then placed in a greased pan and baked in a 325-350°F oven. When baking a fish having low fat content, a strip of bacon may be placed on the flesh to add fat during baking. Fish is thoroughly baked when the flesh flakes away when pierced with a fork. Do not overcook since this causes a dry, tough product.
BROILING FISH

To broil fish, first grease the broiler rack and place the fish on it skin side down. If the fish has no skin, (as in fillets) it does not matter which side is placed down. Next, brush the surface of the fish with a mixture of clarified butter (or oil) and lemon juice and adjust the rack so that the fish is five to seven inches from the heat source. Broil from six to nine minutes depending on the thickness of the fish. Turn the fish over, brush the other side with the butter mixture and broil until done. A double rack that encloses the fish from both sides allows the fish to be turned without breaking.

When broiling a thin fish, place it closer to the heat source than you would place a thicker fish. Faster broiling will occur before the fish dries out as it would if broiled for a longer period of time (if placed further from the heat source). Care must be taken not to overcook the thinner fish. A thicker fish will burn on the surface before becoming thoroughly cooked if placed close to the heat source.

POACHING FISH

When poaching fish, wrap the fish in cheesecloth to keep its shape and prevent it from flaking. This may not be necessary for steaks or fillets. The fish is placed in cold water (large fish) or hot water (for smaller fish) and simmered for 10-15 minutes per pound of fish. The water should be about two inches deep. Care should be taken not to boil the fish since this produces a toughened product.

To produce a more tasty product, a fish stock may be used instead of water. This fish stock (called a court bouillon) usually consists of celery, onions, carrot, fish stock, lemon juice or vinegar or wine, and a variety of spices.

The poaching process may be done in a pan on the range top or in the oven. Modern steamers also poach products if directions are followed. To prevent overcooking on the bottom, the fish is usually elevated on a greased trivet or rack (the fish is covered by the liquid). The fish is done when it is fork tender and
may be served either hot or cold. If served cold, the fish should be left in the court boullion until it cools to allow it to set up. There is less chance of the fish breaking up if cooled in this manner.

**PAN FRYING FISH**

To produce a tasty product by bringing out the delicate, sweet flavor of fish, clarified butter should be used instead of fat or oil in pan frying fish. (Clarified butter is butter that has been melted so that the solids go to the bottom. The clarified butter remains close to the surface.)

Fish may be breaded with finely ground cracker crumbs as noted in the following process: dip the dry fish into seasoned flour, place in a milk-egg solution (or a variety of other mixtures), and then in the crumbs. Place on a rack for about 15 minutes to dry before frying.

The breaded fish is placed in hot clarified butter and fried until fork tender. It may be necessary to turn the fish once to produce an evenly browned product. (This may either be done on the range or in the oven.)

The pan frying method of cooking fish is especially effective for preparing small whole fish, fish steaks, or fillets. The fish should be cooked until just fork tender and crisp. They are served while hot and are garnished with a lemon wedge and a sprig of parsley. Butter from the pan may be spooned over the fish.

**DEEP FAT FRYING FISH**

The deep fat frying process is a favorite method of preparing fish sticks, portions of lean fish, and shellfish. The products are breaded or batter dipped the same way as described previously. They are then fried in deep fat at 350°F until browned nicely. The following are approximate frying times:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frozen breaded shrimp</td>
<td>4 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresh breaded shrimp</td>
<td>3 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frozen fish fillets</td>
<td>5 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresh fish fillets</td>
<td>3 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresh breaded scallops</td>
<td>4 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breaded fried clams</td>
<td>1 minute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breaded fried oysters</td>
<td>5 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frozen fish sticks</td>
<td>4 minutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE:** The same precautions should be taken in deep frying fish as in deep frying poultry (see poultry cookery, Deep Fat Frying).
COOKING SHELLFISH

Lobsters, clams, crabs, and oysters may be purchased alive in the shell. If the clams and oysters' shells are open and will not close, this is a sign that they are dead and are not usable. This is apparent in lobsters and crabs if they do not close their claws when claws are forced open.

Clams and oysters may be opened and served raw on the half shell with a cocktail sauce or steamed five to ten minutes until the shells open. Lobsters and crabs are usually cooked by plunging them in boiling salted water for 15 - 20 minutes (depending on the size). Clams and oysters are purchased by the dozen, crabs and lobsters by the pound.

Shucked clams, oysters, and scallops may be purchased in a frozen state ready for cooking. They should be kept frozen until ready for use.

Shrimp may be purchased fresh, pre-cooked, or frozen and are sold according to pre-determined size. These sizes are jumbo, large, medium, and small. The jumbo has 12 to 15 shrimp per pound and the small size may have more than 60 shrimp per pound.

Cooked lobster meat, crab meat, and shrimp are available. These products have been cooked and cleaned, and if they are of the highest quality they will be 100% edible--no waste. If however, the product is not of the highest quality there may be pieces of the shell in the cooked product. This goes to show that you only get what you pay for.

The products previously mentioned are also available in cans. They are of high quality and have no waste. Sizes of cans range from 3-1/2 ounces to five pounds.

Shrimp can be cleaned either before or after they are cooked. The most economical way is to slit the back of the shrimp where the vein (usually black in color) is located and then cook. The shrimp are placed in rapidly boiling salted water; covered and returned to a boil, and simmered for five minutes or until the flesh has lost its shiny appearance. During this simmering process the majority of the vein will fall out, thus lessening the amount of necessary cleaning.
Besides being boiled, lobsters may be cooked by broiling or by steaming. They may be stuffed before broiling. To prevent drying out in the broiling process, the lobster may be split, cleaned, roasted in an oven for about 15 minutes; removed and buttered, and slipped under the broiler for about three minutes to finish the cooking.
WORKBOOK EXERCISES

Lesson 10

H. FISH AND SHELLFISH COOKERY

1. You are given the assignment of deep fat frying Shad for your establishment. Considering your knowledge about varieties of fish and deep fat frying, what would your reaction be? Why?

2. For the following fish, and shellfish, suggest two possible methods of cooking:
   
   A. Flounder
      1. 
      2. 
   
   B. Salmon
      1. 
      2. 
   
   C. Oysters
      1. 
      2. 
   
   D. Mackerel
      1. 
      2. 

3. What is clarified butter?

4. Why is a thin fish placed closer to the heat source in broiling than a thicker one?
5. In what ways can fish and shellfish be purchased? (i.e., fresh ...) 

6. How can you tell if clams or oysters are alive in the shell?

7. Describe the process for cooking live lobsters.

8. What are the best methods for cooking fish with a high fat content?

9. Why should fish be wrapped in cheesecloth for poaching?

10. How would you oven-fry fish for a large number of people?
KEY TO WORKBOOK EXERCISES

Lesson 10

SECTION H

1. Shad has a relatively high fat content. If deep fat fried, the finished product would be very greasy and the fat in the fryer would be broken down very quickly because of the release of the fat from the fish.

2. A. Flounder
   1. Sauté, broil, fry, oven fry
   2.

B. Salmon
   1. Barbecue, bake, poach, oven fry
   2.

C. Oysters
   1. Stews, sauté, fry, casseroles, raw
   2.

D. Mackerel
   1. Barbecue
   2. Bake

3. Butter which has been melted and from which the solids have been removed.

4. If the broiling is prolonged, the thin fish dries out. A thicker fish cannot be placed as close to the heat source because it will burn on the surface before cooking inside.

5. fresh, frozen, canned, and pre-cooked

6. Shells must be forced open and will close when force is removed

7. They are shoved head-first into broiling water and simmered until done.

8. Baking, broiling, and pan-frying

9. The cheesecloth keeps the fish's shape and prevents flaking.

10. Fish is breaded, placed on a greased baking sheet and placed in the oven. It is turned once during the process to achieve an evenly browned product.

   (Some melted fat may be ladled on each portion before oven-frying.)
HFS SPECIFICS: LESSON 10

The meat station in the HFS might more descriptively be called the entree station since the cooks here are responsible for the preparation of all the entrees on the luncheon and dinner menus. The HFS menu may include pasta, fish, and seafood items in addition to the typical beef, pork, poultry, and other meat products. Because of the wide variety of possible menu items, we will break them down into the specific categories mentioned above in order to further describe the activities of the two HFS meat cooks.

Pasta products in the HFS are prepared like those in most other establishments. These products may be prepared in the trunnion, the steamer, or in a pot on the range. Although the sauces for these items have previously been prepared from scratch, improved convenience products are being used more frequently. Occasionally, the HFS may purchase ready-to-cook frozen entrees which can be cooked in the oven or in the microwave oven. (Care should be taken to use either paper or glass containers for cooking in the microwave since metals do not permit the food to cook.)

The HFS prepares a variety of fish and seafood entrees that are cooked in almost any way possible. Fish entrees may be baked, broiled, poached, or fried. They may be served plain or with a variety of sauces. All types of seafood may appear on the HFS menu. These items are frequently prepared by deep frying, baking, or broiling. Most of the fish and seafood used in the HFS is purchased in the frozen form. Raw fish may have to be thawed and portioned before cooking; the same holds true for raw seafood. On occasion, the HFS may purchase frozen seafood that has already been cleaned and breaded. This is ready for deep frying, thus saving the cooks the time involved in cleaning and breading the products as they would do with raw products. (All deep fat frying is done by a pantry worker in the short order station. Meat cooks only prepare items for frying by cleaning and breading or batter-dipping them.) Fish and seafood are sometimes used in soups. Seafood is frequently served a la Nornberg.

Poultry items are popular in the HFS. Chicken is usually purchased fresh, and depending upon what is available, either whole or in parts. It is served in all possible forms. Leftover chicken may be used in making chicken salad for sandwiches
or in chicken a la king. The HFS used to rely heavily upon roasting whole turkeys—a long, time-consuming process that yielded much waste after the bird was carved for portioning. Now, the convenience "turkey roll" is most frequently used. This product needs only to be sliced and heated (for hot entrees—or sliced and used in sandwiches). It eliminates almost all the labor involved and yields no waste.

Most steaks, roasts, and other meat items are purchased fresh, cut up (when necessary) by the meat cutter, and frozen when not needed immediately. Although the broilerman is generally responsible for broiling entree items, when he cannot handle all of the orders, one of the meat cooks may assist him by preparing items on the kitchen broiler. (See Figure 8.) Roasts are prepared in the stack ovens (which may be replaced by a convection oven that cooks more quickly due to a fan that forces the hot air around inside the oven), and chops may be baked, fried in the tilt fry pan or broil.

On occasion, the meat cooks may prepare soups from scratch, but the trend seems to be toward using convenience products. Up until recently, the HFS was well-known for its home made soups, a reputation that they hope will not change. The soup-making activity also serves the purpose of using up high quality leftovers before they spoil and cost the HFS money.

Looking at the set up of the HFS meat station (Figure 8), you can see that the equipment has been arranged so that those foods that are ready for serving are close to the steam table, food warmer, and bain Marie. Beef roasts are removed from the ovens when the meat thermometer indicates a rare stage of doneness, are placed on the work table until the juices have set, and are sliced (when possible) on the slicer in the meat station. Slices are arranged in steam table pans (after portioning by weight on the portion scale) and are kept in the food warming cabinet until they are needed for serving. Soups and sauces are removed from the trunnions into steam table containers and are placed in the bain Marie (a hot water bath) until they are needed.

