

HOTEL EMPLOYEES' CONCERNS AND NEEDS:
HOW THEY ARE PERCEIVED BY MANAGEMENT
AND THE HOTEL AND RESTAURANT UNION

By

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to all those individuals who believed in and supported me in my endeavor to complete this dissertation and my pursuit to attain my Ph. D.

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Any doctoral candidate who has undertaken the task of writing a dissertation knows that if they were fortunate, they have had the privilege to work with many individuals during the process of researching information, collecting and analyzing data, and editing the entire writing. I have had the privilege of discussing various issues and points of view with many caring and intellectual people from academia and the hospitality industry. Their guidance and support along the way has both inspired and humbled me with appreciation and gratitude for their assistance and insight.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

America, since its inception, has always been viewed as a land of opportunity. “Between 1820 and 1924, 35,000,000 immigrants entered the United States” in search of the *American Dream* and a better life for themselves and their families (Fenton, 1975, p.1). According to the Random House Dictionary, the American Dream is “1) the ideals of freedom, equality, and opportunity traditionally held to be available to every American; 2) a life of personal success and material comfort as sought by individuals in the U.S.,” (Random House, 1992, p. 44). Throughout the 1800’s and 1900’s as more and more immigrants crossed the oceans and borders in search of work and a new life, many were faced with the harsh reality of earning a few nickels and dimes per hour or even per day in order to survive. By the turn of the 20th century, while industrialists such as Carnegie, Gould, Morgan and Rockefeller were earning tens of millions of dollars a year, the average worker was earning barely \$10.00 per week, (Budd, 2005).

Low wages was not the only problem faced by many in the workplace environment. Other needs and concerns had to be addressed. According to Budd (2005),

work schedules requiring all workers, i.e. children and adults alike, to work 10 to 14 or more hours per day were not uncommon. The work was also done in environments that were not healthy or safe. Boys known as the “breaker boys” sat in front of conveyers picking rocks out of coal supplies that moved by while breathing in thick coal dust.

Young girls worked in textile mills spinning cotton into yarn working six days a week for long hours, while inhaling dust and textile particles. At many locations guards who were more like “a kind of slave driver sometimes stands over” workers nudging or hitting them into compliance, (Budd, 2005, p. 111).

It wasn't just children that were being abused but adults as well, mainly because the demand for work far outweighed the work available. Due to economic depressions which seemed to occur every twenty-five years or so throughout the 1800's, workers suffered at the hands of their employers. The depression of 1873 to 1878 resulted in wage reductions of 30 to 60 percent in most industries, and reduced the full-time workforce to 20 percent, meaning that 80 percent were only part-time workers in search of full-time work, (Budd, 2005). As such, workers were viewed no differently than disposable pieces of equipment.

Immigrants from France and Germany, who were professional cooks and waiters, settled in Chicago around the mid 1800's. Throughout the 1850's and 1860's small hospitality labor clubs were formed by the French and Germans who were part of an emigrated European culinary trade. These men were all familiar with unionism in Europe, and the German men were the first group to form a local hospitality union. In 1866, these men formed the “Bartenders and Waiters Union of Chicago” also later to be known as “Local 57” (Josephson, 1956, p. 3). Like many new organizations this union

struggled for its existence, not only because of the hard times and economic depression of the 1870's, but also because the hospitality industry was predominantly composed of small restaurant owners with only two or three employees. The hospitality industry was slow in growing compared to several of the industrial type of organizations, and though it had nearly "a labor force of approximately a quarter of a million persons" by the 1890's, it still suffered from the ups and downs of the economy and struggles within larger labor organizations, (Josephson, 1956, p. 4).

Whenever there is a sharp down turn in the overall marketplace or an economic depression, the hospitality industry is usually one of the first to feel the economic pinch. When the economy is struggling, the business traveler may be forced to curtail some travel plans due to budget cuts, and the vacationer/tourist may be relegated to extended weekend trips or family get-togethers instead of a long and luxurious vacation. These fluctuations also have an affect on the hospitality worker. According to Adler and Adler (2004), the hotel industry is composed of four distinct types of workers who are divided into two groups. The first group is referred to as "trapped" members made up of new immigrants and locals who are completely subject to the economic difficulties of the local labor market. The second group is composed of seekers and managers who are considered "transient" in their career endeavors. Both groups view and "react differently to their employment situations, with some more likely to stand up for their labor rights than others," as well as their opinion on unionization, (Adler, 2004, p. 7).

According to Woods, many articles and other works have been written about the development of hotels and especially the growth of a few of the major hotel chains. Many of these publications discuss important dates and the life of the primary

developer/founder of the hotel, but little else. Woods goes on to say that “few works examine the factors that were responsible for the development of the hospitality industry, and fewer still have investigated the role of the people in the industry” (Woods, 1991, p. 90). People, whether they are the customers or the servers are an integral part of the hospitality industry. This study will examine the role of hotel and restaurant employees, management and the UNITE-HERE union.

Problem Statement

There is a lack of knowledge and understanding of the different concerns and needs between two factions, one represented by the officers and general membership of unions, and the other composed of the American corporate structure and management. This particular research study will review the various problems and resolutions encountered by hospitality employees, the hospitality unions, and management over the past two centuries. The study will also examine the views and struggles of hotel management with regard to dealing with unions, unionized employees and the collective bargaining process.

Historically and theoretically, employees have struggled for equity, i.e., fair wages, better hours, comprehensive health and medical benefits for themselves and their family members, advancement and job retention based on seniority, and safer working conditions. On the opposite side, management desires more efficiency and an improved work ethic from their employees in order to better their competitor or at the very least

maintain a sound economic foothold in a competitive marketplace. The employees also want a voice in the decision making process, which they believe will enhance the work environment and allow for better working conditions. However, management wants the stronger voice, if not the only voice in the decision making process for the purpose of maintaining flexibility in the workplace and for the planning of strategic long- and short-term goals and objective. As a part of a stronger voice, management wants to have the ability to hire and fire employees as needed, depending on market trends, seasonal needs where necessary, work performance, and economic stability.

Employees do not want to see management fail, because if it did then that would possibly be the end of all jobs. Employers do not want employees to feel like they are not cared for and their needs are not of concern, for that would view them as a disposable piece of equipment, which can result in poor morale and work ethic. Therefore, each faction continues to struggle for what they believe is the best way to maintain an effective and efficient workplace environment that will satisfy their concerns and meet their needs, while sustaining jobs and growth in the competitive marketplace.

Employees in some locations believe that the only way to get management to meet their needs and concerns is through unionization and collective bargaining. Management believes that the plethora of federal and state laws that regulates the treatment of employees and dictates how management must act with regard to the daily operation of the employment structure, are more than adequate in meeting the needs and concerns of employees. Though both sides present a good case for negotiations in the workforce environment, traditional U. S. labor relations policies promote the use of employment contracts in the belief that “both industrial justice [equity and voice] and

efficiency are best achieved through written workplace rules” (Budd, 2005, p. 317). It is important to understand that the problems between employees and management are in maintaining a balance between equity and voice on the part of employees, and that of voice and efficiency on the part of employers. Employees want equitable treatment with regard to economic needs and they also want to have a voice whereby they can relate their concerns for proper, safe and effective ways to operate within their job duties and responsibilities. Managements concerns are that, in a rapidly growing industry where competition for the tourist and business traveler can be extreme, its strategic short- and long-term planning for growth and or prosperity require such flexibility that allowing employees to have a voice would infringe on the overall success of the operation by making the planning less adaptable, and overall performance less efficient.

In reality, employees need their job to maintain a happy and sustainable living environment for themselves and their families, and management needs employees in order to produce the goods and services that are required for the satisfaction of hotel guests. It is commonly perceived that it is in the best interest of both parties or factions to implement a contract, either through a union and a collective bargaining agreement, or through a company contract and employee handbook with individual employees. Such a contract would establish a set of rules by which all parties must abide by, and hopefully such an agreement would work to continually develop a successful operation and achieve the necessary balance between equity, voice and efficiency.

Purpose and Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the concerns and needs of hotel employees, what aspects of the employment factor are important to them, what were the employees' views of management, and to determine why these employees joined a union.

Statement of Purpose and Objectives

- 1) To examine what is considered to be important and a priority to hotel workers in order to maintain a happy and productive work environment;
- 2) To develop a model of the concerns and needs of hotel employees, which both management and the union can use as a guide in future collective bargaining agreement negotiations;
- 3) To determine hotel managements' perception of employee commitment and a balance between equity, voice, and efficiency in the workplace;
- 4) To assess the role that the union plays in securing better wages and benefits for their members;
- 5) To ascertain the important concerns and needs of hotel employees';
- 6) To establish the degree to which employees' believe that unionization is important for obtaining managements' attention regarding their needs and concerns;

- 7) To what degree hotel employees' believe management understands the concerns and needs of the workforce; and
- 8) To examine what measures management has taken to address the concerns and needs of the workforce.

Research Questions

1. What are the major concerns and needs of hotel employees?
2. How satisfied are hotel workers with their current job?
3. How satisfied are hotel employees with management?
4. Does empowering employees to make some minor work related management decisions give them a voice in making decisions and thus fulfill a need?
5. Does management follow an open door policy:
 - To address employee concerns and needs?
 - Because it is considered critical for employee happiness?
 - To give employees a voice within the workplace?
6. Does management consider:
 - The human resource director to be a primary representative for employees?
 - Non-union employees more committed to their job than union employees?

- Unions to play an important role in securing better wages and benefits for employees?
 - Recognize employees' right to collectively bargain without union interference?
7. What do union employees expect of management?
 8. What are three main reasons hotel employees want to unionize?

Hypotheses

1. H_0 = Unions are no longer relevant in terms of providing protection for members of the hotel workforce, because of existing state and federal laws.
 H_A = Unions are relevant in terms of providing protection for members of the hotel workforce, in spite of existing state and federal laws.

2. H_0 = The leadership style of empowerment of employees, and fulfillment of some needs, negates employees' desire to form a union and collectively bargain.
 H_A = The leadership style of empowerment of employees, and fulfillment of some needs, does not negate employees' desire to form a union and collectively bargain.

Significance of This Study

This study makes unique contributions to the literature of hospitality research and that of labor relations in the following manner:

- 1) It adds to previous research by incorporating recently collected data from hotel employees and management with regard to the needs and concerns of both the employees and management.
- 2) It evaluates the importance of collective bargaining in the hotel industry.
- 3) It will enlighten representatives of both union and management how both sides interpret the needs and concerns of each other.
- 4) It will assist both parties in addressing each other's needs and concerns when drafting collective bargaining agreements.

Definition of Operational Terms

1. Hotel Employees and Restaurant Employees Union (HERE) is a labor union representing approximately 265, 000 hospitality industry workers through 111 affiliated local unions across the United States and Canada, (HERE, 2005).
2. Collective Bargaining Agreement: A formal contract, between an employer and a group of employees, that establish the rights and responsibilities of both parties in their employment relationship, (Barth, 2001).

3. Collective Bargaining: Is a process by which an elected representative, of the members of a labor union working in a specific industry or for a specific company, will negotiate with the employer or their representative, the terms and conditions of a collective bargaining agreement for the entire group, (Barth, 2001).
4. National Labor Relations Act (NLRA): Section 7 of the NLRA guarantees the right of employees to organize or assist labor organizations, to bargain collectively through a representative of their choosing, or to refrain from collective bargaining, (Bennett-Alexander, 2004; Barth, 2001).
5. Common Law: Is law that is based on tradition or case/court precedent and not created by statutes or administrative policy.
6. Employment Law: Are laws that pertain to the individual rather than the whole employment relationship.
7. Labor Law: Are laws that are explicitly written for unions and union activities.
8. Labor Union: Is a formal or informal group of workers who unite in order to influence the nature of their employment, i.e. wages, benefits, work hours, work schedule, seniority, etc.
9. Labor Relations: Encompasses three (3) processes:
 - i. Union organizing (i.e. how unions are formed);
 - ii. Collective bargaining – how contracts are negotiated after unions are formed;

- iii. Contract administration – how grievances over the application of the contract are resolved.
- 10. Labor System: How the relationship between employee and employer, and the working environment, achieves a balance between efficiency, equity, and voice.
- 11. Employment Relationship centers around three (3) objectives:
 - i. Efficiency – the most productive use of resources for economic prosperity;
 - ii. Equity – fair labor standards for the worker; basic ideals of democracy for her people; a need to set minimal standards;
 - iii. Voice – ability of employees to have some meaningful dialog with management, and input regarding decisions within the workplace.
- 12. Caravanserai (Merchants' Inn), the word 'caravanserai' is derived from the Persian "*karwan*," which signifies a company, or "caravan," of travelers in a *serai* (large inn). In some areas of the Middle East they are known as "khans" which were originally an enclosure protecting a well that eventually developed into a unique type of architectural complex. The main function of a caravanserai was to receive travelers and merchandise, and therefore space within them was provided in order to store a variety of goods to be traded. The larger complexes consisted of courtyards to stable animals, rooms to lodge the travelers ("manzil" or "funduq"), and storage areas for their goods. The khans that survive today attest to the spread of civil and mercantile architecture

which developed from the first centuries of Islam onward (Anonymous, a, 2005).

13. Hotel: An establishment that provides away from home sleeping and living accommodations to transient travelers for daily remuneration.
14. Closed Shop: Employer hires only union members.
15. Syndicalism: Is a direct action philosophy where by union activists believed that any action or step taken by workers to improve wages, reduce hours, or better working conditions is appropriate. This type of action-included strikes such as conventional, intermittent, silent or the ultimate general strike, as well as passive resistance, and sabotage.
16. Cordwainers: A person who makes shoes out of cordovan leather.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A Compendious Review of the Evolution of Lodging

Lodging is one of several segments that make-up the hospitality industry. Other segments such as food and beverage, travel/tourism, transportation, recreation, theme parks, clubs and spas, and gaming all compose an industry that is recognized worldwide and is rapidly growing. The word hospitality is noted to be a derivative of both Greek and Latin terms (Curtis, 2001). In the Bible, Peter (1 Peter 4:9) asked people to be hospitable to each other. The Greek concept for the word hospitable comes from the Greek words *philos*, which means: "to love" and *xenos*, which means "a stranger". Thus, *philoxenos* meaning "to love a stranger" is interpreted by Curtis (2001) to mean hospitality. It is also written and used in the Bible in Romans 12:9-20, where Paul dispenses duties to some Christians', of which one duty for them to perform is hospitality as reflected in the Greek word *philonexia* meaning "loving strangers, a friend to strangers." The word "strangers" refers to travelers or people that one does not know. The Latin word for hospitality comes from the root *hospes*, which literally means "guests." A more modern spelling of the term *hospice* is known to mean "a house of rest for travelers and pilgrims." According to Random House (1992) dictionary, the word

hospitality means: 1) the friendly reception and treatment of guests or strangers; 2) the quality or disposition of receiving and treating guests and strangers in a warm, friendly, and generous way.