You may find that the activities in your establishment are not nearly as elaborate as those of the HFS. Again, do not be critical of your work place or it may not be your work place next week!!!
FIGURE 1.2: HFS KITCHEN

5/30/72 MER 2254: SW
Figure 8: MEAT STATION AND MEAT CUTTING AREA

KEY
1. Meat cutting area
2. Meat grinder
3. Microwave oven
4. Broiler
5. Work tables
6. Tilt fry pan
7. Range
8. Stack oven or Convection oven
9. Sink (2)
10. Portion scale
11. Built-in cutting board
12. Automatic slicer
13. Raised shelf for recipes

NOTE: All pots, pans, and other equipment is stored beneath main work station. Knives and small utensils are kept in station drawers; whips and ladles are hung from a bar above raised shelf (#13). Staple goods used in preparation are kept in cannisters beneath raised shelf on the work table.
HFS EXERCISES

1. Draw a rough floorplan of the establishment in which you work (this does not have to be to scale).

2. Make a more detailed drawing of the "meat station" in your establishment. Show the placement of the equipment as is done in Figure 6.
3. Investigate the following and record your findings:

A. What type of fat is used in the deep fat fryer in your establishment?
   Name ________________________
   Solid or liquid ________________
   Smoke point _________________
   Saturated or Polyunsaturated _______________

B. How often is the fat filtered?

C. How often is the thermostat checked?

4. How are meats and/or poultry prepared in your establishment for deep fat frying?

5. List various meat dishes that your establishment prepares that involve pan frying.

6. From the cook in your establishment (or from any other source), learn how a whole turkey is carved and portioned. List the steps below in order from the time the bird is removed from the oven until it is served to the guest.
SKILLS
Lesson 10

67. Bone chicken breasts
68. Cut a whole chicken into parts
69. Determine the doneness of a turkey (2 different skills)
70. Test the doneness of fish
71. Portion fish (raw or cooked)
72. Clean a whole fish
73. Clean shrimp

RELATED SKILLS: #'s 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 23, 27, 53, 54.
SKILL SECTION

On the following three pages is a list of SKILLS that you must practice and perform for your establishment supervisor. The SKILLS that are appropriate for any particular lesson in HFS 850 are listed at the end of that lesson. It is to your benefit to learn these SKILLS some time during the week that you are reading the lesson material. Since this may not be possible, there is no order that you have to follow in completing the SKILLS. However, by the end of Spring Term, you must have successfully completed ALL of the SKILLS on the list. (Your instructor will give you further details about the procedure you should follow.)

If, for any reason, you cannot practice and perform a specific SKILL as it is described, explain this to the University instructor and he will select an approved substitute skill.

Most of the SKILLS have a step by step analysis that will tell you the correct way to practice the SKILL. For these SKILLS, you should practice the steps until you feel you can perform the skill for the establishment supervisor.

There are only a few SKILLS that do not have specific procedures to follow. These may tell you to:

1. Choose any appropriate task and successfully perform it, OR
2. Consult with the supervisor or another worker and have him teach you and supervise your activity while you are learning that specific task.

NOTE: If a certain SKILL includes a manufacturer's name and a model number, this indicates that the procedure described for performing the skill may differ slightly if another make and model of equipment is used to perform the skill. Because of this, BEFORE YOU OPERATE ANY PIECE OF EQUIPMENT IN YOUR WORK PLACE, HAVE SOMEONE TRAIN YOU TO RUN THAT PIECE OF MACHINERY!!
SKILLS

1. A.* Setting up and operating a dish machine

2. B.* Cleaning and closing up a dish machine

2. Cleaning a grill

3. Cleaning a trunnion or steam kettle

4. Cleaning broiler grids

5.* Cleaning out a deep fat fryer

6.* Setting up a deep fat fryer

7.* Running a deep fat fryer

8.* Straining fat in a deep fat fryer

9. Peeling potatoes

10.* Using a French knife (2)

11. Using a steamer (learn skill and WRITE skill analysis)

12. Reconstituting leftover vegetables

13. Operating an automatic potato peeler

14. Coring an apple (2)

15. Removing core from head lettuce (2)

16. Preparing fresh fruit salad from scratch

17. Cleaning salad greens

18. Storing salad ingredients

19. Preparing tossed green salad

20. Making salad bases

21. Preparing a salad garnish

22. Preparing and unmolding gelatin salads

23.* Adjusting heat in trunnion or steam kettle to SIMPLER contents

24. Preparing hot cereal

25. Preparing any food item that uses starch as a thickener

26. Preparing a pasta product
27. Using a wire whip to stir and blend
28. Using a ladle
29. Preparing a Hollandaise sauce
30. Making a slurry
31. Making a roux
32. Thickening gravies or stews
33. Whipping egg whites
34. Preparing a custard
35. Preparing a cooked fruit dessert
36. Making a dessert
37. Making a dessert topping or sauce
38. Slicing a pie
39. Portioning a cake (2)
40. Using a scoop
41. Cracking an egg without breaking the yolk
42. Separating an egg white from egg yolk
43. Scrambling an egg
44. Frying an egg
45. Poaching an egg
46. Making an omelet
47. Making pancakes
48. Treating a frying pan
49. Using automatic slicer
50. Spreading butter or mayonnaise
51. Grilling a sandwich
52. Slicing a sandwich
53. Using an automatic chopper-grinder
54. Portioning solid sandwich fillings
55. Portioning salad-type sandwich fillings
56. **Carving a rib roast
57. **Carving a rolled roast
58. *Sharpening knives with steel
59. *Determining doneness of a roast using meat thermometer
60. Skinning a tenderloin
61. Boning a roast
62. Rolling a roast
63. Cutting a pocket in a pork chop
64. Turning meat on the broiler
65. Scoring fat before broiling
66. Adjusting the broiler
67. Boning chicken breasts
68. *Cutting whole chicken into parts
69. Determining doneness of a turkey (2)
70. Testing doneness of fish
71. *Portioning fish (raw or cooked)
72. Cleaning a whole fish
73. Cleaning shrimp

* These are CRITICAL skills that you may be called upon to perform for the University instructor in addition to the establishment supervisor.

** You are responsible for either SKILL #56 or SKILL #57; both are CRITICAL.
1.A. Setting up and operating a dishwashing machine (Hobart model C-44)

   A. Shut base valve.
   B. Close drain by throwing lever under machine to "closed" position.
   C. Be sure all screens in bottom are clean and in place.
   D. Open valve under machine on left to begin filling tank.
   E. Shut valve when water is above screens.
   F. Turn on heater.
   G. Make sure curtains are in place and there is additional soap on hand.
   H. Close door in front when temperature has reached the minimum level.
   I. Turn on pump.
   J. Turn on soap indicator.
   K. Turn on water for spray hose.
   L. Fill rack with dishes that have been scraped off and sprayed.
   M. Align rack with the "feet".
   N. Push rack into machine until it catches on hooks.
   O. If there is a slack period, turn pump off. If this period will be long, also turn heater off.
   P. When soap is needed, red light will go on and buzzer will sound.
   Q. Refill soap with dishwashing soap ONLY; continue as above.

1.B. Cleaning and closing up a dishwashing machine.

   A. Remove wash arms and flush them out with running water.
   B. Remove scrap trays and empty; clean under spray arms.
   C. Remove rinse spray and wash to remove any particles that may clog jets; test by running water through rinse attachment.
   D. Wash down inside of machine with hose; scrub if necessary.
   E. Remove curtains; scrub with brush and detergent; hang to dry.
   F. Open door(s) on machine to allow air to dry inside of machine.
   G. After all machine parts have dried, re-assemble machine for use.
2. Cleaning a grill.
   A. Turn grill off.
   B. Rinse down with warm water or soda water.
   C. Scrape off excess.
   D. Apply small amount of oil to grill surface.
   E. Scour with grill stone using circular movements.
   F. Use a soft rag to wipe off fat and grit.
   G. Repeat steps D, E, and F if necessary.
   H. Wipe with a thin coat of oil to lubricate before using grill.
   I. Wipe down back-splash with soapy water, taking care not to get it on grill surface.
   J. Empty and wash grease collector and return to grill.

3. Cleaning trunnion or jacketed kettle.
   A. After using trunnion, turn off heat.
   B. Fill halfway with lukewarm water. If possible, let it set for a while.
   C. Get cleaning brush and mild detergent.
   D. Place detergent in water and thoroughly scrub inside and outside of kettle with brush.
   E. Empty dirty water into a retaining container by tilting kettle.
   F. Rinse with small amount of clean water and empty.
   G. Wipe with clean, dry cloth.

4. Cleaning broiler grids.
   A. Remove grids and place in hot soapy water to soak.
   B. Using wire brush, scour grids.
   C. If necessary, use commercial product such as "Easy-off" to remove baked on grease and carbon.
   D. Rinse thoroughly and allow to dry.
   E. Replace in broiler.
5. Cleaning out deep fat fryer.
   A. Remove empty pan, clean it and put aside.
   B. Turn thermostat control to 100° F. for 30 seconds to burn fat from heating elements.
   C. With a damp cloth, wipe down top and sides of fryer to remove spilled fat.
   D. Replace clean pan (step A) in top of fryer.

6. Setting up deep fat fryer. (Electric type—Toastmaster, Model 14C4-A)
   A. Make sure fryer elements are clean. Raise elements (coils).
   B. Place empty pan in fryer.
   C. Add fat (liquid) by slowly pouring it in until "full" line is reached.
   D. If using solid shortening, put coil into fat and turn temperature control to 200° F. to melt fat.
   E. When fat is all liquid, increase heat to desired setting and allow fat to heat.
   F. When temperature has been reached, a light will usually go on indicating that fryer is ready for use.

7. Running deep fat fryer.
   A. Set up fryer as described in skill #6. Make sure fat is set for proper temperature.
   B. Remove frying basket from over fat.
   C. Fill basket with food to be fried. Do not fill over fryer.
   D. Place full basket in place over fat.
   E. Lower basket into fat.
   F. When product is cooked, raise basket.
   G. Allow excess fat to drip back into well without shaking basket.
   H. Remove contents of basket to pan containing absorbent paper.
   I. If necessary, add additional fat to fryer until "full" line is reached before doing additional frying.
8. Straining fat in deep fat fryer. (For Toastmaster Model 14C4-A)

A. Turn off machine (Thermostat at 0°F.)
B. Pull handle to slide out drawer to expose empty grease pan (beneath fry well.)
C. Raise heating elements.
D. Place filter bag securely on long end of syphon.
E. Place syphon over front edge of fryer in hole provided for it, long end extending into empty pan, short end into fat in fry well.
F. Pump syphon until fat begins to flow steadily into lower pan.
G. When all fat has been syphoned into lower pan, carefully remove syphon to upper pan.
H. Close drawer with full grease pan slowly so as not to spill.
I. Remove pan and syphon from fryer well and clean thoroughly.
J. Store syphon; replace clean pan in fryer well.


A. Wash potatoes with vegetable brush and cold water.
B. Using paring knife or swivel peeler, remove peels and eyes as close to surface as possible to prevent waste.