The various aspects of lodging, food, beverage and travel, can be traced as far back as 3,500 B.C. The Sumerians, who were one of the first people of ancient times to establish and live in cities, (City of Sumer, circa 3200-2000 B.C.) were also the first people who for many centuries were known to farm grain, breed sheep and goats, and establish themselves as creative craftsmen. Early commerce became the motivator of travel, and commercial routes were established from Eastern Europe to North Africa, India and China (Angelo, 2001). It was around 3200 B.C. that the Sumerians began to travel in order to develop trade and commercial transactions (Koeller, 1999). As a result of their farming abilities, grain was an important crop and eventually, though by accident, the Sumerians discovered the brewing of beer, which eventually became a very lucrative commodity (Anonymous, c, (2005). As the Sumerians began to travel throughout Ancient Mesopotamia, the “geographic areas of movement widened, and their lodging needs become greater” (Cobanoglu, 2001, p. 10; Lattin, 1989), along with their requirements for food and beverage that will increase in proportion to their travel.

In ancient times, the life and affluence of cities depended upon the transportation of goods by merchants. The accommodations for travelers at the Caravanserai (merchants’ inn – most likely tents) were food and shelter facilities, however during this period such accommodations were sparse at best (Anonymous, a, (2005). It wasn’t until 1792 B.C. that the King of Babylonia scripted the “Code of Hammurabi” which established laws to regulate taverns. Some of these early laws addressed such issues as

diluting drinks with water, false measurement, or the failure to report any criminal conspiracies that the tavern owner was aware of. The travelers during this period were usually individual merchants or a handful that traveled together. Historians believe that the first inn to charge an established, regular fee for meals and lodging was said to be in Greece in the seventh century B.C. (Josephson, 1956).

Toward the end of the last century B.C. and even into the first century A. D. there were more brothels than there were hotels or inns. As a result, the early church established a “practice of hospitality so that those in the Christian community who traveled, whether for business or for the purpose of preaching and spreading the gospel, would have safe places to go to” (Curtis, 2001, tape 190). It wasn’t until the expansion and growth of the Roman Empire that large expeditions began to travel to far away places, eventually leading to massive road building and the establishment of inns (Angelo, 2001). By the year 200 A.D. the highways and roads developed by the Romans traversed throughout the Roman Empire, north into Britain and south into the Sahara Desert with “wheel changing stations and rest houses [inns] every 15 to 30 miles” (Angelo, 2001, p. xix). The Romans were the first to develop what we might refer to as the lodging facility for the commoner and one for the aristocrat. The more common traveler could find lodging at a “Posting House” while boarding their horse at a “Way Station,” and the “elite of Rome used what was known as the “Roman Hospice,” a fancy facility for lodging, dining and drinking” (Brymer, 1984, p. 13).

For over a millennium, as the highways of the world were developed and the seaways began to open up as major trade routes, commerce became the main reason for travel. It wasn’t until the fourteenth century with the birth of the Renaissance, and

extending for three hundred years there after, that cultural and artistic reasons spurred people to travel about (Angelo, 2001). Though lodging or some version of the inn can be traced back several millennia, today's lodging and hospitality industry in America is somewhat patterned after that of Europe, which is more aligned with the concepts established during the Roman Empire (Baker, 1991).

A Brief History of the Hotel and Lodging Industry in America

The Inn is defined as “a house for the lodging and entertainment of travelers or wayfarers; a tavern; a public house; a hotel” (Webster, 1913). Though the word inn, by definition or common parlance, has come to mean a public establishment offering food and lodging to the traveler (Random House, 1992) the earliest inns were not built for such means. Taverns were first built “for the comfort of the townspeople, the interchange of news and opinions, the sale of solacing liquors, and the incidental sociability; in fact, the importance of the tavern to its local neighbors was far greater than to travelers” (Anonymous, b, 2005; Josephson, 1956).

The early travelers of the American East were first introduced to inns that were fashioned after the English and Dutch travelers-inns (Schonwalder, 2005). Many of these establishments were located along the eastern seaboard in seaports where visiting sailors could dine, drink and then hang-up their hammock in a backroom to get a nights rest (Schonwalder, 2005). Being an innkeeper in the early Colonial days was not an easy job; however, it could be a prosperous one. For an innkeeper with an entrepreneurial spirit,

the freedom to offer a traveler food, beverage, sleeping accommodations, horse stabling, and other needed amenities meant hard work, but it also introduced the innkeeper to a capitalistic system that would allow him to get rich. The first American to venture into the realm of inn keeping was Samuel Cole who opened “Coles Ordinary” in Boston in 1643 (Blum, 2005). Cole’s tavern was so successful at filling a traveler’s need that for a period from 1644 to 1656 the existing government, through court orders, required each town to establish and maintain an “Ordinary.” In 1656 the General Court of Massachusetts made towns liable to a fine for not sustaining an ordinary (Anonymous, b, (2005).

As the colonies in America began the 18th century, “the word inn, universal in English speech, was little heard here, and tavern was universally adopted. Though to-day somewhat shadowed by a formless reputation of being frequently applied to hostleries of vulgar resort and coarse fare and ways, the word tavern is nevertheless a good one, resonant of sound and accurate of application, since to this present time in the commonwealth of Massachusetts and in other states such large and sumptuous caravansaries as the Touraine and the Somerset Hotel of Boston are in the eye and tongue of the law simply taverns, and their proprietors inn-holders or tavern-keepers” (Anonymous, b, 2005).

It wasn’t until over a century later that in 1794 the first building specifically built to be a hotel was erected. The City Hotel, with its 73 room lodging accommodations as well as business meeting rooms, opened on Broadway in New York City and remained an icon to the lodging industry until 1849 (Schonwalder, 2005; Cobanoglu, 2001; Lattin, 1989). Subsequent to the opening of The City Hotel, other hotels began to open in

Boston, Baltimore, and Philadelphia. The irony of these hotels is that they were no different from the early Ordinary, except for their shape and size, because many of these first hotels became fashionable meeting and entertaining places for the rich and famous of the local area, and their mobile friends who came from cities near by (Schonwalder, 2005).

Though hotels were being built in some major cities, the hotel building boom did not occur until after the Civil War and more directly as a result of the railroad industry (Josephson, 1956). The wealthy industrialist who had made their money in coal oil, pork packaging and shipping, and other ventures were building hotels where the railroads were being built, or were going to be built. These early hotels operated on the “American Plan” which provided a fixed meal, for a fixed price without a tip, and at a fixed time, where late comers were refused service (Josephson, 1956).

The first grand hotel to be opened in America was the 170 room Tremont Hotel which opened in Boston in 1829, and this also “signaled the beginning of the *first class* lodging industry” (Brymer, 1984, p. 14; Angelo, 2001). Business tycoon and industrialist John Jacob Astor believed in *bigger and better* so he built the most luxurious hotel of its time, the Astor House, which opened in New York City in 1836. Unfortunately, by the end of the 1800’s and into the early 1900’s the country was still suffering economically, while attempting to recover from the depression of the late 1870’s. Because economic times were so hard on everyone, the Astor House was forced to change from luxury dining to a “lunch room concept”, however not being able to adapt, it was forced to close its doors in 1913 (Brymer, 1984, p. 15). The oldest hotel in America that has continued to operate since its opening is the famous Parker House (now the Omni Parker House)

which opened in 1855 on School Street in Boston (Angelo, 2001). The Parker House, which celebrates its 150th Anniversary this year, was started by Harvey Parker, who is also credited with introducing to the eating public the famous sweet and soft dinner roll know as the Parker House roll, and the ever delicious Boston Cream Pie (Omni Hotels, 2005). There are many other pioneers of the American lodging industry such as Potter Palmer who opened the Palmer House in Chicago in 1871; William C. Ralston who commissioned The Palace Hotel in San Francisco in 1875; Fred Harvey who built the Harvey Houses along the Santa Fe Railroad tracks, and introduced the public to the Harvey Girls, the first women waitresses. Lodging industry pioneers of the 20th century are such notable individuals as Ellsworth Statler, Conrad Hilton, Ernest Henderson, William Marriott, Kemmons Wilson, and Howard Johnson (Angelo, 2001; Brymer, 1984).

Labor Relations, the Labor System, and the Legal Structure in America

“Labor relations means *employee* relations” (Witzy, 1975, p. 34). The practice of labor relations or employee relations means understanding the issues involved in the business and working relationships, as well as establishing and implementing effective policies that raise and maintain mutual trust between the employer and employee (Witzy, 1975). Employees do not want to be taken for granted, they want to be needed, but they also have needs that need to be met. Sigmund Freud “believed that people join unions to establish a parallel – and rival – status level in an employer’s organization in a desire to

achieve recognition” (Witzy, 1975, p. 34).

The needs and concerns of labor verses those of management are not a new issue. The struggle between the workforce and the company over workers’ concerns and needs, and the concern of companies to maintain a strong hold on workers to bring about efficiency and success in a competitive marketplace has been at the forefront of labor relations and the labor system in many parts of the world. However, one of the major differences between the American labor system and that of other countries, especially European countries is the “working class.” According to Wright (2003), the United States of America never developed a working class because the American worker was not interested in joining a union to achieve social change or to be part of a social experiment. American workers viewed the union as a vehicle with which to achieve better wages and working conditions. With the growth of America and the movement westward, workers were very mobile and had no problem with packing up and moving west if it meant the possibility of a “better life” (Wright, 2003, p.3). Unlike the European worker of the 18th, 19th, and early 20th century who joined unions in hopes of making social changes, American workers joined unions because they were unhappy with their work environment. According to Divine (1984), “the single most important aspect in influencing individuals to join unions is a sense of dissatisfaction with the employer rather than some philosophic or social belief” (p. 133). During the growth period in American history, Americans had no problem leaving the city to move west in hopes of discovering prosperity, and the American farmer had no problem with moving to the city if it meant a better existence for the family. According to Budd (2005), “labor relations outcomes in a system of business unionism [American] stem from collective bargaining

and grievance resolution; [where] outcomes in a social unionism system [European] are the product of social and political activism” (p. 71-72).

In the United States, the general policy on labor unions and labor relations is to encourage the practice and procedure of collective bargaining as well as protecting the rights of individuals to come together for the purpose of negotiating their terms of employment (Budd, 2005; Carrell, 2004). The general purpose of the labor relations system is to bring-about a balance (labor relations) of the objectives of the employment relationship of *efficiency, equity and voice*, all of which are a part of the rights of labor and management (Budd, 2005). Therefore, labor relation is the examination of how independent labor unions represent employees in their negotiations with management in order to achieve a balance between efficiency, equity, and voice. Unfortunately it has not always been easy to attain these goals and rights, and in many cases labor has chosen to strike against management in order to be heard. The results of labor strikes is that it often brings to the forefront the issues and goals of both the labor force and management. The very first recorded labor strike was over the issue of meal breaks for an orchestra whose leader, a Greek named Aristos, had his group of entertainers strike while playing in Rome around the year 309 B.C. (McWhirter, 1975).

The history of the labor movement in the United States of America has also had its share of problems in balancing the goals and rights of labor and management. The labor movement in the United States began to take shape as early as 1621 when the U.S. began to grow and prosper along with labor, raising a concern for regulations to be established for the labor force (Wright, 2003). Several different factions attempted to form unions, the first as early as 1636 when a group of Maine fishermen banded together

in protest against wage withholding by the overseer on Richmond Island, Mr. John Winter (Budd, 2005; Rayback, 1961). However no permanent unions ever materialized, not for lack of trying, but mostly due to poor leadership and organization, along with an uphill battle against companies, corporations, government, and the general public who also had a distain for union type organizations during those times.

Throughout most of the 1700's the majority of the people were self employed, with the exception of some master craftsmen in major cities, who may have employed one or two skilled or apprentice employees to work for them. Having two or three employees combine against a self-employed individual was considered to be highly inappropriate and wrong. Near mid-century in 1741 Boston caulkers combined to refuse "to accept paper money or due bills as wages from their employers" (Rayback, 1961, p. 17). In 1768, a group of journeymen tailors went on strike in New York City in protest to having their wages reduced, and walked out eventually establishing their own operation in competition with their former employer (Budd, 2005; Rayback, 1961). Strikes in Boston, New York, New Jersey, Philadelphia, Virginia, and Georgia posed by laborers coming together in combination were not uncommon during the second half of the 18th century. However, the 1700's was still a time of newness and development for the colonies and eventually the United States of America. As such, the laws of England often referred to as the *common law* were still followed. Therefore, such actions as combinations of workers attempting to force an issue regarding employment negotiation was held contrary to the Tudor Industrial Code as well as statutes which called for criminal penalties if laborers refused to work in their stated occupation (Rayback, 1961).

It wasn't until the latter part of the 18th century that shoemakers established the

first permanent union, which was also the first union to ever strike, resulting in the first trade agreement was signed in Philadelphia and lasted between 1792 and 1799 (Budd, 2005, Rayback, 1961). Though the first shoemakers union of 1792 had a binding agreement lasting to the end of the decade, the union ceased to exist sometime during 1793, but was revived in 1794 and by 1818 had local unions in four cities within the New England area (Rayback, 1961). Around this same period union organizations began to form for printers/typographers, cabinetmakers, carpenters, masons, tailors and other crafts as well (Rayback, 1961). Many of these union organizations or associations were constantly being challenged by employers, public opinion, and the legal system as well.

Long before the passage of the NLRA, workers tried for years to form worker associations or craft organizations in order to improve their working conditions (Budd, 2005; Feldacker, 2000, Rayback, 1961). The issues surrounding workers rights, especially the right to organize and bargain collectively was an issue for the state courts, since the regulation of labor relations was part of the state courts' domain (Feldacker, 2000). In the early 1800's, not only were corporate management and their owners opposed to worker associations or unionization, but so were the various state courts throughout the United States (Feldacker, 2000). Unfortunately, for the workers, the law required that jurors had to be property owners (Tillman and Cummings, 1999). Thus, the juries in these particular court hearings were composed of bankers, financiers, stockbrokers, business owners and the like, all of whom were also quite hostile toward worker associations and their desire to improve the working environment (Budd, 2005; Feldacker, 2000).

Not only was it a hostile environment for the worker organizations, but any attempt by workers to combine for the purpose of betterment was also considered adverse to the intentions and goals of any employer. Throughout the 1790's many master craftsmen themselves organized societies in order to prevent the journeymen in their carpentry, mason, shoemaker, and printer houses from seeking wage increase or unionization (Rayback, 1967). A leading group of organizers seemed to be the Cordwainers (bootmakers/shoemakers). Cordwainers' employers in Philadelphia, New York, Pittsburgh, Boston and other locations resorted "to the courts to protect their interests, an action which gave rise to the trials known as the Cordwainers Conspiracy Cases" (Rayback, 1967. p. 56). The Cordwainers' cases set a precedent, whereby the courts in holding to the common law ruled that courts were allowed to rule against workers who attempted to form an organization for the purpose of collectively bargaining to improve working conditions, (Budd, 2005; Feldacker, 2000). In the very first Cordwainers case held in Philadelphia in 1806, the court listened to the testimony addressing the fact that union workers refused to work along side of a non-union "journeyman who worked for less than union scale and repeatedly broke other union rules" (Carrell, 2005, p. 19; *Commonwealth v. Hunt*, 45 Mass.{4 Met.}III {1842}). The court found the Cordwainers guilty of criminal conspiracy because the "membership [founded a union and] agreed that none of them would work as shoemakers except at certain specified prices higher than the price that had previously been paid" (Feldacker, 2000, p.2). It was quite obvious, based on the circumstances and sentiment of the times, that winning a court case for the purpose of organizing a workers association or to bargain with the employer for any reason was not a likely occurrence. This court

decision and subsequent injunctions against the strike broke the Cordwainers union, and approximately 67% of all union organizations that appeared before the courts until the early 1940's.

This practice by the various state courts continued until 1842 when the Massachusetts Supreme Court virtually ended the “application of the common law of criminal conspiracy to trade unions...and became the foundation for recognition of labor’s right to organize” (Rayback, 1961, p.92; Nicholson, 2004; Wright, 2003; Feldacker, 2000). In *Commonwealth v. Hunt* (1842) the Boston Journeymen Bootmakers Society refused to work “alongside non-society members – a clear case of an attempt to impose a closed shop” (Rayback, 1967. p. 91). This action was nothing short of a strike. The employer behind the lawsuit decided that instead of filing a claim based on the charge of “conspiracy for strike actions” he sought to follow English common law and charge that the union itself was an illegal conspiracy (Nicholson, 2004, p. 75). Following case precedent, the lower court of Boston found the society (union) members guilty of criminal conspiracy. Upon appeal to the Massachusetts Supreme Court, the court under Chief Justice Lemuel Shaw, “reversed the lower court decision and threw out the conspiracy charge against seven union leaders” (Nicholson, 2004, p. 75; Rayback, 1967). Chief Justice Shaw’s actions in handing down this landmark decision would influence the workforce and workers rights for many decades to come. In writing the court’s two-pronged decision regarding “the legality of the combination and the legality of its method,” Justice Shaw found that workingmen had a lawful right to combine together to adopt new measures, stating that instead of being criminal, such action might be “highly meritorious and public spirited” (Rayback, 1961, p.91). In addressing the

issue of the legality of their method of coming together, Justice Shaw stated “we cannot perceive, that it is criminal for men to agree together to exercise their acknowledged rights, in such manner as best to subserve their own interests” (Rayback, 1961, p.91). This was not a major victory for the unions, albeit a victory non-the-less, but what it did was reaffirm the fact that union organizations were a legal entity, and that the actions of the employers was in fact illegal, which mostly everyone already new to be a true fact (Nicholson, 2004). Though the unions gained some “respectability” as legitimate organizations, they would continue to be held accountable for their strike actions, which until the next century were continually broken up by court issued injunctions (Nicholson, 2004, p. 75). However, this began the turning point and a new era of major changes for workers and their rights to organize and bargain collectively.

The ruling by Judge Shaw did not stop the more anti-organization judges and the courts that were more favorable to corporations from issuing injunctions to stop union organizing. It was not until the Roosevelt Administration and Congress passed the Norris-LaGuardia Act in 1932, that at least federal courts were restricted from using an injunction as their anti-union tool. After the Civil War, the United States experienced rapid growth, most due to “the creation of national corporations, such as E. H. Harriman’s railroads, Andrew Carnegie’s steel mills, and John D. Rockefeller’s oil refineries” (Carrell, 2005, p. 5). These men were slowly but surely forming a corporate monopoly, or what later became known as a trust. In order to combat these national corporations, the federal government passed the Sherman Antitrust Act in 1892.

In 1893, the American Railway Union was organized, and Eugene V. Debs was elected its president. Debs was a strong advocate for industrial (vertical) unionism, and

decided that such a policy “was needed to serve all railroad union workers rather than the craft (horizontal) union he had been leading” (Wright, 2003, p. 31). Within a year, under Debs’ leadership the union had won a major victory over the Great Northern Railroad Company, and its membership grew greatly. Unfortunately, this powerful union had a short life, because in June of 1894 the union and Debs became involved in the Pullman Strike, which landed Debs in jail and began the decline of the railway union. Though this strike was considered by some to be “peaceful and well organized” (Carrell, 2005, p. 10), others believed it to be violent, since “several persons were killed in clashes between rioters and marshals (Estey, 1967, p. 32). In either case, the strike resulted in a railway boycott that stretched from Illinois to Colorado, effectively closing down the Illinois Central, Southern Pacific, and Northern Pacific railroads, (Carrell, 2005). In an attempt to keep the trains moving, the owners enlisted the help of the federal government, who assisted by adding mail cars to the trains. The strikers, by stopping the trains from traveling, were now interfering with the delivery of the U. S. mail. The Sherman Antitrust Act, which prohibits “combinations in restraint of trade” and “attempts to monopolize trade,” was used against the strikers, who were charged accordingly in federal court (Budd, 2005; Carrell, 2005; Wright, 2003; Estey, 1967). Up to this point, injunctions were used by the courts as a preventive measure to stop workers, unions, or union organizers from acting in combinations against corporations, however, since the Pullman strike had already taken place, the court used the law more as a punishing measure to send a message to such workers and their unions (Carrell, 2005). The strike finally ended around August 2 when the union called it off, however, the damage was

done; Debs was sent to jail for six months in January of 1894, and the union collapsed by the end of the decade.

Toward the last two decades of the 19th century, the labor movement in the United States seemed to have taken a foothold. The Knights of Labor had grown from just under 20,000 members in early 1880's to approximately 110,000 by 1885, and nearly 700,00 by the end of 1886 (Budd, 2005; Wright, 2003). However, around 1897 labor in America sought to create a stronger foundation and organization, so much so that a call for the expansion of membership continued for over seven years and by 1904 the labor movement, in particular the American Federation of Labor (AFL), had increased its membership from one-quarter of a million members in 1897 to nearly 1.75 million within that period of time (Wright, 2003; Kimeldorf, 1999; Wolman, 1924, p.33).

The AFL had great hopes at the start of the 20th century. However the 20th century, at least the first half, proved to be as trying a time for employers, labor and the labor movement as was the 19th century. According to Budd (2005), many of the failures within labor relations during the 20th century can be attributed to 1) market failure, 2) poor management, 3) unequal bargaining between employers and employees, and 4) control of the workplace environment by the capitalist class. Similar sentiments were noted around 1904 by Andrew Carnegie who stated that there was a "friction between the employee and the employer, between labor and capital, between rich and poor," developing in the workplace across America (Kimeldorf, 1999, p.1; Brier, 1992, p. 160).

Throughout the 1930's the relationship between employers and workers was strained to say the least. Tension began to mount as more and more workers lost their jobs because of the crash of the stock market in 1929, which was considered to be the

beginning of the “Great Depression” (Random House, 1992). The labor force in America was now more than ever determined to “form unions to push for better working conditions, but business owners responded to their actions harshly, blacklisting organizers and using force to prevent strikes” (Our Documents, n.d.). The corporations were equally determined to prevent union organization. The problem of unfair labor practices did not readily go away. In June of 1933, President F. D. Roosevelt first addressed this problem by establishing the National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA), which created the National Recovery Administration to oversee competition to promote fair pricing and wages. It was determined by the U. S. Supreme Court that this Act interfered with the authority of the states, and gave too much power to the executive branch of the federal government, thus striking down its legal power.

Tension between employers and employees continued. In an attempt to quell labor strikes and the resulting violence that accompanied many strikes, President Roosevelt passed the Wagner Act, in hopes of preventing unfair labor practices by employers, and which incorporated a section of the NIRA. Unfortunately the Wagner Act, like many other statutes passed by Roosevelt during the early part of his first term, or the sitting Congress of the time, was also struck down by the U. S. Supreme Court on constitutional issues; however, eventually the Wagner Act was constitutionally upheld, but not until 1937.

The Supreme Court in ruling the Wagner Act unconstitutional pushed President Roosevelt to make an even bolder stand on behalf of labor. In 1935, he passed the National Labor Relations Act, also known as the Wagner Act, which gave workers the right to form unions and bargain collectively with their employers. Upon signing this act

into law President Roosevelt stated "...it should serve as an important step toward the achievement of just and peaceful labor relations in industry" (Our Document, n.d.).

The act also created the National Labor Relations Board to oversee union certification, arrange meetings with unions and employers, and investigate violations of the law. Like other New Deal programs, the NLRA's constitutionality was questioned, but the Supreme Court upheld the act in the *Jones & Laughlin Steel* case. Because the Wagner Act was now strengthened by the NLRA, workers finally began to get some relief from economic strife, and employers were now faced with negotiating with union representatives. "The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 aided the strengthening process by establishing minimum hourly wages for employees in many industries, finally reaching the hotel industry in February, 1967" (Witzy, 1975, p. 18).

Throughout the 20th century, the unions in the United States had grown and shrunk in membership. However, the power that many of the unions yield has not changed. According to Witzy, "today unions have grown into economic entities equalling (sic) large corporations and exercising enormous power. The U.S. Department of Commerce, reflecting the views of labor's impact on business, is concerned with a rising public demand to amend Section 6 of the Clayton Anti-trust Act of 1914 to include and define the legitimate function of labor unions" (Witzy, 1975, p. 18). Witzy continued to tell the story of how the leaders of the American Federation of Musicians, and that of the International Typographical Union, made such demands on music and news paper business that the unions were able to force many out of business (Witzy, 1975). According to Witzy, the unchanged laws like the Clayton Act that affirmed unions' power, and the unions' ability to force the closure of businesses "actually strengthens

unions by building up the very monopoly power for which they have always criticized management” (Witzy, 1975, p. 19).

As the United States has entered into the middle of the first decade of the 21st century, newspaper stories in several major cities have told of striking hotel workers and their management counterpart who were at odds with each other over various aspects of the workplace environment (Hotel Labor Advisor, 2004). This has not been restricted to hotel workers alone, as reports of airline mechanics and pilots, along with grocery store employees have gone out on strike in an effort to better their working environment.

It would seem that Andrew Carnegie’s words could be repeated even today in defining the workplace relationship that exists between the two sides, that being employees verses employers. In examining the past and present of the workplace environment, the continued struggle between labor and management begs the question as to why, nearly one-hundred years after Carnegie made his observation, there still remains a struggle between several aspects of labor and management, to wit, one being the hospitality lodging industry and the capitalist structure of management.

Modern Day Management and Leadership Styles

During the 1990s, service industries such as the hospitality industry rushed to adopt “customer-focused” strategies. The hospitality industry is and probably always will be a labor-intensive industry. “Labor is an important determinant in profitability [and] in the service sectors it is crucial (Divine, 1984, p. 126). The individuals who work

in the hotel, restaurant, and other areas of the industry are providing a human service to the customers, guests, and public they encounter. It was not until the last quarter of the 20th century that management began to realize that “the interaction between the employee and the customer in a service situation is critical” to profitability and the overall operation, (Divine, 1984, p. 126).

Hospitality companies began to implement customer-focused strategies that were aimed at building operations around customer needs and desires, with the ultimate objective of increasing customer satisfaction (Brymer, 1991; Partlow, 1996). The service industry has turned to a variety of techniques, tools, and philosophies in an attempt to increase customer satisfaction. Particularly important to the personal service sector has been techniques, tools, and philosophies that focus on employees and their responsibilities in delivering customer-satisfaction. Employee participation such as empowerment in the workplace, quality-of-work-life (QWL), and employee involvement programs are among the more commonly used strategies that are aimed at improving employees’ performance and satisfaction and in turn, customer satisfaction (Sagie & Koslowsky, 2000). “Today it is estimated that virtually every corporation in North America and Western Europe is using various forms of empowerment somewhere in their organization” (Fischer, 1999).

Writing in the late 1950s and early 1960s, prominent management theorists advocated greater democracy in the workplace. They were extremely critical of the authoritarian, bureaucratic management styles, which then dominated American business arguing, “that these practices were responsible for low morale among many employees, resulting in suboptimal productivity and poor quality products and services. In contrast,

these early advocates of participatory management approaches sought ways to allow more people to participate in important decisions related to their working lives and their job performances” (Pottersfield, 1999, pp. 17-18).

Although these theories did help to shift away from the rigidly authoritarian management structures towards a more favorable view of employees during the 1960s and 1970s, the notions on democratic organizational governance did not gain too much attention until the 1980s and 1990s. While empowerment is often related to various participatory management styles and strategies, employee empowerment is conceptually distinct from employee participation. Participation represents a method of power sharing between employers and employees; a precaution is management’s continuous relinquishment of authority. With respect to the case of employee empowerment, management gives over its power and authority, usually on selected areas of concern or issues, to employees.

The General Labor Union Movement in America

A labor union is an organization of workers for improving working conditions and their economic status through a process known as collective bargaining, which is conducted with union representatives and the employers. “Historically there have been two chief types of unions: the horizontal, or craft, union, in which all the members are skilled in a certain craft (e.g., the International Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners); and the vertical, or industrial, union, composed of workers in the same industry

regardless of their particular skill (e.g., the United Automobile Workers of America)” (Questia, 2005).

Industrial Unionism vs. Craft Unionism vs. Business Unionism

Industrial unionism supports the policy of “organizing workers of all occupations within an industry into a single union” (Budd, 2005, p. 110). Part of the roots of *industrial unionism* owes its beginnings to the Noble and Holy Order of the Knights of Labor (KoL) who started as a union in the garment industry, and expanded into other industries. The KoL believed in the “One Big Union” as being one large centralized association, and attempted through educational means to further its aims for central unity, an eight-hour day, the abolition of child and convict labor, and equal pay for equal work. Though the Order was like many fraternal associations of the time, making use of numerous rituals, passwords, and secret signs in order to hide from employers and their organization spies and strike-breaking agents, its views of combining employers and employees was unique for the times.

Although they welcomed into their organization unions whose focus was more on individual skills, the Knights regarded simple craft unionism (horizontal – one level or individual skill) as tending to detach, rather than unite, the working class (Estey, 1967). They sought to connect all producers into one organization, where the skilled and unskilled workers, whether they were electricians, janitors, cooks, housekeepers, or some other occupation, all worked for the same hotel or factory (Budd, 2005). “The Knights, in short, were the polar opposite of the craft-union model of organization-indeed; theirs may be considered a primitive model of industrial unionism, with the business-union

approach of today's industrial unions" (Estey, 1967, p. 15).

The American Federation of Labor (AFL) and its trade unions advocated *craft unionism*, meaning that its goal was to organize all workers according to their craft, occupation, or trade. "Craft unionism 'reflected the industrial world of a half-century earlier: small shops, a simple technology, and the highly skilled workman'" (Budd, 2005, p. 124; Bernstein, 1995, p. 353). Craft unionism focused on the individual skilled craft and the craftsmen who were masters of their trade. This was a revolutionary beginning that has survived the test of time and economics, and somewhat exists in many of today's union organizations who are separated by occupation or craft such as the travel/airline workers, professional athletes, electrical workers, plumbers, carpenters, and many other construction and industry organizations.

The premise behind industrial unionism began as a movement with the railroad workers. According to Rayback, the locomotive engineers were the first to organize a national railway association in order to "advance the moral, social, and intellectual condition of the locomotive engineers and to thereby elevate their standard of character as a profession" (Rayback, 1961, p. 199). Being a railway worker was not an easy and safe job, and many insurance companies were charging exorbitant rates for insurance. As a result, the Brotherhood of Railway Conductors and the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen established their own fund to help surviving widows and orphans, disabled workers and a death-benefit system (Rayback, 1961).