10. French knife--chopping.

A. Material to be chopped is placed in center of cutting board.
B. Index finger is not resting on back of knife; fingers of hand holding knife are all gripping handle.
C. Fingertips of opposite hand rest lightly on back of knife near knife tip.
D. Knife tip used as a pivot; knife is brought down to chop and handle is raised again in a continuous motion.
10.2 French knife—dicing (celery is a good material to use)

____ A. If using celery, several stalks are placed parallel to one another on cutting board.

____ B. Fingertips of hand not holding knife hold material being diced.

____ C. Point of knife touches board; knife gradually moves toward fingertips of hand holding food product.

____ D. Knife is pushed down and forward through material; after one cut has been made, knife handle is raised and brought back to starting position. (If this is done properly, the wrist will move in a circle, counterclockwise.)

11. Using steamer to cook vegetables.

Use either stack steamer or compartment steamer.

Learn the skill and write a step-by-step analysis of this skill.

12. Reconstitute one leftover vegetable for serving. This is optional as far as choice of vegetable and how it is reconstituted. Product should be one of high quality, it should be appetizing, attractive, and well-prepared.

13. Peeling potatoes in automatic peeler.

There is no written checklist for this skill. This skill should be learned by consulting with appropriate worker or supervisor and performed by student only under direct observation of his superior.

14.1 Coring an apple.

____ A. Insert corer straight down into center of apple (stem portion facing up) until corer pierces through bottom of apple.

____ B. Twist corer around 360°.

____ C. Pull out corer, thus removing apple core.
14.2 Coring an apple.

A. Obtain paring knife
B. Cut apple in half from end to end.
C. Cut out seed portion of each half.
D. Cut on either side of core at a 45° angle to center of apple.
E. Remove this V-shaped wedge from apple; repeat step D and E for other half of apple.

15.1 Removing core from head lettuce (by cutting)

A. Place head of lettuce on cutting board with core facing up.
B. Brace head by placing hand on side of head.
C. Use a small salad knife or paring knife to cut around the core. (Slant knife toward center.)
D. Slice all around the core and use knife to pry it out.

15.2 Removing core from head lettuce (by twisting)

A. Grasp head of lettuce with both hands—one on either side with core pointing down.
B. Raise head 10-12 inches above cutting board or hard surfaced counter and strike core sharply on surface.
C. This should dislodge core so it can be removed by twisting with fingers.
D. Repeat striking action if necessary.
16. Preparing fresh fruit salad (from scratch).

   A. Collect fruits.
   B. Peel oranges and grapefruit and cut into bite sized pieces.
   C. Peel and slice bananas into 1/4 inch discs.
   D. Put sliced bananas among orange and grapefruit pieces to prevent browning.
   E. Core and section apples after washing. Do not peel.
   F. Dice apple sections into 1/4 inch pieces.
   G. Put apple pieces in orange or grapefruit juice (or lemon juice) to prevent browning.
   H. (If available, use strawberries). Wash and sort to remove any that are spoiled.
   I. Remove stems and leaves.
   J. If large, slice.
   K. Gently mix all fruits together in a bowl by lifting with a large spoon. DO NOT CRUSH!
   L. Refrigerate until serving time.

17. Cleaning salad greens.

   A. Remove leaves that are wilted or damaged.
   B. Remove core of head lettuce.
   C. Run water through lettuce head.
   D. Rinse in cold water--DO NOT SOAK.
   E. Drain greens to remove excess water.
   F. Tear (or cut for large quantities) into bite sized pieces and refrigerate until serving time.
18. Storing salad ingredients.

   A. Upon arrival, check delivery for correct amounts and condition of items.
   B. Store all salad ingredients in walk-in refrigerator (if possible), or other refrigerated unit at 36° until just before use.
   C. Place items on shelves—not on floor—to insure proper ventilation.
   D. Keep radishes and carrots in plastic bags prior to use.
   E. Keep other items in crates or boxes to protect from additional handling and bruising.
   F. Do not store over long periods of time.

19. Preparing a tossed salad.

   A. Gather necessary ingredients.
   B. Wash greens (skill #17) and tear into bite-sized pieces.
   C. Wash and drain remaining ingredients.
   D. Peel carrots, cut off ends of carrots and radishes.
   E. Score cucumbers lengthwise with prongs of fork. Do not peel.
   F. Slice carrots and radishes by hand or by machine.
   G. Slice cucumbers by hand or by machine.
   H. Core tomatoes and cut into wedges.
   I. Toss carrots and radishes with greens in large bowl to mix thoroughly.
   J. Portion into individual bowls.
   K. Garnish with cucumber, tomato wedge, and perhaps onion slice as close to serving time as possible.
   L. Refrigerate until served.


   A. Using cleaned head lettuce, remove individual leaves.
   B. Shape leaves into a "cup" by tearing along center "seam" to midpoint of leaf and overlapping to edge of leaf.
21. **Preparing a salad garnish.**

   (This requirement may be met by successful completion of any appropriate task chosen by the student.)

22. **Unmolding gelatin salads.**

   A. Place mold in shallow pan of warm water so that water comes only to edge of mold.
   
   B. Remove when gelatin at edge of mold shows signs of liquefying.
   
   C. Place plate on top of mold and invert both so that gelatin is released on to plate.
   
   D. If necessary, jar or tap mold to release gelatin.

23. **Adjusting heat in trunnion kettle to simmer contents.**

   A. Open valve as far as possible.
   
   B. Allow ingredients in kettle to start boiling.
   
   C. Turn valve until it is open less than half way.
   
   D. If heat is too great and contents are not simmering but boiling, continue to turn valve without completely closing it.

24. **Preparing a hot cereal.**

   A. Follow package directions--mix dry ingredients with enough COLD water to form a smooth paste.
   
   B. Boil remaining water and add gradually to paste, stirring constantly.
   
   C. Cook mixture in a double boiler or steam kettle until it thickens and starchy taste disappears. (A thick gummy product is undesirable.)
   
   D. Take care not to boil the cereal or stir it excessively while cooking.
25. Preparing any food item that uses starch as a thickener.
   (This requirement may be met by successful completion of any appropriate
task chosen by student.)
   This skill stresses a smooth consistency of the prepared product and
   absence of lumping.

26. Preparing a pasta product.
   (This requirement may be met by successful completion of any appropriate
task chosen by student.)
   This skill stresses production of a tender, chewy product and absence of
   stickiness and mushiness.

27. Using a wire whip to stir and blend.
   _____ A. When using a large whip, and a stationary container, grip handle
             with one hand, thumb nearest the top of grip.
   _____ B. Place other hand lower than the first using same grip. Hands may
             be separated.
   _____ C. Use upper hand as a pivot point.
   _____ D. Lower hand guides and gives motion to whip.
   _____ E. Move lower hand in circular fashion to allow whip to reach and
             combine all ingredients in vessel; or, for a smaller whip and a
             container that is not stationary, whip is held in one hand while
             other hand steadies container. How the whip is held is up to the
             individual.

28. Using a ladle.
   _____ A. Grip ladle by handle, thumb at top of grip, bowl of ladle at bottom.
   _____ B. Dip and sink bowl into bottom of container.
   _____ C. Stir contents with a circular motion and withdraw ladle from
             container.
   _____ D. Tip ladle handle toward yourself to empty ladle contents.
29. Preparing a Hollandaise sauce (or another sauce thickened with egg yolks)
   A. Heat milk to just below boiling
   B. Blend butter (or margarine) with flour. Stir until smooth to form roux.
   C. Add roux to milk, stirring constantly.
   D. Simmer about five minutes or until slightly thickened.
   E. Add seasoning to sauce; mix well.
   F. While stirring sauce constantly over low heat, add lightly beaten egg yolks in small amounts. Do not allow sauce to boil or simmer.
   G. Add remaining butter (or margarine) and lemon juice in small amounts, stirring constantly, until all is added. Beat well after each addition. Do not allow sauce to boil or simmer.

30. Making a slurry.
   A. Add flour (one part) gradually to two parts cold water, stirring constantly. (This varies, depending upon desired consistency.)
   B. Use wire whip to more thoroughly combine water and flour by removing lumps.
   C. If lumps remain, strain slurry through china cap.

31. Making a roux.
   A. Heat trunnion by opening steam valve.
   B. Place butter in trunnion and allow to melt. DO NOT BOIL.
   C. Add flour to melted butter; these are usually in equal amounts, but it depends upon the desired thickness.
   D. Mix with wire whip until all is blended together.
   E. Cook until raw starchy taste has disappeared.
32. Thickening gravies or stews to proper consistencies without lumps forming.

   ___A. Make a slurry.
   ___B. Add a cool slurry to hot liquid.
       OR
   ___A. Make a roux.
   ___B.1 Add cold roux to hot liquid.
       OR
   ___B.2 Add hot roux to cold liquid.

33. Whipping egg whites.

   ___A. Set up mixer, put bowl in place.
   ___B. Separate egg whites from yolks. (Make sure no yolk is present.)
       Place whites in mixing bowl.
   ___C. Beat at high speed until whites turn opaque and form glossy peaks
       that bend at the tips.
34. Making a custard.
   A. Assemble and measure ingredients.
   B. Combine dry ingredients.
   C. Add correct amount of dry milk to dry ingredients.
   D. Boil necessary amount of water.
   E. Separate egg yolks from whites (if recipe indicates).
   F. Break yolks and whip with a fork (save whites for another recipe).
   G. Melt butter (do not brown it).
   H. Stir dry ingredients into melted butter until large lumps are broken up.
   I. Add proper amount of boiling water slowly, stirring constantly to a thick paste.
   J. Cook to boiling over medium heat while stirring constantly covering entire bottom area of pan.
   K. Remove from heat.
   L. Stir hot mixture, a spoonful at a time, into yolks until yolk temperature is almost as great as hot mixture.
   M. Pour in remainder of hot mixture.
   N. Cook for two (approximately) minutes stirring constantly.
   O. Remove from heat.
   P. Add vanilla.
   Q. Stir periodically while cooling to prevent formation of a "skin" on surface of custard.

35. Preparing a cooked fruit dessert.
   (This requirement may be met by successful completion of any appropriate task chosen by student.)

36. Making a dessert.
   (This requirement may be met by successful completion of any appropriate task chosen by the student.)
37. Preparing a dessert topping or sauce.
   (This requirement may be met by successful completion of any appropriate
   task chosen by the student.)

38. Slicing a pie.
   A. Assemble equipment: pie marker, knife or spatula, pointed spatula.
   B. Mark top of pie into desired number of portions by pressing down
      pie marker hard enough to make indentations on crust.
   C. Cut along indentations, cleaning or wetting blade of spatula as
      necessary.
   D. Remove slices of pie to plates with pointed spatula.
   E. If necessary, refrigerate pie until serving.

39.1 Portioning a cake (sheet).
   A. Determine either number of desirable servings from whole sheet
      or size (for example, 2" x 3") of portions.
   B. To accomplish "A" above, make marks (guidelines) on edge of cake.
   C. Cut into cake at marks with spatula from one edge of pan to the
      other using a straight edge if necessary.
   D. Repeat step "C" after turning pan to form square or rectangular
      portions.
   E. Remove individual portions to serving plates as needed for service
      (or prior to service).
39.2 Portioning a cake (layer).

A. Make sure cake has cooled sufficiently.
B. Determine number of portions desired from cake.
C. For an even number of portions, divide cake in half by drawing
   shallow cuts into icing with edge of knife.
D. Continue until desired number of portions have been marked.
E. Cut through at marks.
F. For odd number of desired portions (if no grid cake marker is
   available), make small marks at edge of cake until uniform portions
   are obtained.
G. Cut through cake at marks into center of cake.
H. Remove cut slices with spatula and put on plates for serving.