After the economic depression of 1873, jobs were not as plentiful. The two brotherhoods were able to survive the depression but other railway workers who were not organized, such as the workers in the yards, rail machine shops, depots and roundhouses

struggled to survive. These latter worker groups decided to join the KoL, however, their decision to join the Knights during a period from 1887-1888 led to conflicts, as scabs from the brotherhood would cross the lines of striking KoL members and vice versa (Budd, 2005; Wright, 2003). By 1891, the brotherhoods were well organized and were able to secure recognition, high wages, and job security with the various railway managers. With a feeling of power and security, the brotherhoods remained independent from the KoL, and in 1892, with the issue of trade unionism vs. industrial unionism becoming a major topic within the labor movement, the brotherhoods decided that Eugene V. Debs, secretary-treasury of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen as their unionist leader. Debs' goal was to organize all railway workers, from trainmen and conductors to yards men and shop men, into *one big industrial union*. Debs organized the American Railway Union (ARU) in 1893, however both he and the union became so involved in the Pullman strike (see page 46 below) that both rose and fell from prominence within two years (Budd, 2005; Carrell, 2005; Nicholson, 2004; Wright, 2003; Rayback, 1961).

Debs' rhetoric in the early 1890's did not fall upon deaf ears. By 1905 the Industrial Workers of the World (IWW) a more militant and radical alternative union organization was formed by Big Bill Haywood, Mother Jones and Eugene Debs, but was mostly led by Big Bill Haywood (Budd, 2005). The main philosophy behind the IWW was more of a Marxist theory in that "the greatest power in society can design and control institutions to serve their own interests" (Budd, 2005, p. 44). The critical thinking of Marxist industrial relations is to take control away from the capitalist and turn it over to the laborers, thus eventually "replacing capitalism with socialism" (Budd, 2005, p. 45).

Like the KoL and ARU, the IWW sought to have “One Big Union” for all skilled and unskilled workers, minorities, women, immigrants and any other workers who cared to join, whereby the emphasis would be placed “on working class solidarity and inclusiveness” (Budd, 2005, p. 114). Haywood believed that government officials and judges were controlled by big business and that votes could not change this, but direct worker action could. Thus, the IWW’s revolutionary unionism style emphasized “direct action [that] included any step taken by workers at the point of production that improved wages, reduced hours, and bettered conditions. It encompassed conventional strikes, intermittent strikes, silent strikes, passive resistance, sabotage, and the ultimate direct action measure: the general strike” (Budd, 2005, p. 115; Dubofsky, 1967, p. 90). “This direct action philosophy is called syndicalism” (Budd, 2005, p. 115). Syndicalism is a type of socialist doctrine or movement advocating control of the means of production and distribution, and ultimately the government, by federated bodies of industrial workers (Budd, 2005).

The IWW was disliked by both the AFL and employers. Like his associate Eugene Debs who was jailed after the Pullman strike of 1894, Big Bill Haywood also found himself jailed having been found guilty for opposing the war and war effort during 1918. As part of an anticommunist movement, many IWW leaders and supporters were either jailed, lynched, or “put on railroad cattle cars, and forcibly deported ...to the New Mexico desert where they were stranded without food or water in the July heat” (Budd, 2005, p. 116; Dubofsky, 1967). The strength of the IWW spanned a period from 1905 to 1925, during which time its membership rose somewhere between 60,000 and 100,000. According to government reports, the IWW’s membership reached as high as 250,000

shortly after World War I, however, “this higher number was a government estimate and also surely too high because the government wanted to scare citizens about the potential of the ‘Wobblers,’ as they were popularly called, to [do] damage to the country” (Wright, 2003, p. 47). Even though its’ objective of social reform for the betterment of the working class, via radical or subversive means, was not embraced by the people or the AFL and many government officials, its philosophy on “inclusiveness and emphasis on social justice provided sparks (and sometimes, tactics) for industrial unions that would mushroom in the 1930’s” (Budd, 2005, p. 117; Dubofsky & Dulles, 1999).

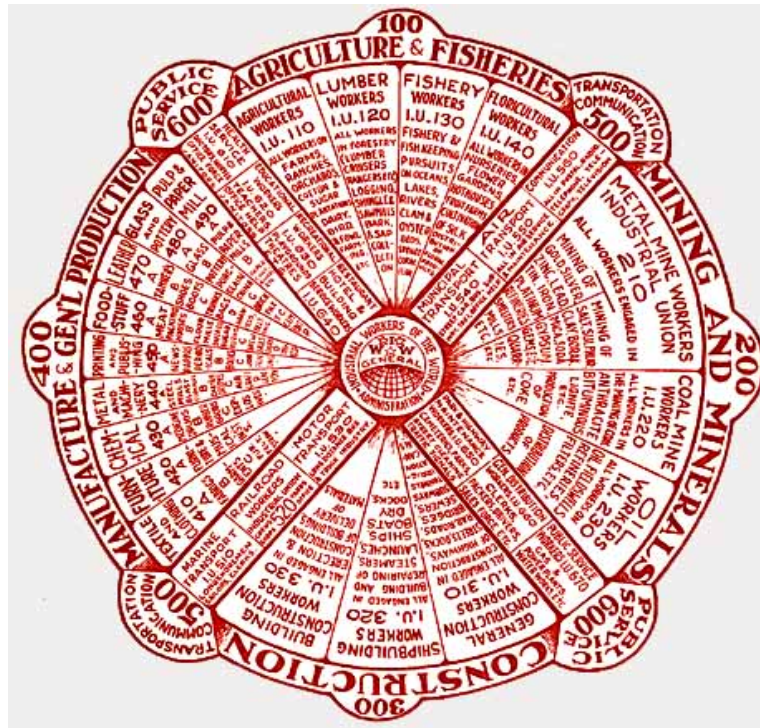
The IWW’s radical views and tactics made the employers hostile, and strengthened their aim at combating union organization as best it could. The IWW “convention of 1924 is usually taken as the official end of the IWW, with the group splitting in half and one side suing the other regarding the rights to the remaining property, (Wright, 2003. p. 49). However, some remnants of the IWW remained and “became ever more anarchistic and even as late as World War II they remained on the ‘subversive’ list” (Wright, 2003. p. 49).

The IWW is still in existence today with its U.S. headquarters in Philadelphia, PA., and other locations in the United Kingdom and Australia. The following graphic, known as Father Haggerty’s Wheel, symbolizes the IWW’s structural industrial union organization program, with its six departments: Agriculture and Fisheries, Mining and Minerals, General Construction, Manufacture and General Production, Transportation and Communication, and Public Service (Industrial, 2005). Three other industrial unions have been added since 1950, and they are the Data Storage and Retrieval Workers; the Household Service Workers; and the Six Trade Workers Industrial Union.

The One Big Union Structure

of the

INDUSTRIAL WORKERS of the WORLD



"A labor organization to correctly represent the working class must have two things in view:

- **First** - It must combine the wageworkers in such a way that it can most successfully fight the battles and protect the interests of the working class in their struggle for shorter hours, more wages, and better job conditions.
- **Second** - It must offer a final solution of the labor problem: an emancipation from strikes, jail, and scabbing.

Study the chart and observe how this organization provides the means for control of shop affairs, provides perfect industrial unionism, and converges the strengths of all organized workers to a common center, from which any weak point can be strengthened and protected."

--from an IWW leaflet published ca. 1950s

Shortly after WWI, the AFL had some 24 different trade and industrial unions within its ranks. When the steelworkers “went on strike for union recognition and the eight-hour day (instead of the existing 12),” the strike eventually failed in part because of the attempt to organize the industry along craft/trade union lines (Budd, 2005, p. 124). It was not until the end of the 1930’s that the steel industry would unionize, and then it was as an industrial union typifying the slogan of “one shop, one union” (Carrell, 2005, p. 121). With the passage of President Roosevelt’s “New Deal” with the National Industrial Recovery Act (1933), and the Wagner Act (1935), [see Appendix A, American Laws for references to all Acts], the industrial union movement got a needed boost that strengthened its ranks. According to Rayback, the programs passed during Roosevelt’s first administration, “fostered an equally important byproduct: it helped create a new labor organization – the Committee for Industrial Organization” (Rayback, 1967, p. 346). Even today in the 21st Century, there still exist union organizations that follow the philosophy of *industrial unionism*.

The theory and philosophy behind *business unionism*, is that it accepts capitalism and its premise that the employer needs to make a profit, however, it also wants labor to receive its fair share of the profits through collective bargaining. Though business unionism would like to see both employers and employees happy, it still believes that the best weapon to make collective bargaining effective is the strike, (Budd, 2005). “The mainstream of the American labor movement consists of what are generally referred to as *business unions*” (Wright, 2003, p. 72). U. S. unions, especially the AFL, have traditionally had a business unionism philosophy with a pragmatic focus on workplace issues such as wages, benefits, and work rules (Budd, 2005, p. 71; Hoxie, 1917).

To sum up the fundamental differences in the philosophies of unionism, the craft or trade unions represented a more “conservative business unionism philosophy”, and the industrial unions were more representative of aggressive and “militant alternatives” within the overall labor movement (Budd, 2005, p. 112; Salvatore, 1982).

The Craftsman and the Beginning of a Union

Eighteenth-century America was mostly agrarian, that is a land of agricultural farming. The craftsmen (artisans) were a rapidly growing segment of skilled individuals. By 1760, nearly forty-percent of these skilled craftsmen were considered masters of their trade, and they represented the upper end of wealth in society, (Meyerson, 2005). “The earliest labor organizations were guilds in which both merchants and accomplished craftsmen (journeymen) met to discuss the apprenticeship rules regulating entry into the craft and to establish common prices and quality standards for the goods produced” (Martin, 1977, p.7; Divine, 1980, p. 21). During the later part of the 1700’s more and more journeymen societies composed of mostly skilled workers began to form strong associations. Most of these associations were in the major cities along the eastern coast, such as Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. These journeymen societies, made-up of “furniture makers, hatters, shoemakers (cordwainers), carpenters, and printers, were among those organized in real trade unions” for the purpose of improving “their bargaining position against masters” (Nicholson, 2004, p. 47). Many of these associations did not last too long thanks to the political clout of businessmen and their judicial friends.

During the latter part of the 1700's "skilled artisans in handcrafted and domestic industry joined together in benevolent societies, primarily to provide members and their families with financial assistance in the event of serious illness, debt, or death of the wage earner. Although these early associations had few characteristics of present-day labor unions, they did bring workers together to consider problems of mutual concern and to devise ways and means for their solution" (U. S. Department of Labor, 1976, p. 1; Divine, 1980, p. 20).

Being a relatively new country, growing business interests and those of employees were also new to government organizations and neither the Federal Constitution nor any State Constitutions addressed the issue of trade unions, collective bargaining, or strikes, which at that time were more commonly referred to as "turn-outs" (Nicholson, 2004, p. 47). The very first court case to deal with a trade union was *Commonwealth v. Pulus*, which was an action against cordwainers (boot/shoemakers), heard in 1806 in the mayor's court of Philadelphia. In this case, the judge had to decide if common law, which prohibited workers from combining for purposes of forming a union or negotiating a better wage, and which was not in force after America gained its independence from England, would be used in order to uphold the plaintiff's cause of action. Arguing that the "spirit of the revolution" and that the ability to strike for betterment was the right of men, the defense sought to have the case dismissed. However, the judge, in siding with common law and the Federalist view that contracts must be upheld, disagreed with the defense and ruled against it by going so far as to state that any act of association would be a criminal offense. This ruling became the precedence followed in many cities, state and some federal courts for nearly four

decades, citing that any formation of a trade union, or that of employees combining to strike, would be deemed a criminal action. This was also based on the premise that “law and the courts are the defenders of property and the owners of that property” (Nicholson, 2004, p. 76).

Although some historians write that the first permanent union in America was formed by the shoemakers in Philadelphia in 1768, the majority of them believe that it was the Mechanics’ Union of Trade Associations, created in 1827 in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, that marked the beginning of the labor movement in America (Estey, 1967, Rubin, 1943). The progress of the labor movement was slow and difficult. Many union members had to take whatever job they could find at little pay because jobs were so hard to come by. Many union associations were too weak in organization, strategy, and tactics to develop and increase a strong membership to stay the course.

Since labor’s inception in 1827, many gains related to craftsmen skills, wages and other benefits were made, and a better working environment progressed, though slowly. By the 1850’s, the railroad system had increased the potential for interstate commerce, and goods were now being shipped from city to city and state to state. Hotels and restaurants, like “Fred Harvey’s famous chain that fed railroad passengers along the Santa Fe system,” began to open their doors along these rail routes (Cobble, 1991, p. 20). During this period, employment opportunities grew, employees began to form local unions, and without warning, there was a demand for national labor unions.

The most active group of workers to seek the formation of local unions as well as a national union was the typographers. This group of workers had formed associations in four cities within the New England area throughout the 1840’s (Wright, 2003; Rayback,

1961). Members of these groups got together and decided to hold a convention in hopes of uniting the groups that existed in the various cities. In December of 1850, the typographers held the first union convention in America in New York with representatives from six cities, and received communications from groups in five other cities. The success of the convention, and the “call for the formation of local unions everywhere” led the conventioners to hold a second convention in 1851 (Wright, 2003, p. 17). This later convention led to the formation of the International Typographical Union being established on a national basis in 1852, with local affiliates in Boston, NY, Albany, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, and New Orleans (Rayback, 1961). This was the beginning of the formation of national labor unions throughout the United States (see Appendix B, Chart 1).

Unfortunately, in 1857 with the advent of the election of Abraham Lincoln and the fear of a civil war looming over the Nation, all of the small union organizations and some weak national associations began to disappear (Rubin, 1943). Many of these local union organizations that did disappear was because they were too weak to sustain the declining economy that resulted from the long war, and also because many locals were too specialized with regard to membership, meaning that “they did not include all of the workers in a trade” (Divine, 1980, p. 20). Those that survived did so because of the collaboration and combining of smaller local and national organizations within the same craft. This conjoining of forces was the advent of the development of national unions with a stronger foothold in the trades.

In an attempt to maintain a livelihood, many craftsmen began to find work in factories that were beginning to rise up in the northern territories during the Industrial

Revolution. This growth of industries brought about an increase in trade, prices, and overall competition, “which produced pressures to reduce product quality. During this period the separation of the producer and the customer became more pronounced” (Divine, 1980, p. 21). These added pressures forced the manufacturers to increase production, at times forsaking craftsmanship, i.e. quality. With the advent of factories and the development of mass production, the craftsmen working in these plants began to specialize their craft by creating only certain parts of a product, i.e. “the development of specialization of labor whereby individuals now only made part of a product rather than the whole” [product] (Divine, 1980, p. 21).

“Advances in water-and later steam-powered machinery helped spur industrialization” (Budd, 2005, p. 97). With the growth of assembly line production, the multifaceted and skilled craftsman was now being forced to concentrate his skills on one single aspect of a large crafted job. In the 1890’s, Frederick Taylor spent time conducting time and motion studies which “were used to reduce jobs into their most basic components, stopwatches were used to calculate the optimal time required for each task, and instruction cards listed each specific operation – sometimes to the fraction of a second” (Budd, 2005, p. 362). By having the craftsmen do specialty production work or piecemeal work as it was later referred to, the factory owners realized that they could cut the timing-fat from production and make production more efficient. For the workers this new attitude often meant a disregard for their well-being. This blatant lack of respect was evident in the terrible working conditions and the demand for workers to maintain long working hours to get more work done. It became obvious to many workers that they were not being cared for and were being used for their skills, and therefore they needed

some form of representation. They were in need of a way in which to establish rules and working conditions that would be followed in order to protect their well-being (Estey, 1967). The concern of the workers did not go unnoticed by the employers either. The concerns of workers and that of employers resulted in the establishment of both human resource management policies and departments (see Appendix B, Chart 2), as well as local union organizations.

The National Labor Union

In the ironworking industry, the atrocious conditions that existed led to the formation of the National Molders Union in 1859. By 1863, the Iron Molders Union, the Union of American Miners, and the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers had all formed independent national union organizations (Wright, 2003). With more unions starting to form across America, it was becoming evident that a national labor federation was needed to represent all unions. “In 1866, 77 delegates from various local organizations attended the first National Labor Congress held in Baltimore, Maryland...that resulted in the formation of the National Labor Union” (NLU), (Carrell, 2005, p. 5). One of the strengths of this organization was that it opened its membership to both skilled and unskilled laborers. Through this new federation, there came an outcry for more local unions to be formed nationwide. This was also a time of reform, and activist like Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony were fighting for women’s suffrage, along with farmers and religious people who fought for their causes (Carrell, 2005).

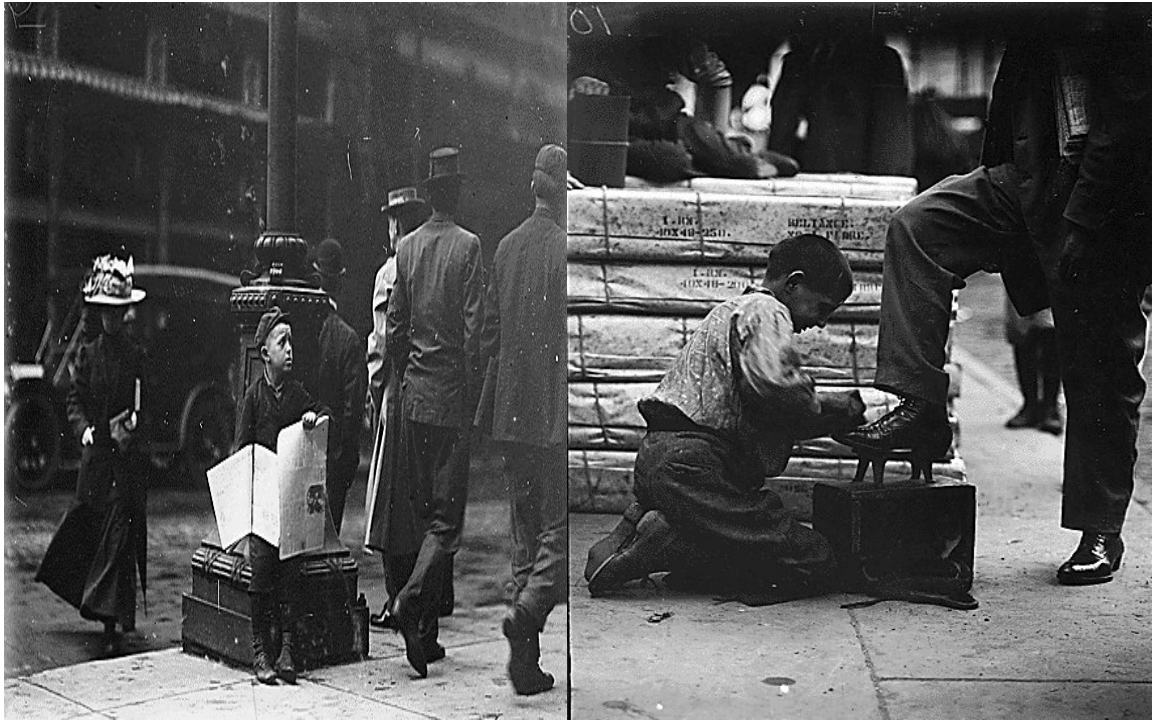
From the NLU came a group of individuals that fought through political activity to stymie the union movement, argued for currency and banking changes, restrictions on immigrant workers, an eight-hour workday, the abolishment of convict labor, and a national labor political party. This was the first step in mandating regulations to standardize employment conditions in the workplace. This union organization supported the movement for women and a women's union, along with the organizing of African Americans, though not within the National Labor Union. However, it did help in the organization of the National Colored Labor Union, and eventually it fought to have the federal government establish a Department of Labor (Budd, 2005; Carrell, 2005).

The adult worker was not the only human being used by the corporate world, but children were also facing the same problems as the adult workers. Many children had to work in order to help support their family. With the influx of immigrants into the United States, the child labor problem only worsened. Many immigrants could not find work; however, they discovered that by sending their young sons and daughters into the work force, many were able to find jobs. Some children as young as six and seven worked as scavenging picking through the trash for salable items that were sold to peddlers or neighbors (Shahrokhi, 1996). Older girls worked in factories and mills, especially in the textile industry as ravelers and loopers (Budd, 2005). "Girls were spinners that spun cotton into yarn on large spinning frames for nine or more hours a day, perhaps six days a week" (Budd, 2005, p. 111)



Picture retrieved from <http://www.historyplace.com/unitedstates/childlabor/london.jpg>

Many of the young boys worked selling newspapers, sweeping streets, picking produce and cotton as did young “Norris Luvitt, who had been picking 3 years in berry fields near Baltimore,” or as “a Bowery bootblack in New York” shining shoes for a penny (History, 1998).



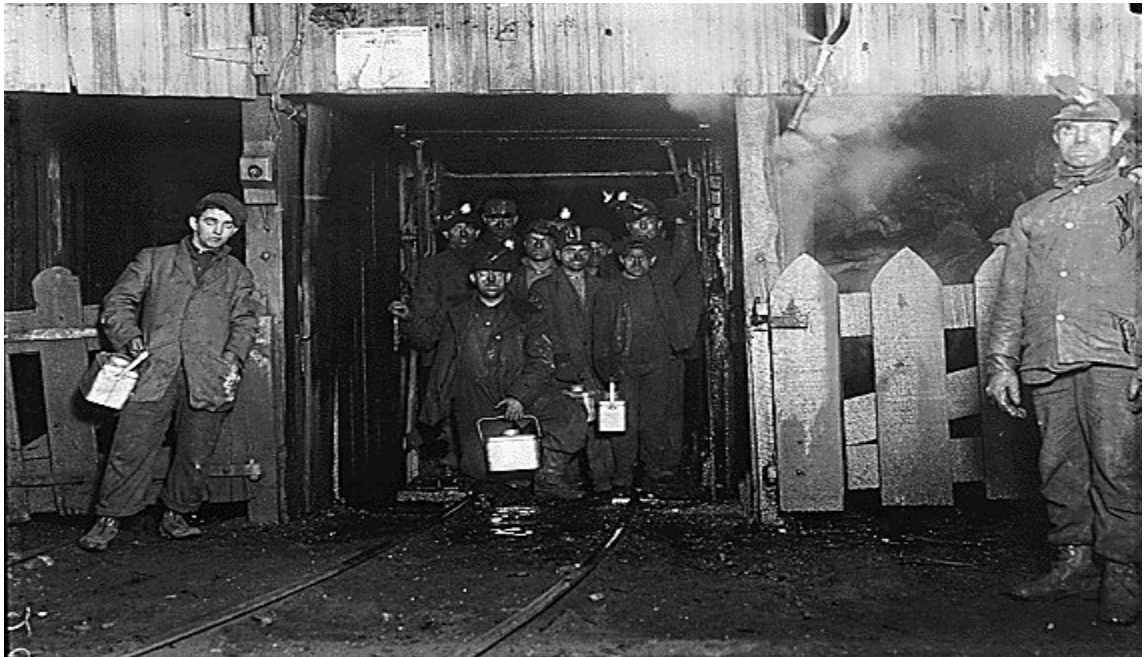
Pictures retrieved from <http://www.historyplace.com/unitedstates/childlabor/london.jpg>

One of the worse jobs for the young boys was working in the coalmines were the ages of the boys ranged from eight to sixteen years old, (see pictures below). “Breakers

boys worked 9 or 10 hours per day hunched over fast-moving conveyors of coal picking out rocks from the coal and breathing in thick coal dust” (Budd, 2005, p. 111).



Pictures retrieved from <http://www.historyplace.com/unitedstates/childlabor/dust.jpg>



Pictures retrieved from <http://www.historyplace.com/unitedstates/childlabor/cage.jpg>.

The first time the government reported child labor statistics was in 1870 at which time it was estimated that there were 750,000 child laborers under the age of 15, excluding children who worked at family owned farms and enterprises (Shahrokhi, 1996). In 1888, the State of Illinois was the only state at that time to pass a bill “prohibiting the employment of children younger than fourteen and appointing women as factory inspectors” (Buhle, 1999, p. 55). This bill was passed essentially because “the Illinois Women’s Alliance, middle-class reformers and socialists of Chicago, vigorously conducted a campaign of investigation into factory conditions and the use of child labor” (Buhle, 1999, p. 54). Unfortunately, the National Labor Union did little to protect the children in the labor force. It was not until 1904 when the National Child Labor Committee was formed by several social workers campaigning for the reform of the working conditions suffered by the child labor force (Shahrokhi, 1996).

(NOTE: “The History Place: Child Labor in America 1908 – 1912, Photographs of Lewis W. Hine,” displays the pictures as shown above, and many others that depict child labor in early 20th century America, and can be viewed at and was retrieved from the Internet at <http://www.historyplace.com/unitedstates/childlabor/index.html>).

The NLU organization grew into a national political party in 1872 known as the National Labor Reform Party; however, their nominee for the presidency dropped out of the race, and that ended the run of the so-called reform party and the NLU. By 1873, the labor movement began to weaken. Disorganization set in, several of the union associations had gotten in trouble with the legal authorities and now had criminal records and a bad reputation within society, (Rayback, 1961). From 1873 to 1878, there was a long and devastating depression and it had such an economic impact that many unions

could not survive. However, the Noble and Holy Order of the Knights of Labor, formed in 1869, was one union that survived the depression. The Knights of Labor started in the garment industry in Philadelphia, and gradually expanded into other industries, and “grew into prominence between the Railway Strike of 1877 and the Haymarket Square Riot of 1886” (Carrell, 2005, p. 8). The KoL was the survivor of a small union that was blacklisted by big industry, and became ineffective during the recession from 1866 to 1868. Upon its reformation in 1869 under the leadership of Uriah Stephens, the organization discovered that its downfall was a result of being too well known, and “its members were too readily liable to discharge” (Rayback, 1961, p. 143). Realizing its past mistakes, the KoL stressed secrecy to prevent employers’ spies from attacking its members and to ward off the discriminatory tactics of employers, thus secret passwords and secret response statements were used by the membership (Budd, 2005; Rayback, 1961). However, “the secrecy of the organization both limited its growth and brought it under suspicion” (Carrell, 2005, p. 9).

The KoL is credited with the philosophy of “Uplift Unionism” in which a union “aspires chiefly to elevate the moral, intellectual, and social life of the worker” (Hoxie, 1917, p. 47; Budd, 2005). The purpose of the KoL was to join capitalism (employers) with labor (workers) into a cooperative that would be operated by the producers. Its’ goal was to restore work to its noble purpose of serving the personal and psychological needs of the labor force, as well as serving The Almighty. In order to achieve this, the organization believed that it would have to bring about economic reform through education of employers and employees (Budd, 2005).

The KoL wanted to represent the producers of goods, that is, the workers and employers, and not the financiers. In spite of the fact that it had an open door policy for membership, its' idealistic and moral stance forced the organization to restrict its membership whereby "no person who either sells or makes his living by the sale of intoxicating drink or can be admitted, and no lawyer, doctor or banker, [not even stockbrokers or gamblers] can be admitted" (Commons, 1918, p. 337-338; Nicholson, 2004, p. 113; Budd, 2005; Wheeler, 2002).

Even though the Knights of Labor was a national trade union, open to all professional and non-professional workers, its main concern "was the moral worth rather than material wealth of a person" (Budd, 2005, p. 102; Taft, 1964). This philosophy is in direct contrast to that of the AFL and its unions whose emphasis is on business unionism and the "immediate improvements in basic employment conditions – wages, hours, and working conditions" (Budd, 2005, p. 106).

The Knights of Labor rose to national prominence having great power and influence throughout the 1870's and into the early 1880's. Probably its greatest success was from 1884-1885 in calling for strikes, and then being able to negotiate a settlement within one or two days, against the Union Pacific Railroad, the Southwest System of Railroads and the Wabash Railroad, Missouri-Kansas and Texas, and the Missouri Pacific, the last three being owned by Jay Gould a very powerful financier of the time. However, within the strike negotiations of the railroad systems owned by Gould, the KoL also made its biggest mistake by not collectively bargaining for all workers and not demanding that it be recognized as the only representative for the union member employees, (Budd, 2005; Carrell, 2005; Nicholson, 2004; Rayback, 1961).

Because of its success in negotiating the railroad strike, the membership of the KoL grew from 110,000 in 1885 to a whopping 700,000 loyal individuals by 1886 (Budd, 2005; Wright, 2003; Estey, 1967; Norman, 1929). Also in 1886, the famous Haymarket Square Riot took place in Chicago where several strikers and police were killed and injured by a bomb and gunfire. What started out as a peaceful demonstration in support of workers demanding an eight-hour day, ended two days later with a major riot. When the dust settled from this riot, eight men labeled as anarchist were tried and found guilty, not for the bombing, but as conspirators, whose work related beliefs were not inline with the accepted ideals of society and big business.

Ironically, the Knights of Labor had little if any to do with the Haymarket Square Riot; however, having gained much notoriety from the railroad strikes, they were indirectly implicated with the strikers in Chicago and this resulted in the beginning of the decline of the organization (Budd, 2005; Carrell, 2005; Nicholson, 2004; Wright, 2003; Estey, 1967; Rayback, 1961). Though the KoL had an open membership to all non-professional and professional workers, the stigma and public backlash associated with the Haymaker tragedy could not be reversed. Instead of focusing on the “bread and butter issues: wages, hours of work, and working conditions,” as desired by the workers and trade assemblies, the KoL continued to focus on its open door policy to increase membership and regain a foothold as a leading union organization (Budd, 2005, p. 105). Unfortunately, this policy and a few other issues eventually contributed to bringing about the downfall of the Knights of Labor.

By the end of the 1880’s the KoL all but disappeared from the labor scene. Within four years from the time it reached its pinnacle of success with some 700,000

members in 1886 to its near collapse in 1890 with only 100,000 members remaining, the KoL “had been a true meteor on the labor horizon—a brilliant flash that burned out (Estey, 1967, p. 15). At the start of the 1890’s the KoL formed an affiliation with the Populist Party, expanding its membership to 200,000. However, the Populist Party was more politically oriented and after suffering defeats in the 1892 and 1896 elections, it and the KoL began their rapid decline. Though it struggled to gain back its prominence during the 1890’s, the KoL eventually faded away. By the end of the eighteen nineties, the KoL had totally dissolved with most of its members, some 25 unions, going to the AFL and its business unionism philosophy (Budd, 2005; Carrell, 2005; Nicholson, 2004; Estey, 1967; Rayback, 1961).