40. Using a scoop.

A. Grip scoop by handle with scoop bowl facing in the same direction
   as the palm of the hand.
B. Lower scoop into food material.
C. Pull bowl of scoop toward you.
D. Level off on side of container.
E. Depress spring to release scoop product.

41. Cracking an egg without breaking the yolk.

A. Take egg in one hand and lightly but firmly tap middle of egg on a
   sharp edge of a solid object. Do not crack it hard enough to allow
   the yolk or white to run out.
B. Position thumbs on either side of crack so that index fingers and
   tips of thumbs hold egg in place.
C. Move thumbs away from each other while applying a slight amount of
   pressure toward center of egg.
D. As shell separates, release egg from shell into container. Be
   careful not to catch egg yolk on jagged edge of shell.
42. Separating egg white from egg yolk.

   A. Crack egg in half on edge of bowl.
   B. Hold egg over small bowl and break it apart—do not separate completely.
   C. Let most of the white drain into the bowl keeping the yolk in the lower part of the shell.
   D. Shift yolk back and forth between shell halves to release additional white (do not catch yolk on jagged shell.)
   E. Place yolk in a separate bowl.

43. Scrambling an egg.

   A. Using a treated pan, melt just enough butter (clarified) or margarine in pan to cover bottom of frying pan.
   B. Combine eggs, milk, salt and pepper in small bowl.
   C. Using a wire whip or a fork, beat with circular motion to completely blend ingredients. Avoid forming a foam on mixture.
   D. Pour into heated frying pan and heat over medium-low heat.
   E. Stir occasionally with narrow spatula or fork so eggs will cook in fairly large pieces. This is accomplished by lifting up the cooked portion to allow uncooked egg mixture to cook.
   F. Cook until no liquid remains; do not allow any part to brown.
   G. Remove from heat and serve immediately.
44. Frying an egg

A. Using a treated pan, melt just enough butter (clarified) or margarine in pan to cover bottom of frying pan.

B. Heat skillet over medium heat.

C. Crack eggs, one by one on to a plate; slide individually into hot skillet.

D. Fry until egg yolk and white are firm.

E. Remove from skillet by first loosening from pan with spatula and then sliding egg onto plate.

Option: Egg may be turned over in pan with spatula. If using grill rather than skillet, make sure it is clean. Follow same procedure, removing with spatula.

45. Poaching an egg

A. Put 2-3 inches of water in pan and bring to a simmer.

B. Add salt and vinegar (or lemon juice) to water.

C. Crack egg(s) on to cooled dish.

D. Slide egg into water along edge of pan.

E. Cook for three to five minutes according to desired degree of doneness.

F. Remove egg with slotted spoon or perforated ladle to drain off excess water. Serve immediately.
46. Making an omelet.

   A. Blend ingredients with wire whip or rotary beater until thoroughly mixed. Do not allow foam to form.
   B. Melt enough butter or other fat to coat skillet bottom.
   C. Add mixture to heated fat and cook over medium heat.
   D. As egg mixture begins to cook, use a narrow spatula to lift omelet and allow liquid to run underneath. Continue until no more liquid is present.
   E. Continue cooking until bottom of omelet is browned and surface is still shiny.
   F. Fold omelet in half; remove from pan and serve.

47. Making pancakes.

   A. Prepare pancake mix according to directions on box or by recipe.
   B. On a heated, slightly greased grill (or in a skillet), ladle out mixture using ladle head to evenly distribute it.
   C. Turn over with spatula when slightly brown around edges and small bubbles form at surface.
   D. Cook on other side until browned.
   E. Remove with spatula.
48. Treating a frying pan for egg cookery.

A. For best results, use a cast aluminum or iron skillet.
B. Preheat oven to medium temperature (325°).
C. Scour pan vigorously with water and steel wool.
D. Rinse pan thoroughly and dry.
E. Place pan in hot oven for about five minutes or until too hot to grip with bare hand.
F. Remove pan from oven.
G. Rub with a paper towel saturated with cooking oil.
H. Put pan aside for several hours.
I. Before using, sprinkle pan with one teaspoon salt and rub vigorously with a paper towel.
J. Remove excess salt by wiping with dry, soft cloth.
K. Pan is ready for use.
L. After using pan never wash it. Merely wipe with soft, dry cloth.

49. Using automatic slicer for meats and cheeses. (Hobart Model 1612)
A. Obtain product to be sliced.
B. Place on carrier.
C. Place guard over product to hold it in place.
D. Set adjustment so that slice thickness is regulated.
E. Turn machine blade on.
F. If feed is not automatic, move feeder back and forth across blade.
G. As slices are cut, they may be removed from slicer base and placed in a pan.
50. Spread butter or mayonnaise on bread with as few movements as possible.

   A. Soften butter at room temperature. DO NOT MELT.
   B. Place bread on flat surface.
   C. With small size spatula place about one teaspoon butter (or mayonnaise) in center of bread slice.
   D. Hold bread slice with one hand to prevent it from moving.
   E. With a circular motion spread butter or mayonnaise only to edges of bread slice.

51. Grilling a sandwich.

   A. Preheat grill to desired temperature.
   B. Brush both surfaces of sandwich with melted butter or margarine.
   C. Place on grill until side is browned.
   D. Turn sandwich with a spatula or a turner.
   E. Brown second side.
   F. Remove from grill and serve immediately.

52. Slicing a sandwich.

   A. Place finished sandwich on cutting board.
   B. Obtain serrated or French knife.
   C. Choose way for slicing (in triangles etc.).
   D. Steady sandwich with one hand.
   E. Begin to slice by moving knife in slow, easy motion across top layer of bread.
   F. Continue slicing with a saw-like motion. Do not press down hard.
   G. Cut through all layers of bread and filling.
53. Using an automatic chopper-grinder. (Hobart Model 84142)

A. Remove cover from vegetable chopper and store on shelf underneath chopper.
B. Obtain food item to be processed.
C. Food item should be cut in as uniform size as possible.
D. Place food item in round bowl making certain not to overload.
E. Turn switch to "on" position and process food item to desired stage of fineness.
F. Chopper will not turn "on" unless bowl guard is secure. (This is a built-in safety feature.)
G. When desired stage of fineness is reached, turn switch to "off."
H. With a rubber scraper, scrape out processed food item into a pan or bowl.
I. To remove all processed food, switch will have to be turned "on" then "off" quickly.
J. Safety latch on bowl cover will have to be released in order to remove all processed food.
K. Releasing safety latch exposes cutting blades; this step (J) requires a great deal of care to prevent cuts.

54. Portioning solid sandwich fillings.

A. Slice meats and cheeses into thin pieces on automatic slicer.
B. Determine amount of filling to be used in sandwich (i.e., three ounces).
C. Weigh individual portions on ounce-portion scale.
D. Place weighed portions on sandwich paper and stack in pan for future use. Refrigerate.

Note: This same method of portioning is used for entree items that require sliced meats.
55. Portioning salad-type sandwich fillings.
   A. Determine size of portion to be used for sandwiches (for example, three ounces).
   B. Obtain scoop that measures this amount (for example, #16).
   C. Follow directions in skill #40 for using a scoop.
   D. Place scoop of filling in center of slice of bread.
   E. Follow directions in skill #50 for spreading filling on bread.

56. Carving a rib roast. (right-handed person)
   A. Remove backbone from ribs
   B. Place roast on cutting board, broader surface down.
   C. Set roast before you, ribs to left and ends of ribs pointing toward you.
   D. Check knife to be sure it is razor sharp.
   E. Insert carving fork securely between two top ribs.
   F. Start at right outside edge (at broadest point) and slice across face of roast toward rib side.
   G. When knife blade reaches rib, loosen slice by cutting along full length of rib bone with point of knife.
   H. As each slice is cut, slide knife blade under it, steadying it with a fork, and lift to platter.

57. Carving a rolled roast
   A. Place roast on its side on carving board. Make sure it rests firmly. Do not remove cords before carving.
   B. Insert fork into left side of roast about 2" from end.
   C. Slice across grain from far side of roast toward fork; make first slice a little thicker than the rest so as to get a level surface.
   D. Reinsert fork lower for each slice, severing each cord as it is reached.
   E. As each slice is cut, slide knife blade under it, steadying with fork, and lift slice to platter.
58. Sharpening knives with steel.
   A. Grasp steel firmly in left hand.
   B. Make certain all fingers and thumb are under the guard.
   C. Position steel in such a way that it is at waist level or slightly above and almost diagonal to body.
   D. Grasp knife firmly in right hand.
   E. Place heel of knife blade against tip of steel.
   F. Cutting edge of knife touches steel at about a 5° angle.
   G. Draw knife blade down across steel toward left hand.
   H. Pass entire blade of knife lightly over steel.
   I. Return knife blade to opposite side of steel and repeat step "G".
   J. This passes opposite side of entire knife blade lightly over steel.
   K. Repeat steps "G-J" until the movement is mastered.

59. Determining doneness of a roast using meat thermometer.
   A. Prepare roast for oven.
   B. Insert thermometer into center of thickest muscle. It should not be placed near or touching any bone.
   C. When thermometer gives desired reading, remove roast from oven.

60. Skinning a tenderloin.

   There is no written checklist for this skill. This skill should be learned by consulting with appropriate worker or supervisor and performed by student only under direct observation of his superior.

61. Boning a roast.

   There is no written checklist for this skill. This skill should be learned by consulting with appropriate worker or supervisor and performed by student only under direct observation of his superior.
62. Rolling a roast

There is no written checklist for this skill. This skill should be learned by consulting with appropriate worker or supervisor and performed by student only under direct observation of his superior.

63. Cutting a pocket in a pork chop.

   A. Chop should be approximately one inch thick.
   B. Place rib side of chop against cutting board.
   C. With sharp knife, cut into loin so that there is an even amount of meat on either side of cut.
   D. Do not cut through top of chop nor beyond rib at back of chop.

64. Turning meat on a broiler.

   A. When blood appears on surface of meat, it is ready to be turned.
   B. Take tongs or two blunt-ended instruments and lift meat from broiler rack.
   C. Turn meat, taking care not to puncture surface.
   D. When making additional turns arrange meat on grids so that grid pattern forms X's on surface of meat.

65. Scoring fat before broiling.

   A. Sharp knife is used.
   B. Hold meat, fat side pointing up from cutting surface.
   C. Beginning at either end of fat, make cuts about one inch apart through fat to edge of muscle. DO NOT cut into meat.

66. Adjusting broiler.

   A. Place rack at lowest level by moving lever arm to left and pressing downward.
   B. Determine appropriate distance from heat source where grid should be.
   C. Raise lever to move grid to appropriate height.
   D. Move lever arm to right so that it is held by notch.
67. Boning chicken breasts.

A. Place chicken breast with open cavity down on cutting board.
   (This reduces amount of sliding that will occur.)
B. With a boning knife against the rib cage, begin cutting the flesh away from the bones.
C. Keep the knife against the bone while cutting, being careful not to cut into the fleshy part of the meat.
D. As the flesh is loosened from the bones, grasp it and gently pull away, as you continue to cut, from the rib cage and keel bone.
E. Hold the chicken breast firmly to prevent sliding.
F. As the flesh is cut away from the bone (almost half), gently turn the chicken breast-cavity side up—and continue cutting away from the bone.
G. Make sure knife does not cut through the thin part of the flesh at the keel bone.
H. Place the boneless chicken breast in the proper pan for processing.
I. Care must be taken so that the skin remains intact.