Samuel Gompers and the Beginning of the American Federation of Labor (AFL)

Samuel Gompers was the leader of the International Cigarmakers Union, a small union that was chartered within the Knights of Labor. By mid-1886, the KoL began to face many internal struggles, coming from unhappy local assemblies, union chapters, and arbitrary leadership decisions (Josephson, 1956). Toward the end of 1886, the decline of the Knights of Labor had set in. The KoL had always been an advocate for all trades and all workers, so in an attempt to boost its declining membership, the organization’s leadership moved to admit as many unskilled craftsmen as possible. In its attempted move to survive, the KoL chartered a second cigar making company into the union. This chartering of a second cigar company brought about a strong objection and outcries from Samuel Gompers and his union associate Adolph Strasser. Both Gompers and Strasser, who at one time were both loyal members of the KoL, had now become more “scornful

of associating with unskilled factory workers” (Nicholson, 2004, p. 114). This action was the proverbial “straw that broke the camels back” that led Gompers, along with his friend Peter C. McGuire, then president of the Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, to meet with the leaders of other craft unions in the planning of a new national craft labor union. Gompers and McGuire were the “leading exponents of craft unionism” and the “pure and simple” trade union movement, and decided in December of 1886 to create a new labor federation known as the “American Federation of Labor” (Budd, 2005; Carrell, 2005; Josephson, 1956).

Gompers was highly respected by his fellow craftsmen because of his ideology regarding crafts unionism vs. the KoL’s open union membership practice of welcoming all crafts, as well as minorities and women. He was the first president of the AFL and is recognized by many authors and historians as the leader in forming the U.S. labor relations system that exists today. This system recognizes an individual as a union representative who has authority to bargain with employers on behalf of the employee, offering labor (work) in exchange for money (wages) and a peaceful working environment (Budd, 2005; Carrell, 2005; Estey, 1967; Josephson, 1956).

Believing that the open member policy of the Knights of Labor was one of the reasons for its demise, the AFL strongly focused on skilled crafts and workers, and was hostile toward unskilled labor, as well as ignoring minorities, and women (Budd, 2005). The AFL was the first labor union to accomplish stability despite economic conditions. A reason for this accomplishment was that the AFL and its affiliated unions were stronger as individual skilled craft union organizations united within one federated union. Its predecessor the KoL, grew relatively quickly, and had too many members of different

skills, gender, and ethnic background that lost jobs during the economic recessions that resulted in the KoL losing members. According to Estey, there were two basic policies or formulas that Gompers strongly expressed to his AFL administration and affiliate representatives, and those policies were: 1) “that the national unions which belonged to the AFL were to be guaranteed ‘trade autonomy’”; and 2) “that they were to be afforded ‘exclusive jurisdiction’ over their particular craft or occupation,” meaning that there would be only one union per craft (Estey, 1967, p. 17). Inclusive of these two aspects of Gompers’ managerial formula, his overall managerial policy “was adhered to with little variation until the rise of the CIO forced a change....” (Estey, 1967, p. 17). Even after the CIO split from the AFL, these policies were followed for nearly 70 years until the uniting of the AFL and CIO in 1955.

This promise of “trade autonomy” in non-technical language meant that decision-making would be decentralized, giving the power to the members at the various national union locations. This issue of trade autonomy was extremely important to the various national unions because it rested the power to collectively bargain in the hands of the individual members who were “best equipped by knowledge and experience to know the problems involved....” (Estey, 1967, p. 18). This business theory was the total opposite of the Knights of Labor whose centralized leadership did all the thinking and talking for the members. Gompers’ policy for trade autonomy meant that the local officers of the union and the occupation or trade workers, rather than some general officer from the Federation offices in Washington, would be chosen as the proper representatives to speak on behalf of the workers at the bargaining table (Estey, 1967).

Those who work, live, play and raise families in the area would have the strongest voice in the collective bargaining agreement process with which to present their and their fellow workers' problems or grievances. This policy not only strengthened the local union organizations, but also directly reflected on the AFL, thereby making it stronger and giving it lasting power, which none of its predecessors had ever enjoyed. This strength and power was evident in the AFL's ability to keep its national organization together for a seventy-year run, until it merged with the CIO in 1955, despite many economic troubles (Nicholson, 2004; Wright, 2003; Estey, 1967).

John L. Lewis and the Committee for Industrial Organization (CIO)

“The AFL [and its policy of craft unionism] would rule the world of organized labor until the CIO was torn from its ranks in 1938” (Wright, 2003, p. 27). The CIO was representative of industrial unionism, however, the New England Association of Farmers, Mechanics and Other Workmen, which was formed in 1831, was considered the forerunner of Industrial Unionism nearly a century before the formation of the CIO.

John Lewis was the president and leader of the coal miners union, the United Mine Workers of America. In 1935, the AFL held its annual convention in Atlantic City where the long-standing policy of craft unionism faced a challenge by supporters of industrial unionism whose membership had grown considerably thanks to the Wagner Act. The leaders of the industrial unions within the AFL “contended that the old craft union was outdated, they urged that the new accessions to labor that form the mass-producing industries be organized into industrial unions” (Rayback, 1967, p. 347). At this convention, a vote to create an industrial committee within the AFL was voted down.

This did not stop Lewis, who in November of 1935 held a meeting “in Washington with eight unions in attendance to form a committee for industrial organization (CIO) within the existing AFL framework” (Wright, 2003, p. 54).

At the 1935 convention, the delegates and conventioners had openly discussed and seemed to have settled on the fact that the members were in favor of craft unionism, and the industrial unions should not be a separate committee (Wright, 2005; Estey, 1967). Toward the end of the convention, the issue of industrial unions, with regard to the rubber industry, rose again. At this time, a discussion over craft unionism vs. industrial unionism came to a heated confrontation between “Big Bill” Hutcheson, President of the Carpenters Union and a strong advocate of craft unionism, and John Lewis. After an exchange of dialog where tempers began to rise, Lewis referred to the mashing of Hutcheson and then struck him resulting in an entanglement that ended on the floor. This was an impetus to the beginning of the division of the AFL and CIO that would last for twenty years (Estey, 1967).

Subsequent to the July convention, the then AFL President William Green wrote a letter voicing his misgivings about forming an industrial committee even if it was within the AFL. This letter and the overall views of the AFL toward industrial unionism prompted Lewis to resign as vice-president of the AFL. However, Lewis was still the president of the United Miners Union, which at that time was the largest and most power union within the AFL. According to Wright, this effectively was “the day the AFL and CIO split for all intents and purposes” (Wright, 2003, p. 54).

“Lewis had tried to keep the door open for a reconciliation with the AFL until June, when he set up the Steel Workers Organizing Committee (SWOC) under the

leadership of his popular and charismatic UMWA vice president, Philip Murray. That step brought the AFL to the breaking point” (Nicholson, 2004, p. 217). Because of Lewis’ continued position on the CIO, and his arguing with Hutcheson, the administrative body of the AFL, its Executive Council, called Lewis to a meeting in September of 1936 to challenge him with the “charges of ignoring the decision of the convention and, worse, of committing the capital offense of dual unionism” (Estey, 1967, p. 22). Lewis did not attend this meeting, and he and his followers, who now represented 12 large unions, decided to ignore the order to disband the CIO based on the premise the AFL did not have the legal authority to force the CIO to disband (Wright, 2003).

In November of 1936 the AFL convention members voted to suspend the CIO, but also formed a committee with which to investigate the CIO and negotiate an agreeable solution between all the parties involved. Discussions and meetings continued for nearly one year until the November 1937 convention when the delegates gave the Executive Council the “full power to revoke the charters of the CIO unions” (Wright, 2003, p. 55).

For some time, the auto workers in the automotive industry, along with the rubber workers, truckers (Teamsters) and others were not pleased with the conservative practices of the AFL, and wanted to be organized as industrial unions (Wright, 2003). In February of 1937 General Motors Corporation, who was the largest of the three automakers of the time, signed an agreement to recognize the United Auto Workers Union (UAW) as the bargaining agent for the autoworkers in order to end a two-month long strike (Budd,

2005; Wright, 2003). Shortly after the strike ended, Lewis was able to negotiate membership terms with the members of the United Auto Workers Union. In March, Lewis was able to negotiate a similar agreement with the United States Steel Corporation.

The UAW had been disillusioned with the management of the AFL going back to 1936 when it decided to begin to support the CIO. The CIO, with the use of grants and other monies helped to establish the U.S. Steel workers. With these two unions now on board, and with the help of the Wagner Act that increased the work force and the number of potential members, the CIO now had twenty-two (22) unions as members the CIO. By the end of 1937, the CIO had officially left the AFL and in 1938 changed its name from the Committee for Industrial Organization to the Congress for Industrial Organization. However, the eventual loss of members, the public's negative attitude toward the CIO, and other aspects within the organization led it to accept the ideology of the AFL, and eventually in 1955 the two union federations merged as the AFL-CIO (Budd, 2005; Carrell, 2005; Nicholson, 2004; Wright, 2003; Estey, 1967).

Is History Repeating Itself? Dissention within the AFL–CIO!

Unionization in the United States has mainly consisted of the struggle between employees (laborers/workers) and the employers (corporate/property owners). The balance between the efficiency that the employers strive for in order to maximize their profits and output, and the equitable distribution of profits between employers and employees that the unions want for the employees still needs to be achieved. Employees

and the union believed that the best way for achieving this balance was through the presence of a voice for the employees that allows for their needs and concerns to be heard and addressed by the employers.

With the creation of personnel management policies within the corporate structure came the development of “welfare capitalism.” According to Budd, “welfare capitalism sought to win worker loyalty and increase efficiency by improving supervisory practices, implementing orderly hiring and firing procedures, providing wage incentives, offering protective insurance benefits, creating a positive culture, improving the physical work environment and safety, and providing employee voice’ (Budd, 2005, p. 121; Bernstein, I, 1960). According to Budd, you can either view welfare capitalism as a “managerial strategy to control the workplace and prevent unionization, or the beginning of today’s strategic human resource management...” (Budd, 2005, p. 121; Kaufman, 2000). However, one might view this, “the most controversial aspect of welfare capitalism – then and now – was the attempt to provide employee voice...” (Budd, 2005, p. 121). The problem was that few employees felt the need – then and now – to provide their employees with the means by which to be heard, (Tillman, 1999). Consequently, unions were formed as a means of employee representation and providing a voice.

Unfortunately, many union leaders have felt that the employees they represent were not capable of formulating the decisions necessary for the advancement of the employee in the contemporary workplace (Tillman, 1999). This seemingly pompous attitude is one reason why many employees have no longer been inclined to allow unions the right to speak on their behalf, and for the decline in union membership nationwide. Since the peak of unionization after World War II, union membership has been on a

downward trend in the United States. Information obtained from the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics states that "since 1955 [to approximately 1975] the percentage of unionized employees in industry in the United States had declined more than 20 percent" (Witzy, 1975, p. 11).

Besides the issue of voice, the decline in membership can also be blamed on the changes that have occurred in the legal and political arenas on behalf of the labor force, as well as societal values and the economic environment. Due to society's changing perspective regarding the contemporary laborer, and "the growing educational sophistication of the work force," many employment laws have been implemented in order to regulate the workplace environment (Witzy, 1975, p. 11; Western, 1997). As a result of the many legal changes in the workplace, the contemporary worker is guaranteed basic standards of employment rights, and their employers are also becoming more aware of the need for these rights, and the overall needs of their employees (Western, 1997).

In 1935, John Lewis organized the mass-production workers of the auto industry and the steel industry. Workers in these two industries, as well as workers who represented other industries were not happy with the conservative policies of the AFL. Though Lewis' main objection with the AFL was the difference between *craft unionism* and *industrial unionism*, he also believed that the AFL needed "to recognize political action as a legitimate means of advancing labor's aims..." to organize to fight "company unionism" and "technological unemployment," and to stop the "decline in an alarming manner" the memberships within the Federal unions (Rayback, 1967, p. 347). Even though these are just some of the factors that led to the split between the AFL and CIO,

they are also reflective of the attitudes of union members within the growing industrial movement and their support for change within the AFL.

In the early 21st Century, many blue-collar workers are still members of organized labor, but their numbers have dropped considerably. However, the masses of white-collar workers in the private sector, and even those in government jobs in the public sector, have not experienced the same decline as the blue-collar workers and therefore have more organized union workers. The membership within the rank-and-file of the unions has been dropping to the dismay and displeasure of many larger unions within the AFL-CIO. Thus, once again, there has been conflict within the AFL-CIO, and once again, the conflict centers on the conservative actions of the leaders, and the decline of membership. Because of this conflict, at least five unions had threatened to disaffiliate their organizations from the AFL-CIO.

According to the U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics, in 2004, 12.5 percent of wage and salary workers were union members, down from 12.9 percent in 2003 (U. S. Department, 2005, January, 27). The union membership rate has steadily declined from a high of 20.1 percent in 1983, the first year for which comparable union data are available" (U.S. Department of Labor, 2004). In a recent article reported in Business Week, it was estimated that "union membership had continued to sink and now represents less than 10% of the private sector workforce" (Bernstein, A., 2005, May 30).

The hospitality employees and restaurant employees union was one of the five unions that threatened to split from the AFL-CIO. The HERE union is one of the feistiest organizers which "has long sought the holy grail of collective bargaining – simultaneous sessions around the country, rather than several locals one year and more the next"

(Front, 2004). With major hotel contracts expiring in 2006 in Boston, Chicago and New York, HERE President John Wilhelm has sought to align contracts in the largest U.S. cities. Having collective bargaining agreements ending at large hotels and hotel chain properties within several major cities at the same time would give HERE a considerably amount of clout in the negotiation process.

A couple of problems that had faced HERE was its lack of available resources with which to fight corporate America in order to increase its membership, and to be able to organize hotel contract terms and length of contracts on a nationwide basis. HERE members pay one of the lowest dues per annum of any of the unions (personal communication with M. Cifaldi, July 2005). In order to gain financial stability, HERE agreed to join forces and merge with UNITE, the Garment and Textile Workers Union who will also benefit from the hard-driving technique used by HERE in organizing its members and increasing its membership. UNITE has suffered from a decline in membership due in part to the exporting of textile manufacturing jobs overseas (Front, 2004). At the July 2005 convention, the 110,000 UNITE members, along with the 330,000 HERE members overwhelmingly voted to merge the two unions. Thus, UNITE-HERE was formed with 440,000 active members and 400,000 retired members in North America (UNITE-HERE, 2004).

The Splitting of the AFL-CIO in the 21st Century

As early as the summer of 2003 the leaders of five major unions, Andy Stern of the Service Employees International (SEIU), Terrance O'Sullivan of the Laborers' Union, Bruce Raynor of UNITE, John W. Wilhelm of HERE, and Doug McCarron of the

Carpenters' Union, decided to form the "New Unity Partnership (NUP)." NUP's plan was to reorganize all of the AFL-CIO unions into 12 to 15 larger unions with jurisdictional lines, and to institute a "strategic growth plan" (Tait, 2005, p.207).

According to Andy Stern the President of SEIU, the purpose for forming the partnership "is to find joint campaigns where people work together about growth" (Moberg, 2004, p.1). Stern's idea was to target such organizations as real estate companies and others that may affect construction, hotel, and building service workers. Stern is quoted as saying, "the whole world has changed, and we're operating with structures created in 1955" when the AFL and CIO merged. "If we don't change, we're going to fail workers and not maximize the limited strength we have" (Moberg, 2004, p.1). According to Moberg, "these institutional realignments of unions are often interpreted as a challenge to the AFL-CIO" because some union leaders do not believe the AFL-CIO leadership has done enough to "boost organizing" (2004, p.1).

It has been fifty-years since the AFL and the CIO joined forces, to form the largest International Union Federation with a membership of 13 million members that is represented by 57 national unions. Unfortunately, on the eve of the federation's fiftieth anniversary, an internal struggle that centered on the reelection of AFL-CIO President John Sweeney and his conservative approach to increasing membership was at the heart of the conflict. Five major unions within the federation had threatened to leave the union if Sweeney was reelected at the national convention in July of 2005, and in a show of solidarity, the five unions agreed to boycott the AFL-CIO convention (Greenhouse, 2005, July 25). This coalition of unions was composed of the SEIU with 1.8 million members, the Teamsters and the United Food & Commercial Workers (UFCW) both of whom each

have 1.4 million members, the Laborers with its 800,000 members, and UNITE-HERE whose membership totaled 440,000. These unions contended that the platform for a “rebirth” of the union movement, which helped get Sweeney elected in 1995, had failed. Furthermore, they contended that “despite early bold moves on his part, union membership had continued to sink and now represents less than 10% of the private sector workforce” (Bernstein, 2005 May 30, p. 32). Though it might seem like the defection was just beginning, one might say it actually started in the summer of 2001 when the International Brotherhood of Carpenters pulled out of the AFL-CIO.

Change To Win Coalition

On Sunday, July 24, 2005, the leaders of the SEIU, Teamsters, and UFCW announced that they were withdrawing their union organizations from the AFL-CIO to form the Change To Win Coalition. On September 15, 2005, these three unions were joined by UNITE-HERE and its 440,000 members who officially withdrew from the AFL-CIO, leaving that International Federation with approximately 9 million members, down from 13 million. Not only had the AFL-CIO lost a little more than thirty percent of its membership, but also lost revenue that “all together, these unions had paid a total of \$29 million in annual dues to the AFL-CIO, which had a \$120 million budget” (Edsall, 2005, September 15, p. A05).

According to John W. Wilhelm, a co-president of UNITE-HERE, the purpose of the coalition was to focus on spending revenue on organizing campaigns and persuading immigrant workers to join unions. Wilhelm stated, “Unions are the only institution in 21st –century America that can reverse the decline of the standards of living of most

Americans. Immigrants are refueling the labor movement” (Edsall, 2005, September 15, p. A05). The Change To Win Coalition’s goal was to “stem the steady decline in the number of workers represented by labor organizations” which it said declined to 12.4 percent of all workers, and 7.9 percent of private-sector workers, (Edsall, 2005, September 15, p. A05).

Collective Bargaining and Unionism

All individuals have some idea of what their craftsmanship, knowledge, abilities, etc. are worth and as such want to be adequately paid for their services. In the 1600 and 1700’s most individuals were self employed farm owners, tavern keepers, blacksmiths, ranchers, tenants or were employed as hired hands. Very few people were employed by a master craftsman, and those individuals fortunate to be employed would individually negotiate an adequate wage with their employer based on their skills and work needed to be performed. With master craftsmen only employing one or two skilled or semi-skilled individuals, whose interest were aligned with the master, there was no mass-producing and piecemeal work of crafted materials, and therefore there were no large numbers of individuals who could gather to collectively bargain with their employer for anything.

Collective bargaining is “a way of setting the price of labor in the market....is the process by which unions share in making business decisions” at least those involving employment terms (Estey, 1967, p. 73). It was not until the very end of the 18th century that the first instance of collective bargaining, which “originated in the British labor movement,” took place (Carrell, 2004, p. 106). According to Rayback (1961) collective

bargaining began in the U.S. in 1799, however according to Carrell (2004) it began in 1792; in either case both agree that it began when a group of Philadelphia cordwainers formed a trade agreement with master shoemakers and whereby members of the organization agreed on a wage scale and assured employers that they would not have their members work for any other employer who did not pay the same amount (Rayback, 1961). Some of these wage scales were tied into the sale, i.e. market price, of the product that fluctuated with the constant unstable economy of the times. However, in return for a wage scale that guaranteed increases where and when appropriate, member organizations would agree not to strike.

According to Rayback, organized members did not stop with simple wage negotiations, but they also wanted employers to guarantee that they would not hire so-called scabs (non-association members). This was not acceptable to most employers and therefore such a demand was rejected during the negotiation process. However, in order to make their point and achieve their objective, most member organizations would institute a social boycott, since they agreed not to strike. According to Rayback (1961), what the members would do was refuse to work alongside of non-association members as was the issue in the *Commonwealth v. Hunt* case in 1842 when the Boston Journeymen Bootmakers Society refused to work alongside non-society members. Additionally, in several instances “association members even refused to live in the same boardinghouse or to eat at the same table with non-associates (Rayback, 1961, p. 55). This boycott type of impress was so effective that many coal miner organizations used them, especially since the greater majority of coal mine employees were required to live, eat and or shop in company towns and stores.

By the early 1800's turbulent economic and social changes were taking place in the business community throughout the newly formed states. What was considered large factories began to open, as commerce began to expand and change from small shops to greater production methods in the factories. During the 1800's the labor movement was faced with many challenges from politicians, big business, and their friends in the legal system. Though, Chief Justice Shaw of the Massachusetts Supreme Court had previously ruled that men could gather together in order to negotiate with their employer if it was to better serve their own interest, the court ordered injunctions from different judicial jurisdictions were continuing to be used to break striking workers and thus continued to derail any attempts at collective bargaining. Striking workers could easily be replaced with any number of unemployed individuals or immigrant workers looking to earn a day's wage, whatever that might be.

The general attitude of employers was very disheartening to most employees, especially since many of them had emigrated here from England where collective bargaining was the norm and many of these immigrants came to America expecting working conditions to be better. In England, as early as 1720, English builders had negotiated with their employers a six AM to six PM workday with two one-hour breaks for eating breakfast and dinner (Meyerson, 2005). This seems far ahead of what existed in the United States at that time. The influx of immigrants into the United States, some of whom had a working knowledge of unions and collective bargaining, brought many challenges to the labor movement both for and against employers and unions. This period, at the turn of the 18th and 19th centuries, was the actual beginning of collective bargaining for trade unions in general and labor parties with corporate industrialists and

their management teams. Many other organizations began to follow the path of bargaining that was successful for the cordwainers (Budd, 2005; Carrell, 2005).

Some immigrants formed work related social clubs and associations with other foreigners and newly acquainted American citizens alike. These newly formed friendships and camaraderie has brought to light many of the differences in working conditions in Europe and America, especially the concept of collective bargaining, which began the tide for change in the American workforce. By the 1800's employers tried to sway public opinion against collective bargaining (Budd, 2005). As more union organizations began to form, collective bargaining became a focus, and in many cases, the lack of it led to strikes. The legal system had not addressed such an issue yet, and the courts did not generally supportive of strikes or did they provide any industrial relations public policies. However, because of the enormous growth of immigrants in America, employers had a pool in which to choose from to replace displaced workers.

Twentieth and Twenty-first Century Bargaining

The 1900's brought new developments in the labor movement. Both world wars were good for labor and the collective bargaining process, in that workers were needed and wages increased as employers were required to increase production. The fine-tuning of the negotiation process began in 1920 with the development of personnel management departments, and through its expansion over the years into other corporate institutions came the formulation and implementation of personnel policies within the workforce.

When negotiating for better wages and benefits for their members, the union administrators realized that economic trends would affect their ability to negotiate

increases for their members, thus also affecting the unions' success in getting "More, now" through collective bargaining (Estey, 1967, p. 83). By the beginning of the twentieth century and shortly thereafter, certain individuals had amassed large amounts of capital in the United States and were thus able to consolidate control in several different industries. In fact, according to Budd, "the richest 1 percent of households controlled 45% of total U.S. wealth..." while many others in the country, especially the immigrants struggled to survive (Budd, 2005, p. 109; DeLong, 2002). The first few decades of the 20th Century saw the leaders' capitalism (Carnegie in the steel industry, Vanderbilt in transportation, Rockefeller in oil) exploit the labor force of Americans.

During this early part of the century, immigration into the United States was high, and most people were laborers who were very dependent on a wage for their existence. Wage and working conditions were set by the companies, and the workers had little power to fight against the company set policies. Not having the support of a union forced many of them to act individually, leaving them predisposed to working six and sometimes seven days per week with long hours in poor working conditions. The influence and power associated with the capitalists gave them the ability to enlist the aid of the government, the courts, and private security forces, like the Pinkerton agency, in order to help put down union organizing or strike attempt on the part of American workers. The public, activists and some government officials were slowly becoming aware of the poor working conditions and wage scales that were being forced upon the American worker. Sinclair Lewis who "was innovative for giving strong characterization to modern working women and his concern with race," and other writers made known the

horrible treatment of the workers at the hands of the employers, and made it clear that the workers were underprivileged (Wikipedia, 2005, p. 1; Wright, 1969).

With the election of President Franklin D. Roosevelt in 1932, the labor movement had hopes for a better future. With the implementation of the “New Deal” nearly 1.5 Billion Dollars was distributed to unemployed workers and needy families. This gesture, as supportive and helpful as it was, was not joyfully accepted by the AFL because it wanted the government to use money to create jobs that would allow the working man to maintain his respect and dignity. Hearing the concern of the AFL, Roosevelt advisers helped plan and implement two new agencies within the first term of Roosevelt’s presidency. The first was the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), which created jobs for nearly 250,000 between 18 and 25 years of age, working in forests, on roads, erecting dams, and other government assigned positions, (Rayback, 1961). This was not a solution; and unfortunately, the original solution, the National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933 was held to be unconstitutional. Notwithstanding this setback, the administration pushed for the “Emergency Railroad Transportation Act of June 1933, [which passed and] guaranteed railway workers the right of organization and collective bargaining and specifically recognized the regular railway unions as bargaining agents” (Rayback, 1961, p. 341). Since this Act only protected railway workers, it did nothing for the workers in other industries. With labor about to explode, AFL President William Green convinced a congressional committee that the passage of Senator Robert Wagner’s bill, which was originally vetoed in 1928 by then U.S. President Hoover, was the only means by which to spare a labor war. Thus, in 1935, Congress passed and President Roosevelt signed into law The Wagner Act. In 1937, the strength of the Wagner Act was challenged when the

Supreme Court heard of case of the NLRB v. Jones and Laughlin Steel Company. In ruling on the case, the Court recognized that employees' had a "right to organize and select representatives" otherwise the worker, would be "helpless in dealing with an employer" (Rayback, 1967, p. 344). In handing down this ruling, the Court was now saying, "the provisions of the Wagner Act [i.e. organizing and bargaining collectively] applied to manufacturing" (Estey, 1967, p. 101; Budd, 2005). "The Wagner Act and the Jones-Laughlin case climaxed a century-long struggle by labor for recognition of its right to organize and bargain collectively" (Rayback, 1967, p. 345).

From 1935 through the end of World War II, unions in America happily grew by an astounding 10 million members, reaching a total membership of nearly 14 million (Estey, 1967). As management began to accept unions and the collective bargaining process, "the real significance of business unionism," for example, sharing the decisions affecting profits and benefits began to take hold (Estey, 1967, p. 73). According to Carrell, the negative attitude to get the employer, and the tainted image of the union began to change as many union officials and management began to "view collective bargaining as a rational, democratic, and peaceful way of resolving conflict between labor and management" Carrell, 2005, p. 106).

Collective bargaining through the union has been defended in relation to the individual worker in that he or she has little power if he or she attempts to bargain alone with an employer. Edward Chamberlin approached the subject this way: "It has frequently been urged that the individual employee is only one of say a thousand in a plant, and therefore his threat to quit work is nothing beside his employer's threat to discharge him. In the one case the employer is left with 99.9 percent of his labor force, in

the other the employee is left with zero percent of his job” (Chamberlin, 1969, p. 174).

Based on this premise, collective bargaining is then justified since it allows for more of a balance of power between the two parties: employer and employees.

If an organized labor force decides to strike because its demands are not being met, then the employer (depending on the situation) might be left with zero percent of a workforce. However, there is an important distinction to be made between collective bargaining within a single firm and collective bargaining within an industry or entire trade. A strong case can be made to support the idea that the latter is very similar to collective action taken by a group of employers (a monopoly): “A union is essentially a business organization that sells labor services. It is in the first place a cartel, an association of workers who act in concert in selling their labor services. To the extent, the cartel is effective, it becomes more than a cartel, for its discriminatory power allows it to keep the employers it deals with from hiring non-union labor. Hence, it is able to exclude rivals to a greater or lesser degree and thereby to take on the form of a partial monopoly...” (Nutter, 1959, p. 287). If one agrees with Nutter’s suggestion of collective bargaining by a union group as being monopoly, then all actions taken by a union might have to be judged in light of the Sherman Antitrust Act, which was passed to prevent monopolies.

The union that bargains industry or trade wide is able to play one employer against another since it is unified, and the union can disrupt the entire industry or specific sectors of it. Under this concept, if a union disrupts an entire industry, then the question is not only a violation of potential antitrust laws, but also a violation of interstate commerce laws. In fear that unions, after World War II, had become “too big and too powerful,”

Americans began to question the actions of unions and their officials looking for their actions “to be checked and brought under control” (Estey, 1967, p. 107). Once again, the government stepped in, and through the passage of the Taft-Hartley Act (1947) amended part of the Wagner Act of 1935. In his presentation of the bill, Representative Hartley spoke of how “industrial strife...brought our country to the brink of general economic paralysis” (Budd, 2005, p. 161). Congressman Hartley went on to describe how prior to the passage of the NIRA of 1933 there were an average of 753 strikes nation-wide per year, and that by 1946 “there were 116,000,000 man-days lost and the number of strikes hit a new high of 4,985” in 1946 (Budd, 2005, p. 161).

Once again, with big business in the news over the past decade informing the public of corporate scandals that exposed the exorbitant salaries and benefits given to company executives, some people have once again begun to believe that the advantage of power should pass to the unions. Edward Chamberlin, in referring to the late 1950’s to early 1970’s, argued that a union possesses this power advantage only because public sympathy was now with the union. The public did not see the significance or connection of unduly high wages and unemployment over the long-term, nor did they realize that higher wages did not come out of profits, but out of their own pockets since they would have to bear the expense of higher wages and costs in the form of higher consumer prices (Chamberlin, 1969).

The price of something may be defined very generally as the cost of raw goods, plus production costs and profit. When one considers a sales price, there is a more fundamental conflict in labor disputes than the one between labor and management, and that is the one between labor and consumer. If labor wants a greater wage, then the

employer will be much more agreeable to the increase since he can then adjust his price and protect his interest. In this situation, the burden falls to the consumer.

In many cases, the employer is also at a disadvantage because he or she might not have the freedom to hire new personnel during a strike, yet striking laborers can seek part-time work elsewhere, or may be receiving partial pay from union coffers. Some believe that the labor unions have had the dominance and power that business monopolies could never achieve. The enterprise monopoly (American corporation) at times has been up against actual or potential competition, as well as a hostile Congress, the Supreme Court, and the General Public. However, the labor monopoly (unions) has enjoyed the sanction of these groups and institutions, and has often been able to deal with 'scabs' and internal problems without fear of reprisal. Chamberlin defined collective bargaining as...“...power in the hands of one party to prevent the other from considering any alternative offers from other workers who might like to make a contract with him” (Chamberlin, 1969, p. 185).