68. Cutting a whole chicken into parts.

A. Place bird in front of you on cutting board with legs to right.
B. Bend whole leg back away from bird and with a sharp knife, cut leg off at joint above thigh. Repeat for other leg.
C. If so desired, cut through joint between drumstick and thigh once leg has been removed from bird.
D. Bend whole wing away from bird and sever at joint. Repeat for second wing.
E. Cut whole bird in half through breastbone cartilage and backbone.
F. Cut diagonally through (following ribs) to separate back from breast.
69.1 Determining doneness of a turkey with a meat thermometer. (stuffed)
   A. Insert thermometer into center of stuffing.
   B. When temperature of 165°F has been reached, remove turkey from oven.

69.2 Determining doneness of a whole turkey (unstuffed) with a meat thermometer.
   A. Insert thermometer into thickest part of thigh.
   B. Make sure it is not resting on the bone.
   C. When temperature of 165°F has been reached, remove turkey from oven.

70. Testing doneness of fish.
   A. Remove pan from oven or broiler.
   B. Take fork with prongs facing down and gently insert prongs about 1/2 inch into edge of fish.
   C. Apply a small amount of pressure; pull fork toward yourself.
   D. If fish "flakes" apart, it is adequately cooked.

71. Portioning fish (raw or cooked).

There is no written checklist for this skill. This skill should be learned by consulting with appropriate worker or supervisor and performed by student only under direct observation of his superior.

72. Cleaning a whole fish.

There is no written checklist for this skill. This skill should be learned by consulting with appropriate worker or supervisor and performed by student only under direct observation of his superior.
73. **Cleaning shrimp.** (May be cleaned before or after cooking.)

--- A. Make sure shrimp is sufficiently thawed if previously frozen or cooked sufficiently if recently cooked.

--- B. If tail is not needed (as in shrimp salad), it should be cut off about 1/8 inch below where the fan stops.

--- C. A special cleaning instrument may be used to remove the shell and the legs. It is inserted into the vein under the top part of the shell and pushed the full length of the shrimp. When lifted, the shell breaks and can be removed in almost one piece. OR The shell may be peeled back by loosening it under the belly of the shrimp and removing the shell and legs.

--- D. To remove the vein, cut about 1/8-1/4 inch deep along the full length of the back. Place the shrimp under slowly running cold water and use a paring knife to lift and release the vein. (This may be dark in color.)

--- E. Wash thoroughly.
APPENDIX B

VOCATIONAL COMMITMENT INDEX AND MANUAL
INTRODUCTION

The Vocational Commitment Index was developed as a means of assessing the quality of an individual's relationship to his vocation. Hubbard's (1971) effort to explore the theoretical foundations of vocational commitment concluded,

1. Vocational commitment is an important and desired attribute of individuals; it benefits both the committed individual and the vocation in which he is working.

2. The theories of vocational development and occupational choice offer a sound basis on which to build a theory of vocational commitment. Super's (1953) Theory of Vocational Development, in particular, offers some suggestions as to how and when vocational commitment occurs.

3. The variables of implementation of self concept, involvement, need, gratification, satisfaction with vocation, and identification with vocation are supported by both research studies and theories. These variables are of the utmost importance to a theory of vocational commitment.

(Hubbard, 1971, p. 58)

Hubbard formulated two major propositions about the construct of vocational commitment. These are,

1. Commitment to a vocation occurs through a process of implementation of a self concept, involvement, need gratification, satisfaction with the vocation, and identification with the vocation.

2. Depth of commitment is dependent upon the continuous repetition of this process within the vocation and the perception that the vocation is capable of providing continuous opportunities for personal rewards.

(Hubbard, 1971, p. 59)

Based on these propositions, Hubbard asserts that "(a) choice of vocation does not necessarily indicate full commitment to the vocation; (b) vocational commitment implies more than just remaining in the vocation; and (c) vocational commitment may remain static, increase, or decrease in depth"

(Hubbard, 1971, p.59)

The process of vocational commitment described by Hubbard begins with the choice of a vocation which is perceived by the individual to be congruent with his self concept. Upon entering the vocation, the individual invests some personal resources such as time, money and energy in the chosen occupation. If the personal investment yields dissatisfaction, limited rewards, and little support of the individual's self concept, the individual is likely to not become committed to the vocation. If the personal investments yield positive rewards, support of the self concept and need gratifi-
cation, it is likely that the individual will become committed to the voca-
tion. When the commitment process is repeated again and again yielding
positive results, the individual is likely to develop even stronger voca-
tional commitment. Vocational commitment can decrease or cease if the
individual changes in ways which conflict with his original vocational self
concept, or if the vocation itself changes in ways which the individual per-
ceives to be negative.

CHARACTERISTICS OF VOCATIONAL
COMMITMENT

From the literature reviewed, the following characteristics are set forth
as being representative of vocationally committed individuals.

1. He invests a significant amount of his money and time in pre-
paration for his vocation. (Ginzberg and Herma, 1964; Becker
and Carper, 1956; Perry, 1970)

2. He specializes within his vocation, but feels a part of the
total vocation. (Super, 1957, 1963; Blauner, 1964; Ford,
1969)

3. He exerts a large amount of mental and/or physical energy in
his vocational work. (Blauner, 1964; Vroom, 1964; Ginzberg
and Herma, 1964; Ford, 1969; Perry, 1970; Roe, 1966)

4. He is ego-involved in his vocation. (Holt, 1945; Kausler,
1951; Borow, 1964)

5. He increases his identification with and commitment to his
vocation. (Borow, 1964; Katz, 1964; Blauner, 1964; Eastman,
1965; Steffler, 1966; Brown, 1969; Perry, 1970; Ford, 1969;
Becker and Carper, 1956; Miller and Form, 1951)

6. He is motivated to acc and to persist in his vocational work.
(Katz, 1964; Vroom, 1964; Ginzberg and Herma, 1964; White,
1966; Wnuk, 1970)

7. He continuously finds challenges, new learnings, and mean-
ingfulness in his vocational work. (Hanson, 1955; Blauner,
1964; Ford, 1969; Wnuk, 1970)

8. He perceives the vocation as a provider of important intrinsic
satisfactions. (Ginzberg, Ginzberg, Axelrod and Herma, 1956;
Herzberg, 1959; Blauner, 1964; Borow, 1964; Katz, 1964; Brown,
1969; Ford, 1969; Janssen, 1970; Berg, 1970; Wnuk, 1970; Chew,
1971)

9. He is satisfying his motivating needs, particularly his need
for self actualization. (Maslow, 1954; Blauner, 1964; Roe,
1966)
10. He is more productive in his work. (Gellerman, 1963; Vroom, 1964; Blauner, 1964; Ford, 1969)

11. He perceives similarities between his self concept and his concept of the vocational image, purposes and values. (Foote, 1951; Gouldner, 1960; Rosenberg, 1957; Vroom, 1959; Orzack, 1959; Barry and Wolf, 1962; Brown, 1969)

12. He attempts to establish and maintain congruency between his self concept and his concept of the vocation. (James, 1965; Stefflre, 1966; Brown, 1969)

13. He perceives himself to be a part of the vocation. (Becker, and Carper, 1956; Gouldner, 1960; Brown, 1969; Katz, 1964; Blauner, 1964; Epperson, 1965)

14. He perceives himself to be a loyal and committed member of the vocation. (Becker and Carper, 1956; Orzack, 1959; Blauner, 1964; Eastman, 1965; Katz, 1964)

15. He conforms to acceptable modes of behavior, incorporates values and goals and acquires ideologies of the vocation. (Becker and Carper, 1956; Gouldner, 1960; Nosow and Form, 1962; Katz, 1964; Blauner, 1964)

16. He perceives the vocation and his actual work as being valuable, important, and meaningful. (Dubin, 1955; Orzack, 1959; Blauner, 1964; Eastman, 1965; Roe, 1966)

17. He has positive attitudes toward the vocation. (Grusky, 1966)

18. He defines himself in terms of his membership in the vocation, and defends the image of the vocation as he would defend his own image. (Miller and Form, 1951; Katz, 1964; Brown, 1969)

19. He is emotionally involved with his vocational work. (Miller and Form, 1951; Foote, 1951; Hanson, 1955; Becker and Carper, 1956; Orzack, 1959; Blauner, 1964; Roe, 1966; Brown, 1969)

20. He frequently involves himself mentally and physically in his vocational work. (Foote, 1951; Becker and Carper, 1956; Gouldner, 1960; Vollmer, 1960; Blauner, 1964; Katz, 1964; Brown, 1969; Perry, 1970)


22. He remains in his vocation and further commits himself to the vocation. (Foote, 1951; Becker and Carper, 1956; Katz, 1964; Blauner, 1964; Grusky, 1966)
DESCRIPTION OF THE VOCATIONAL COMMITMENT INDEX

The characteristics of vocational commitment were used as a basis for generating items for the Vocational Commitment Index. The pilot form of the index contains 114 statements describing an aspect of one's relationship to his vocation (See Appendix A.) The final version of the device contains 74 items (See Appendix B). The subject determines the extent to which each item describes his relationship to his job, and responds in accordance with the response categories of strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree.

In scoring the device the responses were weighted according to the following scale:

- A response of strongly agree = 4
- A response of agree = 3
- A response of disagree = 2
- A response of strongly disagree = 1

Responses to all items are then summed to yield an individual's total score. Scores can range from 74, which is interpreted as representing a vocationally noncommitted individual; to 296, which is interpreted as representing a highly committed individual.

REFINEMENT OF THE INDEX

Pilot Sample

In refining the instrument, the pilot form of the index was administered to a sample of 123 subjects. The sample consisted of 38 teachers of secondary vocational food service students, 14 first or second year college students in Hotel and Institution Administration at The Pennsylvania State University and 33 graduates of a baccalaureate degree program in Food Service and Housing Administration for The Pennsylvania State University, who are currently employed in occupations related to their undergraduate program. In all cases but one, subjects were solicited through a letter (See Appendix C) requesting cooperation with this project. One hundred and seventy-five letters containing the pilot form of the Index and an answer sheet were mailed out. Fifty of which were sent to individuals who had graduated from the Food Service and Housing Administration baccalaureate degree program, 75 to vocational food service teachers and 50 to vocational food service students.

In the case of the undergraduate students, participation in this project was solicited through their enrollment in basic professional courses during Winter term, 1972 at the university.

This pilot sample is perceived as being representative of individuals in the hospitality industry at all levels of vocational development from initial vocational choice to experienced employees to those persons in managerial roles. Although additional data on these subjects was not secured, it is believed that the four subgroups of subjects do represent different age levels, both sexes and various socio-economic classes.
ANALYSIS OF DATA

The pilot responses were then treated by an item analysis to determine the quality of the items and the total test. Table 1 presents the results of the item analysis performed on the pilot data, including for each item a biserial correlation; a point-biserial correlation; and the t-value associated with it; and evaluations of item difficulty, item discrimination, and of the total item.

The criteria for refining the instrument were internal consistency of the device, the selection of items which correlated positively with total test score and the selection of items which provided the greater evidence of eliciting variation in responses. Those items which received a total item evaluation of A, B, or C were retained to comprise the final version of the instrument.

Using the pilot data, these 74 items were subjected to additional analysis to yield information on test reliability and validity.

VALIDITY OF THE INDEX

In an effort to establish content validity of the instrument, 16 graduate students of Home Economics Education at The Pennsylvania State University participated in reviewing the characteristics of vocational commitment (see Appendix D) and responding to each item on the pilot form of the Index according to the following directions:

Check the scale which best represents the relation between the test item and the characteristics of vocational commitment.

Fill in Column A if the item highly reflects the characteristics of vocational commitment.

Fill in Column B if the item slightly reflects the characteristics of vocational commitment.

Fill in Column C if the item does not reflect the characteristics of vocational commitment.

The results of this effort were tallied and converted to numerical quantities in the following manner. A rating of highly related to the characteristics of vocational commitment received a weight of 3, a rating of slightly relevant to the characteristics specified received a weight of 2, and a rating of not relevant to the characteristics specified received a weight of 1. The weights were then multiplied by the respective frequency of the three response categories and summed to yield a single number representative of the content validity for each item. These data are presented in Table 2. The content validity of the items ranged from 16 to 48 with the less valid items represented by validity ratings of 32 and below, and the more valid items represented by ratings of 33 and above.
Table 1: Results of an Item Analysis performed on the Pilot Form of the Vocational Commitment Index

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Table 2. Content Validity Ratings of Items on the Pilot Form of Vocational Commitment Index

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<th>Item No.</th>
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<th>Slightly Related</th>
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* Items omitted in final version of Index.
It is interesting to note that of the forty items eliminated through the refining process 31 received content validity ratings indicative of little or no relevance to the characteristics of vocational commitment and 9 received ratings indicative of relevance to the concept. These data, presented in Table 3, further indicate that the items retained in the final version of the Index, received ratings indicative of content validity.

Table 3. Numbers of Items Retained and Omitted in Final Version of the Vocational Commitment Index Categorized by Content Validity Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>More Valid Items</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Omitted in Final Index</td>
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<tr>
<td>Retained in Final Index</td>
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</table>

In an effort to determine if vocational commitment as measured by the Vocational Commitment Index differed between the four groups of subjects comprising the pilot population, a one-way analysis of variance was computed on group means. The results are presented in Table 4. This analysis yielded an F ratio of 12.112 (p<.01) indicating a significant difference between group means on vocational commitment.

Table 4. Analysis of Variance between Four Groups of Subjects on Vocational Commitment Index Total Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Ratio</th>
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Correction term = 6459864.59

*p<.01
Table 5 presents the means, standard deviations for each of the four groups. These data indicate that vocational commitment does differ among individuals at various stages of career development and that the Vocational Commitment Index is useful in assessing this variable.

Table 5. Means and Standard Deviation of Four Groups on the Vocational Commitment Index.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
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<tr>
<td>Undergraduate Students</td>
<td>14</td>
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<td>Secondary Vocational Students</td>
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<td>217.90</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employed College Graduates</td>
<td>33</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vocational Teachers</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>242.87</td>
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RELIABILITY OF THE INDEX

Table 6 presents information relevant to the reliability of the pilot and final forms of the Vocational Commitment Index.

Table 6. Descriptive Information on the Pilot and Final Form of the Vocational Commitment Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pilot Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean difficulty of items</td>
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<tr>
<td>Average item-total score correlation</td>
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<td>.638</td>
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<tr>
<td>Standard error of correlation</td>
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<td>.091</td>
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<tr>
<td>Estimated interitem correlation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kuder-Richardson 20 reliability</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Standard deviation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Standard error of measurement</td>
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SUMMARY

The Vocational Commitment Index is a 74 item instrument which indicates promise as a valid and reliable tool for assessing vocational commitment. It has been administered to 123 subjects who range from secondary vocational students to college graduates employed in the hospitality industry.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Hanson, J. W. "The role of commitment in learning." Educational Leadership, 1955. 142-146.


PILOT FORM OF THE
VOCATIONAL COMMITMENT INDEX
DIRECTIONS:

Read each item and determine if it describes YOUR RELATIONSHIP TO YOUR JOB. Then, on the answer sheet fill in the appropriate column according to the scale below.

Fill in:

Column A if you Strongly Agree
Column B if you Agree
Column C if you Disagree
Column D if you Strongly Disagree

DEFINITIONS:

In this measure, the terms job, work occupation and vocation are not interchangeable. The definitions for these terms are presented below.

Job: The position an individual holds as an employee (example: cook, dishwasher, manager)

Work: The tasks performed in fulfilling job expectations. (example: preparing foods, taking inventory of stock)

Occupation or refers to the field of jobs in the food service industry.

Vocation:
VOCATIONAL COMMITMENT

1. I see myself as having most of the necessary skills for my job.

2. Before I started this job, I could picture myself doing this type of work.

3. I accept changes within my job readily.

4. Although I do not always agree with the changes made in my job, I try to make the most of them.

5. I am more satisfied with my job when things go well.

6. I feel like doing more work when I am happy with my job.

7. I experience an unhappy feeling when things go wrong on my job.

8. I am not pleased with myself if I cannot do the things required of me on my job.

9. I try to follow the example of leaders in this occupation.

10. I see myself as one of "the group" of workers in this particular occupation.

11. I do not agree with the things my job represents to me.

12. I think that I would be happier in a whole new line of work.

13. I would quit my job if they made any changes in it.

14. I try to act as people expect a person doing my job to act.

15. Doing this job comes very natural to me.

16. I am happier doing my job, than I am on my own time.

17. I feel that if something changes within my occupation, I personally must also make changes within myself.

18. I refuse to change my ways of doing things just because there are changes made in my occupation.

19. I feel very close to my occupation.

20. I can change myself to meet the varied demands of my job.

21. I have conflicts about performing some of the tasks required by this occupation.

22. I have resolved any conflicts I had about performing in this occupation.

23. When I make a mistake on the job, I tend to feel badly about it for quite a while.

24. I think about some of the mistakes I have made on the job when I am relaxing.
25. I try to live up to my supervisor’s expectations for performance in my job.

26. I know I could do better on my job, but I do not even try.

27. I really do not see myself as advancing in this occupation.

28. I see myself as progressing from this job to jobs which are better within this occupation.

29. I have spent some of my own money on equipment and materials to help me in my job.

30. I am taking courses to help me perform in my job.

31. I am taking courses to help me advance in this occupation.

32. I see no purpose in taking courses to work in this occupation.

33. My job requires physical energy and strength.

34. My job requires mental ability.

35. My job is challenging and interesting to me.

36. My job is very boring to me.

37. I know that my job is important to the success of the entire operation.

38. I continue to learn interesting things about my work.

39. My job does not make any difference to the success or failure of the entire operation.

40. I feel good about my work on the job.

41. I will not spend any of my own money on materials needed for my job.

42. I spend some of my free time trying to improve myself on the job by reading about it in related magazines.

43. I take part in workshops or programs to help me do a better job.

44. Once I leave work, I do not want to spend any of my time even thinking about it.

45. I do just enough work to get by on my job.

46. I exert large amounts of energy when I am working on my job.

47. I become upset if I have to work through my breaks or lunch hour in order to finish a job.

48. My job is important to me.

49. I find there is always something new to learn about my job.
50. My work is so routine, I can do it without thinking.

51. When I leave work at the end of the day, I feel that I have done something worthwhile.

52. I am willing to work overtime.

53. I am dissatisfied with the job I now have.

54. I am pleased when I do more work than that which was expected of me.

55. I do more work than a lot of the people who do this job.

56. I participate in activities related to my work such as a union.

57. I am proud to tell people what kind of a job I have.

58. I defend my job when someone else criticizes it.

59. I will keep this job until retirement.

60. I would like to get a different job, but one in the same type of occupation.

61. I am only working at this job until something better comes along.

62. I do not want any part of company organizations like retirement clubs, bowling teams, etc.

63. I rarely miss work.

64. I believe that I should use every "sick day" given to me over a period of time.

65. I feel badly if I have to miss work when I am ill.

66. This is the first paid job I have had.

67. I have no desire to leave this job for any reason.

68. I work well with the other employees on the job.

69. I do my part of the job and expect everyone else to do their part.

70. I have respect for the other people on this job.

71. I tend to do my job better than others have done it.

72. I am proud of what I can accomplish in my job.

73. I hate to tell people about my work.

74. I am able to express my creative talents in this occupation.

75. On my job, work is fun and interesting.

76. In my occupation, the work is interesting and enjoyable.
77. My co-workers take an interest in my work.
78. I am interested in what my co-workers do on the job.
79. I study what my co-workers do so that I can progress in this occupation.
80. I think I am more interested in my work than my co-workers are.
81. I belong to organizations related to my occupational field.
82. I change jobs within this occupation.
83. I cooperate with my co-workers.
84. My job interests me in a variety of ways.
85. I like my occupational field better than any others that I could enter.
86. I try to perfect my job skills.
87. I argue with people who attack my occupation.
88. I never know from one week to the next whether or not I will have a job with the company.
89. I do not have to worry about being moved to different jobs within the company.
90. I work hard at this job in order to gain advancements.
91. This job really makes me feel like I am someone important or special.
92. I never criticize my job to other people.
93. Although it has its faults, the good points about my job are most important to me.
94. My job is a specialized one that very few people could do without some type of training.
95. I am confident that I can do anything in my job that my supervisor would ask of me.
96. I become very nervous and upset if I have to do something new or different on my job.
97. I go along with the rules and regulations set up by the company.
98. I find myself believing in and working for the same things that most people in this occupation want.
99. I never tell people that I am a cook, etc.
100. I do not want people to associate me with my job.
101. When someone criticizes my occupation, I personally feel they are criticizing me.
102. I become so involved with my work, both mentally and physically, that I do not even realize what is going on around me.
103. I find that the longer I work at this job, the more it becomes a part of me.

104. If I work at this job one hundred years, I will not feel any better about it then than I do now.

105. I refer to the place I work as "my restaurant", etc.

106. I am embarrassed when I must tell people where I work.

107. If I were just starting to work for the first time, I would do this same occupation.

108. I would like to keep this job, even if it meant a decrease in pay.

109. Many of the people I work with are also personal friends.

110. My job is so simple, I do not have to use my skills to perform the task.

111. I am dissatisfied because my job gives me very little responsibility.

112. I am enthusiastic about my job.

113. My work results in benefits to many people.

114. I feel that my job is quite permanent.
FINAL FORM OF THE
VOCATIONAL COMMITMENT INDEX
DIRECTIONS:
Read each item and determine if it describes YOUR RELATIONSHIP TO YOUR JOB. Then, on the answer sheet fill in the appropriate column according to the scale below.

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Column A if you Strongly Agree
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Column C if you Disagree
Column D if you Strongly Disagree

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8. I am not pleased with myself if I cannot do the things required of me on my job.
9. I try to follow the example of leaders in this occupation.
10. I see myself as one of "the group" of workers in this particular occupation.
11. I try to act as people expect a person doing my job to act.
12. Doing this job comes very natural to me.
13. I feel that if something changes within my occupation, I personally must also make changes within myself.
14. I feel very close to my occupation.
15. I can change myself to meet the varied demands of my job.
16. I think about some of the mistakes I have made on the job when I am relaxing.
17. I try to live up to my supervisor's expectations for performance in my job.
18. I see myself as progressing from this job to jobs which are better within this occupation.
19. I have spent some of my own money on equipment and materials to help me in my job.
20. I am taking courses to help me perform in my job.
21. I am taking courses to help me advance in this occupation.
22. My job requires physical energy and strength.
23. My job requires mental ability.
24. My job is challenging and interesting to me.
25. I know that my job is important to the success of the entire operation.
26. I continue to learn interesting things about my work.
27. I feel good about my work on the job.
28. I spend some of my free time trying to improve myself on the job by reading about it in related magazines.
29. I take part in workshops or programs to help me do a better job.
30. I exert large amounts of energy when I am working on my job.
31. My job is important to me.
32. I find there is always something new to learn about my job.
33. When I leave work at the end of the day, I feel that I have done something worthwhile.
34. I am willing to work overtime.
35. I am pleased when I do more work than that which was expected of me.
36. I participate in activities related to my work such as a union.
37. I am proud to tell people what kind of a job I have.
38. I defend my job when someone else criticizes it.
39. I will keep this job until retirement.
40. I rarely miss work.
41. I feel badly if I have to miss work when I am ill.
42. I have a desire to leave this job for any reason.
43. I work well with the other employees on the job.
44. I do my part of the job and expect everyone else to do their part.
45. I have respect for the other people on this job.
46. I am proud of what I can accomplish in my job.
47. I am able to express my creative talents in this occupation.
48. On my job, work is fun and interesting.
49. In my occupation, the work is interesting and enjoyable.
50. My co-workers take an interest in my work.
51. I am interested in what my co-workers do on the job.
52. I study what my co-workers do so that I can progress in this occupation.
53. I belong to organizations related to my occupational field.
54. I cooperate with my co-workers.
55. My job interests me in a variety of ways.
56. I like my occupational field better than any others that I could enter.
57. I try to perfect my job skills.
58. I do not have to worry about being moved to different jobs within the company.
59. I work hard at this job in order to gain advancements.
60. This job really makes me feel like I am someone important or special.
61. I never criticize my job to other people.
62. Although it has its faults, the good points about my job are most important to me.
63. My job is a specialized one that very few people could do without some type of training.
64. I am confident that I can do anything in my job that my supervisor would ask of me.
65. I go along with the rules and regulations set up by the company.
66. I find myself believing in and working for the same things that most people in this occupation want.
67. When someone criticizes my occupation, I personally feel they are criticizing me.
68. I find that the longer I work at this job, the more it becomes a part of me.
69. I refer to the place I work as "my restaurant", etc.
70. If I were just starting to work for the first time, I would choose this same occupation.
71. Many of the people I work with are also personal friends.
72. I am enthusiastic about my job.
73. My work results in benefits to many people.
74. I feel that my job is quite permanent.
Letter to Subjects
The departments of Food Service and Housing Administration and Home Economics Education are currently involved in a cooperative project to develop and test out a new associate degree program for food service education based upon the use of individualized learning packets. As part of this project, it is necessary to develop and pretest a device which assesses aspects of one's relationship to his chosen field of work. We are requesting that you assist in the refining of this device. We are asking that you complete the enclosed test as directed and return the completed test in the postage-paid envelop provided. Your cooperation with this project will be greatly appreciated. Your contribution is important to the success of the project. Please do not write your name or any personal information on the answer sheet.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

Susan F. Weis
Assistant Professor
SFW/cjm

Enclosure
CHARACTERISTICS OF VOCATIONALLY COMMITTED INDIVIDUALS
USED IN ASSESSING INDEX VALIDITY
The following factors have been found through research to be highly significant to vocational commitment. Would you please read each factor carefully and consider them in rating the items used to assess vocational commitment.

I. Implementation of Self-Concept

A committed person:
1. Sees himself and his job as being much alike.
2. Is able to change his views to meet inconsistencies between his self-concept and concept of occupation.
3. Is more ego-involved in his vocation.
4. Feels pressured to maintain congruity between his concept of self and his concept of the vocation.

II. Vocational Involvement

A committed person:
1. Invests time and money in preparation for his vocation.
2. Feels a part of the whole vocation.
3. Exerts large amounts of energy mental and/or physical in his work.
4. Continuously finds challenges, new learnings and meaningfulness in his vocational work.
5. Views his vocation as a source of satisfaction.
6. Is more productive in his work.
7. Becomes involved in his vocation as a means of personal self-expression.
8. Is more emotionally involved with his vocational work (interested, supportive of and proud).
9. Feels more a part of the vocation.
10. Is more interested in his vocational work.
11. Is more likely to remain in his vocation and become further committed.
12. Is personally involved in his vocation.

III. Vocational Satisfaction

A committed person:
1. Participates in job organizations which bring him satisfaction.
2. Is rarely absent from work.
3. Does not change jobs often.
4. Is interested in the work.
5. Is co-operative, wants to work together.
6. Respects other employees.
7. Has a feeling of security about his business.
8. Is more motivated to act and persist in his vocational work.
9. Is more productive in his work.
10. Perceives the vocation as a provider of intrinsic satisfaction.
11. Is satisfying more of his motivating needs. (self-actualization)
12. Is more satisfied with the vocation as a whole.
13. Has more positive attitudes toward the vocation.
14. Specializes more within his vocation.
IV. Need Gratification

A committed person:
1. Has a certain degree of self-confidence.
2. Views his job as being meaningful and important.
3. Takes pride in his work and seeks perfection.

V. Identification with the vocation

A committed person:
1. Has a close emotional attachment to his vocation.
2. Loyal to his vocation.
3. Conforms to acceptable modes of behavior.
4. Accepts the values and goals of his vocation.
5. Feels his actual work is important and valuable.
6. Tends to have positive attitudes toward his vocation.
7. Defines himself in terms of his membership in the vocation. (I am a waitress)
8. Defends the image of his vocation as he would defend his own image.
9. Is deeply involved mentally and/or physically in his work.
10. Tends to become even more committed to his chosen vocation.
11. Is emotionally identified with his occupation. (My company, my store)
ACHIEVEMENT TEST
MANUAL

POSTSECONDARY HOSPITALITY EDUCATION
General Information

The Achievement Test in Postsecondary Hospitality Education was developed to assess the degree of mastery of information, skills, and techniques common to the food service industry. This test will be employed in the testing of hypothesis relevant to the performance of students in the Demonstration Program as compared with students in similar programs.

The test is composed of 75 multiple choice items which were developed from existing evaluation materials in the areas common to hospitality education. Table 1 presents the areas of hospitality education represented by test items, the number of items included for each area and the proportion of total test items devoted to each area.

The Achievement Test requires no more than 75 minutes to administer. An answer key is provided in this manual.

As this test was developed from evaluation materials used in postsecondary hospitality education, content validity of the test is assumed. The test will be administered to subjects during the Fall of 1972 and information regarding test reliability will be established at that time. If refinements or revisions are required due to low reliability, they will be accomplished to provide a sound and reliable instrument for further research on this project.
Table 1. Areas of Hospitality Education represented in Achievement test and Number and Proportion of Items for each area.

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APPENDIX C

ACHIEVEMENT TEST

POSTSECONDARY HOSPITALITY EDUCATION
DIRECTIONS

Read each question carefully and completely before answering it.

Respond to each question with the answer you believe to be most accurate by placing a check in the appropriate space provided on the answer sheet.

Answer each question as quickly as possible and leave any difficult questions to answer after you have gone through the entire test once.

You will have 75 minutes to complete the 75 items on this test.
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1. The number on a scoop or a dipper indicates the number of scoopfuls required to make
   A. 1 gallon.
   B. 1/2 gallon.
   C. 1 quart.
   D. 1 pint.

2. The common abbreviation for tablespoon is
   A. tsp.
   B. tablesp.
   C. tblsp.
   D. tbsp.

3. The abbreviation "gm." generally means
   A. grain.
   B. gram.
   C. grind.
   D. grand.

4. A whisk or French whip is used most effectively to
   A. combine shortening and flour.
   B. fold eggwhites into a batter.
   C. beat heavy batters.
   D. beat or mix liquids.

5. A cup is not equivalent to
   A. 16 tablespoons.
   B. 1/2 pint.
   C. 1/4 quart.
   D. 1/32 gallon.

6. To "scald" means to
   A. cook in liquid at a temperature below the boiling point.
   B. cook by steaming before boiling.
   C. cook in liquid at a temperature above the boiling point.
   D. boil briefly.

7. Which of the following equals one pound?
   A. 16 tablespoons.
   B. 18 ounces.
   C. 456 grams.
   D. 1 1/2 liquid cups.
8. To aid the removal of skin from nuts and fruits, they are cooked briefly in boiling water or steam in a process called

A. boiling.  
B. scalding.  
C. blanching.  
D. braising.  

9. Which of the following are all moist heat methods of cooking?

A. Steaming, roasting, and poaching  
B. Braising, steaming, and poaching  
C. Poaching, broiling, and braising  
D. Roasting, broiling, and grilling

10. Which of the following are all dry heat methods?

A. Roasting and broiling  
B. Steaming and roasting  
C. Grilling and poaching  
D. Braising and broiling

11. To double a recipe which calls for 3 cups of liquid would require

A. 1 1/2 quarts of liquid.  
B. 3 pints of liquid.  
C. 3/8 of a gallon of liquid.  
D. any of the above.

12. The process of combining ingredients using a cutting and folding motion is called

A. beating.  
B. blending.  
C. chopping.  
D. folding.

13. Poaching is a process of

A. cooking food in a simmering liquid.  
B. cutting food into small chunks.  
C. cooking food on top of the range in a small amount of fat.  
D. combining ingredients together with a rapid over and under motion.

14. In order to determine the menu price of a meal in an operation employing a 33 1/3 per cent food cost, the raw food cost must be

A. divided by 3.  
B. multiplied by 3.  
C. divided by 33.33.  
D. multiplied by 1/3 of its original cost.

15. A "stock" is a

A. rich flavored thickened liquid.  
B. seafood sauce.  
C. gravy made from roasted or braised meats.  
D. liquid base used in cooking.
16. **Rechamal sauce is also known as a**
   A. white sauce.
   B. blonde sauce.
   C. tomatoe sauce.
   D. brown sauce.

17. **The rising or lightening of a batter or dough by the use of chemical or organic ingredients is known as**
   A. docking.
   B. proofing.
   C. leavening.
   D. kneading.

18. **Conformation of meat refers to the**
   A. ratio of bone to meat.
   B. amount and color of fat on the carcass.
   C. color and texture of the meat.
   D. palatability of the cooked meat.

19. **An example of a tender cut of beef is**
   A. chuck.
   B. round steak.
   C. plank steak.
   D. rib roast.

20. **The maximum holding time recommended for frozen beef cuts is**
   A. 12 months.
   B. 6 months.
   C. 9 months.
   D. 18 months.

21. **The maximum holding time recommended for frozen pork is**
   A. 12 months.
   B. 6 months.
   C. 9 months.
   D. 18 months.

22. **Which of the following poultry has all brown meat?**
   A. Duck
   B. Turkey
   C. Cornish hen
   D. Fryer

23. **If the check for two dinners is $24 and the establishment is operating on a 20% food cost, the raw food cost of these meals**
   A. cannot be estimated without more information.
   B. is approximately $6.
   C. is approximately $4.80.
   D. is approximately $8.

24. **A standardized recipe for a pie yields five 10" pies and each pie is to be cut into eighths. To yield the appropriate number of standard**
portions to serve 200 persons, this recipe will have to be increased

A. forty times.
B. twenty-five times.
C. five times.
D. ten times.

25. Which of the following is characteristic of a grade A egg?

A. The yolk is flat and enlarged.
B. The egg spreads over a wide area.
C. The egg spreads slightly.
D. The egg is very large.

26. To adjust a standardized recipe for 50 requiring 15 1/2 pounds of boneless beef chuck to serve 125, how many pounds of chuck would be needed?

A. 45 1/2.
B. 40 1/4.
C. 38 3/4.
D. 36 1/2.

27. A smooth mixture of flour and shortening is a

A. gravy.
B. roux.
C. stock.
D. white sauce.

28. The greenish layer of color around the yolk of a hard cooked egg is due to

A. adding salt to the cooking water.
B. the grade of the egg.
C. failure to cool the egg after cooking.
D. the age of the egg.

29. A number 8 scoop or dipper contains

A. 1/2 cup.
B. 1/3 cup.
C. 3 1/5 tablespoons.
D. 1 3/5 tablespoons.

30. The minimum temperatures for sanitary dishwashing operations are

A. 180°F. for washing and rinsing.
B. 150°F. for washing, 200°F. for rinsing.
C. 140°F. for washing, 180°F. for rinsing.
D. 100°F. for washing, 130°F. for rinsing.

31. A tool used for scraping and cleaning a griddle is a

A. steel.
B. spatula.
C. dish scraper.
D. grill stone.
32. When using a left-handed table service, which of the following items is served from the left of the customer?

A. Water  
B. Wine  
C. Salad  
D. Coffee

33. An area stocked with silverware and supplies for customer service in a restaurant is a

A. supply counter.  
B. customer's service station.  
C. waitress' station.  
D. waitress' side stand.

34. The individual in a food service operation who is responsible for the major food preparation and purchasing is the

A. Garde Manager.  
B. Chef Steward.  
C. Sous Chef.  
D. Swing Cook.

35. Which of the following foods can best create a feeling of satiety or fulfilled appetite?

A. eggs  
B. milk  
C. butter  
D. meat

36. More vitamins are generally found in

A. the center or core of a vegetable.  
B. lightly colored vegetables.  
C. deeply colored vegetables.  
D. any vegetable despite its coloring.

37. To preserve nutrients during the preparation of vegetables which of the following procedures is appropriate?

A. Soaking vegetables in water before cooking.  
B. Cooking vegetables in large amounts of water.  
C. Uncovering the pan while vegetables are cooking.  
D. Keeping chopped or shredded vegetables covered before cooking.

38. The addition of soda to vegetables during cooking.

A. increases the nutritional value of the vegetables.  
B. preserves good color but reduces the nutritional value.  
C. creates good texture but reduces the nutritional value.  
D. preserves the good color and texture.

39. The food item possessing the greatest number of calories among the following is

A. 1 boiled egg.  
B. 1 slice of white bread.  
C. 1 tablespoon of granulated sugar.  
D. 1 tablespoon of butter.
40. The method to use to preserve the greatest amount of nutrients when preparing potatoes is
   A. french frying.
   B. baking in the skins.
   C. boiling in the skins.
   D. boiling without the skins.

41. Proteins which contribute the greatest biological value to the human diet are obtained from
   A. spinach.
   B. whole grain cereals.
   C. dried beans and lentils.
   D. meats.

42. In purchasing fresh whole chicken for frying, you should generally allow
   A. 1/3 to 1/2 pound per serving.
   B. 1/2 to 3/4 pound per serving.
   C. 3/4 to 1 pound per serving.
   D. 1 pound per serving.

43. Eggs graded as A or AA are most appropriately used for
   A. purposes other than commercial food service.
   B. scrambling or for use in an omelet.
   C. mixing in foods such as cakes or mayonnaise.
   D. serving whole as fried or poached eggs.

44. A number 10 can be substituted for
   A. 4 number 2 1/2 cans.
   B. 6 number 2 cans.
   C. 3 number 5 cans.
   D. 8 number 303 cans.

45. A number 303 can contains
   A. 1 3/4 cups.
   B. 1 1/2 cups.
   C. 1 1/4 cups.
   D. 1 cup.

46. The U. S. Department of Agriculture has established which of the following as grades of pork?
   A. Prime, choice, good, or commercial.
   B. Grade A, B, C, or D.
   C. U. S. #1, U. S. #2, or U. S. #3.
   D. choice, good, or commercial.

47. The highest gluten content is found in
   A. all purpose flour.
   B. pastry flour.
   C. cake flour.
   D. bread flour.
48. Citrus fruits are marketed under numbers which indicate the
   A. average weight of fruit in the standard crate.
   B. number of units of fruit in the standard crate.
   C. average diameter of fruit in the standard crate.
   D. weight of the standard crate.

49. The butterfat content of whipping cream is
   A. less than 3 1/2 per cent.
   B. 3 1/2 per cent.
   C. 18 per cent.
   D. 30 to 36 per cent.

50. On the average, a wholesale cut of beef rib weighs
   A. 30 to 40 pounds.
   B. 20 to 30 pounds.
   C. 10 to 20 pounds.
   D. less than 10 pounds.

51. "Net weight" refers to the
   A. combined weight of an item and its container.
   B. weight of the item with the liquid removed.
   C. weight of the item without its container.
   D. estimated weight of the item and its container.

52. The fruit pack which has the least water added to it during processing is the
   A. heavy pack.
   B. solid pack.
   C. water pack.
   D. sirup pack.

53. The dangerous temperatures which favor bacterial growth in food items are
   A. 0 to 100°F.
   B. 45°F to 140°F.
   C. 35°F to 95°F.
   D. 25°F to 120°F.

54. Which of the following spoil most rapidly before and after cooking?
   A. Pork
   B. Beef
   C. Poultry
   D. Fish and seafoods

55. Salmonella is best defined as a
   A. covered pan used for steaming fish.
   B. menu item based on salmon eggs.
   C. menu item featuring fish in a cream sauce.
   D. bacteria which flourishes in some prepared foods.

56. The most appropriate storage for fresh leafy vegetables is a
A. cool dry storage of 50° to 60°F.
B. dry storage of 70°F.
C. refrigerated storage.
D. freezer storage.

57. Fresh grapefruit can be properly stored without losing quality up to
   A. 8 weeks.
   B. 6 weeks.
   C. 3 weeks.
   D. 1 week.

58. Fresh celery deteriorates in quality when it is stored at temperatures below
   A. 30°F.
   B. 40°F.
   C. 50°F.
   D. 60°F.

59. The most appropriate container to use when refrigerating gravy is a
   A. 5 to 10 gallon cooking pot.
   B. 20 quart enamel pan.
   C. 4" deep stainless steel pan.
   D. 10 quart plastic dish pan.

60. A sign of unsafe contents in a can of food is when the can
   A. has the wrapper removed.
   B. has flat or slightly concave ends.
   C. has been dented.
   D. has bulging ends.

61. The convection oven differs from a regular oven in that it
   A. shortens cooking time and uses lower temperatures.
   B. shortens cooking time and uses higher temperatures.
   C. lengthens cooking time and uses lower temperatures.
   D. lengthens cooking time and uses higher temperatures.

62. Which of the following statements is accurate about preparing starch products?
   A. The presence of lemon juice in a starch mixture increases the thickening power of the gel.
   B. Boiling water is added directly to dry starch to produce a gel of good consistency.
   C. An excess amount of sugar in a starch mixture will increase the thickening power of the gel.
   D. After the liquid is added to the starch, it should be stirred constantly to get an even distribution of the granules.

63. Which of the following statements is inaccurate about pasta products?
   A. Pasta products are cooked in a large volume of salted, boiling water.
   B. Spaghetti, noodles, rice, and macaroni are all pasta products.
   C. If pasta products are overcooked they become soft and mushy.
   D. Macaroni usually doubles its dry volume when cooked.
64. When preparing custards, which of the following procedures is accurate?

A. It is not necessary to refrigerate cooked custards.
B. Custards are cooked at boiling temperatures to eliminate the raw egg taste.
C. The doneness of a baked custard is determined when the custard pulls away from the sides of the dish.
D. Baked custards are placed in a water bath before cooking.

65. Which of the following statements concerning egg cookery is accurate?

A. The addition of acid to water when poaching eggs causes the egg white to become tough.
B. Poached eggs are broken directly into boiling water.
C. Shirred eggs are prepared the same way as poached eggs.
D. A plain French omelet and scrambled eggs are made of the same ingredients.

66. A proofing cabinet is used to

A. heat baked goods.
B. bake cakes, pies, rolls and other bakery items.
C. allow yeast dough products to rise.
D. test baked goods.

67. A bain-marie is a

A. small portable oven.
B. paddle used for retrieving bread from an oven.
C. hearth for baking breads.
D. steam kettle or double boiler.

68. Which of the following statements about microwave ovens is most accurate?

A. Increase the hazards of burns in handling foods.
B. Use all regular ovenware utensils.
C. Requires longer cooking time.
D. Cook foods from the inside out.

69. Water boils at

A. 100°F.
B. 150°F.
C. 180°F.
D. 212°F.

70. Stiffly beaten egg whites will have a better texture and volume if

A. the bowl and beater are free of grease.
B. eggs which are not fresh are used.
C. a small amount of egg yolk is added.
D. chilled eggs are used.

71. Fat in deep fat frying is usually maintained at a temperature of

A. over 400°F.
B. 300°F to 350°F.
C. 250°F to 300°F.
D. 200°F to 250°F.
72. The leavening agent in a sponge cake is
   A. yeast.
   B. baking soda.
   C. baking powder.
   D. beaten egg whites.

73. In the preparation of pastry dough, the fat should be
   A. cut into the dry ingredients.
   B. melted before beaten into the dry ingredients.
   C. added to the flour after mixing in the liquid.
   D. creamed with the flour.

74. A hard crust on yeast breads and rolls can be created by
   A. using a flour with a high gluten content.
   B. cooling the bread rapidly.
   C. baking in a hot oven.
   D. injecting steam into the oven while baking.

75. In making a fruit gelatin, it is advisable to add the fruit
   A. after the gelatin has completely gelled.
   B. after the gelatin has begun to gel slightly.
   C. after dissolving the gelatin in hot water.
   D. before dissolving the gelatin in hot water.
Dear Dr. Weis:

Thank you for your letter concerning the development of a validated instructional system for post secondary hospitality education using learning packets based on HELP design. At the AHEA board meeting last week the HELP program was discussed and is very interesting.

I think presentation, as suggested, at the 1973 AHEA convention would be quite beneficial. If you would be interested I could envision your group featured as one entire section meeting. This could allow the group to have ample time for questions as I am sure they would be very interested in this project.

As program chairman for next year's section meetings, I would be happy to commit one session to the presentation. If you have any questions or I can be of assistance providing additional information, please let me know.

Sincerely,

Mary E. Quam
Associate Professor
Department of Human Nutrition and Foods