The Development of Hospitality Unions in America

And

The Hotel Employees and Restaurant Employees (HERE) International Union

A union is an organization of workers who are joined together for common causes such as the improvement of living standards through better wages and benefits in the workplace, along with better and safer working conditions. “For more than a

century, since its inception in 1891, the Hotel Employees and Restaurant Employees International Union (HERE) has been fighting for decent wages, better working conditions, a voice in the workplace and greater respect for the men and women who make up the hospitality industry. However, the fight for betterment for hospitality workers did not begin with the HERE.

According to researchers Rubin and Obermeier (1943), “between 1860 and 1870 scattered ‘Societies of Cooks and Waiters,’ chiefly composed of men of German, French, Italian, and Spanish nationalities, were established in large American cities (Rubin, 1943, p. 39). Many of these groups, especially in New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago were nothing more than fraternal organizations, and were independent of each other. The very first hospitality union to be formed was in the catering industry shortly after the Civil War in 1866. This union was formed in Chicago as “Bartenders and Waiters Union, Chicago” and would later become known as “Local 57 of Chicago, Bartenders, and Waiters” (Josephson, 1956, p. 3; Rubin, 1943, p. 39). It was formed by a group of German-American waiters and was called “Die Arbeiter Union” (Rubin, 1943, p.40), however, according to Rayback, “...Die Arbeiter Union, the German workingmen’s assembly of New York City [was] set up in 1866 and led by Adolph Douai” (Rayback, 1961, p. 150). For over two decades, hospitality labor clubs were few and far between, mainly because the culinary trade “was almost entirely made up of small eating establishments employing two or three workers” (Josephson, 1956, p. 3). It was not until the late 1880’s and into the 1890’s that restaurants began to grow not just in the major cities, but in towns and small cities reaching nearly 250,000 thousand workers by the mid-1890’s.

The culinary workers local of Chicago had grown some since its inception in 1866, and by 1884 it had filed an application for affiliation with the Knights of Labor as Assembly 7475 (Rubin, 1943). Eventually other independent culinary unions also joined the KoL, and unfortunately, all had problems with this national federation from the very beginning. The KoL was developed based on strong religious beliefs and one of their rules was that no person who made or sold intoxicating beverages could be a member in any organization within the Knights organization (Budd, 2005; Nicholson, 2004; Wheeler, 2002). Since many of the culinary unions' membership included bartenders, and because the KoL opposed the liquor business, they "refused to accept bartenders if they were to be classed as such" (Rubin, 1943, p. 44). Assembly 7475, and other culinary unions began to rebel against the KoL for interfering with their autonomy, and this eventually led to most of the local unions splitting from the KoL and staying independent, though many believed that an association with a national union was needed.

Though the Civil War may have abolished slavery among the Black people of the South, the officers and members of the American Federation of Labor and those of various service unions believed that White slavery existed within the workplace for waiters, cooks, bakers, bartenders, and others in the hospitality service industry. Many of these working individuals were forced to work 15 hours or longer every day for six days per week, "with hardly enough allowance of time to partake of the hastiest of meals..." (Josephson, 1956, p. 13). At the turn of the century, waiters, cooks, and others were working an average of 14 hours per day, six or seven days per week for a pay of \$3 to \$5 dollars per week maximum. Most of these individuals were working for less than five cents per day, and yet they were required to buy their own waiters or cooks jackets and

aprons, and arrive at work with a clean uniform daily. This type of working condition with its meager pay forced many local union leaders to associate and eventually many of them went to the first AFL convention. Relating the grievances of their members at the convention, many local union leaders applied for affiliation with the AFL. “The first of these was granted to the New York Waiters Union in March, 1887, under the title of Waiters Union, New York, No. 281. A bartenders’ union of New York was given a charter soon afterward, in May, 1887, as Local 646, Bartenders, New York” (Josephson, 1956, p. 14; Rubin, 1943). By 1891, “fourteen catering industry locals situated in different parts of the country” had become affiliated with the AFL (Josephson, 1956, p. 14; Fox, 1941). Many more local unions followed, but on April 23, 1891, union leaders from New York and New Jersey met in a special meeting to discuss forming a national federation of hospitality unions. That same day a constitution for the federation was written and presented to AFL President Gompers in New York City, along with an application for a national charter. After considering the application and careful review of the documents, Samuel Gompers granted the national charter, and on April 24, 1891, the *Waiters and Bartenders National Union* was formed and this was the predecessor to the Hotel and Restaurant Employees’ (HRE) National Alliance. The Waiters and Bartenders National Union held its first convention on January 18, 1892 with 15 delegates, representing 10 local unions, in attendance. At this convention, legislation was enacted and one of the constitutional changes voted upon and passed was to change the name of the association to Hotel and Restaurant Employees’ National Alliance.



Delegates to the Second Annual Convention, Chicago, May 22, 1893. Seated, second from left, President John E. Mee; next to him, holding framed charter of the Union, Secretary Woyt Losky. Standing: first on the left, Jere L. Sullivan; rear (tallest figure), William C. Pomeroy

In 1898, the Alliance applied to the AFL for a name change, which was granted, and on May 7, 1898, the new name of the association became the *Hotel and Restaurant Employees' International Alliance and Bartenders' International League of America*. The national union went through several name changes before it settled on today's moniker, which is *Hotel Employees' and Restaurant Employees' (HERE) International Union*. At this 1898 meeting, it was also resolved that two *Official Journals* would be published. One for the Bartenders, known as "The National Purveyor" and one for Hotel and Restaurant Employees, to be published as "The American Caterer" (Fox, 1941).



Members of the Aberdeen, Washington, Local in 1905, showing the different uniforms of their crafts.

According to Josephson (1956), the Hotel and Restaurant Employees (HRE) union was considered a purely craft union; however it was composed of many unskilled and semi-skilled individuals. During the year 1932, there was a struggle within the AFL between craft unions and industrial unions. Around the time, there was also considerable growth of the self-service cafeterias and other types of vending operations. Because of this, the members of the HRE were being looked upon as “laborers in the belt-lines of food factories” instead of craftsmen (Josephson, 1956, p. 202). In fact, Paul N. Coulcher, one of the leaders of a waiters’ local in New York was opposed to allowing the unskilled and semi-skilled laborers, into the union. However, an industrial union resolution sought to include cafeteria workers, as well as unskilled hotel and restaurant workers, bellboys,

porters, housemaids, dishwashers, and all catering staff employees as potential members for the International Union, (Josephson, 1956).

Starting as a craft union and now finding itself supported by industrial unions, the HRE became caught in a struggle in 1936 when a number of AFL unions merged together to form the Committee of Industrial Organizations. The AFL found the views and manners of the newly formed CIO to be in contrary to the AFL's established ways and by the end of 1936 threatened the CIO with expulsion from the federation. The AFL was based on conservative views that centered on the skilled craftsmen or the "cream of the crop" according to HERE Vice President Hugo Ernst in a speech he gave at the HERE convention in August 1936 (Josephson, 1956, p. 203). Hugo Ernst was a man who was deeply interested in the labor movement, and from 1910 to 1940, he spent thirty consecutive years as President or Secretary of HERE's Local 30, Waiters, in San Francisco.

The AFL was fighting to keep the craftsmen alive in the face of new and modern technology that was slowly and surely replacing some of the skilled craftsmen. To have the jobs and careers of these skilled individuals also threatened by semi-skilled or unskilled workers was not acceptable to the AFL at that time. The industrial faction members who formed the CIO were considered more liberal in their view of labor by wanting to include all skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled laborers, inclusive of immigrant, minorities, and women. This was the backbone of industrial unionism, i.e. to compose one single big union of all workers within an industry, be they skilled or unskilled, and without focusing on the type of work they did, or was required to do. Ernst accused the AFL and its leaders of being "men without a social vision or

understanding of fundamental economic processes” (Josephson, 1956, p. 204). In spite of this passionate speech by Ernst, the AFL Council could not support the idea of industrial unionism and therefore voted to suspend the CIO unions and its members from the AFL, which nearly reduced the AFL membership by half. None of the subsequent actions or speeches by Ernst and others impressed the AFL Council, and eventually by 1936 after two years of bickering, struggles, and attempted negotiations the Council voted to expel the CIO from its membership.

Ernst who was an officer of HRE still believed that craft unions and their members had an important role in the workplace, but he also believed that both craft and industrial unions could co-exist. To show the importance of the semi-skilled and unskilled workers, the HERE union conducted employee drives within the city of Chicago from 1934 to 1936. This drive increased the bartenders union Local 278 by several thousand members, and a new Local No. 593, “formed on industrial-union lines” organized busboys, dishwashers, bellhops, scrubwomen and others (Josephson, 1956, p. 206). Many of these types of workers joined the union, with the exception of cooks who were considered skilled craftsmen and were able to negotiate directly with management for themselves and their kitchen staff. According to a U.S. census conducted in 1930, there were over 565,000 skilled men and women cooks, almost none of which were members of the HERE International Union, mainly because many of them came to America from various countries and therefore there was a lack of a common language. However, a group of Spanish speaking cooks banded together and formed union Local 88 in Chicago in 1933 (Josephson, 1956).

According to Harry W. Fox (1941), the managing editor of the Fifty Year Anniversary publication, the following depicts the wage struggle of workers in the industry from 1891 through 1941.

- ❖ **Waiters** wages that were as low as \$3.00 or as high as \$5.00 a week in restaurants and \$15.00 a month in hotels for those 70 to 90 hour work weeks, were now earning from \$15.00 to \$35.00 weekly for a work week that was lessened by 20 to 28 hours.
- ❖ **Waitresses** “were not generally employed” and received only \$2.50 - \$3.50 a week for a ten to twelve hour day, seven days a week. By 1941 with the passage of legislation, the women worked only eight-hour days for six days a week and earned from \$12.00 to \$24.00 per week.
- ❖ **Cooks and Cooks’ Assistants** which included pastry chefs and bakers, though considered skilled professionals were very underpaid for their talent as in some cases were still considered to be underpaid even in 1941 where the pay scales ranged from \$25.00 to as high as \$65.00 per week.
- ❖ **Hotel Service Workers** some of whom were not organized within a union even as late as 1930, were now organized and had earned the respect of their employers and the public. The Union held establish a wage scale for the various classifications of hotel service workers that ranged up to \$75.00, \$80.00, and \$85.00 per month, depending on the classification.
- ❖ **Bartenders** who worked for \$8.00 to \$12.00 per week were now earning as much as \$50.00 for the same period.

- ❖ **Miscellaneous Restaurant Employees** were sometimes not paid at all, but worked in exchange for food. The International Union helped to negotiate a pay scale as high as \$20.00 to \$25.00 per week, for 48 or less hours per week.



(Retrieved from <http://www.unitehere.org/about/historyhere.asp?index=11>)

In 1891 there was believed to be a membership of 450 members in the five local unions that applied to the AFL for a national charter. By 1918 the membership reached a high of 65, 938, which fluctuated with World War I, the Great Depression, and prohibition. By 1934, 1936 and 1938, membership had reached 46,948, 82,070, and 194,000 respectively. In January of 1941, the International Union had passed a

membership count of 225,000 and was hoping to reach 300,000 by the end of that year's national convention. On July 8, 2004 the HERE Union merged with UNITE, the Union of Needletrades, Industrial and Textile Employees. Together the UNITE-HERE Union represents more than 450,000 active members and more than 400,000 retirees throughout North America. The Union boasts a diverse membership, comprised largely of immigrants and including high percentages of African-American, Latino, and Asian-American workers. The majority of UNITE HERE members are women. The UNITE-HERE Union represents workers in apparel and textile manufacturing, apparel distribution centers, and apparel retail, industrial laundries, hotels, casinos, foodservice, airport concessions, and restaurants.



Action against the world's most famous hotel, the Waldorf-Astoria, in January 1934, with 3,000 waiters, busboys, and cooks protesting wages of \$7.50 a week and tips. Sign reads: "General Strike for Union Recognition and Conditions."

(Retrieved from <http://www.unitehere.org/about/historyhere.asp?index=11>)

Culinary Workers Union Local 226, Las Vegas, Nevada

Culinary Workers Union Local 226 was chartered by HERE in 1938 with a membership of between 500 and 1,000 workers. Las Vegas was then just a small railroad town, but as the town grew so did Local 226” (Culinary, 2003). It was not until the 1950’s that major growth in unionism came to Las Vegas and Local 226, mainly due to the efforts of the union, which took an active role in recruiting people to that desert town to work in the hospitality industry (Culinary, 2005).

During the last quarter of the 20th century, union organizing began to decline. Union representatives blamed the decline on a sluggish economy, however, a lawyer who represented management “suggests union organizing [was] weak because management generally pays better, and with less discrimination, than before” (Wolff, 2003, p.8). As the 20th century was ending, Las Vegas continued on a course of expansion, and thus the hospitality industry grew with hundreds and even thousands of men and women who sought foodservice and hotel employment at low-wage jobs (Tait, 2005). This growth offered HERE Local 226 the opportunity to launch a major organizing campaign that resulted in organizing hundreds of new union members in Las Vegas. Additionally, in 1998 Local 226 was a driving force in settling a nearly 7 year strike that returned five-hundred fifty hospitality union members to work at the Las Vegas Frontier Hotel & Casino, which ensured the success and reputation of Local 226 (UNITE-HERE, 2005; Culinary, 2005). By 2005, Local 226 represented some 50,000 workers in Southern Nevada in not only the hospitality industry, but at hospitals, the airport, country clubs, and other food service venues. As a result of the HERE Union efforts and those of management who are willing to share their profits with employees through better wages,

the hotel and food service employees in the State of Nevada earn some of the highest wages in the United States for hospitality workers, (see Appendix C, Table 17). Other union organizations such as the Teamsters Union and the Bartenders Union also represented hospitality and beverage service union workers in Southern Nevada.

The debate over unions and unionization remains a controversial subject, especially in the hospitality industry. Organizations such as the Station properties in Las Vegas and the Marriott Corporation, which have not had unions representing their employees, had been adamant about keeping the union away from their employees. To some extent, even those operations that had accepted the union as the collective bargaining unit for the employees would not be disappointed if the unions were to disappear (Divine, 1984). However, taking it from the unions' perspective, the union believed that it was doing a service for the employees, almost like an attorney, having represented employees in contractual negotiations, thus looking out for their betterment. These contractual negotiations have been conducted with management and a committee of union member workers who were chosen by their co-workers, and assisted by a union negotiator. "While the relationship between labor and management in the Las Vegas casino industry has been marked by instances of conflict in the past, today that relationship has grown more positive. A new spirit of labor-management cooperation has been forged where both parties can prosper from the growth and success of the Las Vegas' casino industry" (Culinary, 2005).

Collective Bargaining in the Hospitality Industry

The hospitality industry is somewhat unique in comparison to other trade industries. Part of the reasoning for this uniqueness is the globalization of the industry, how easily it can be affected by the cyclical business cycles of the economy, and the influence political coalitions have on laws and regulations that affect many aspects of the industry from the types of linens and towels used in hotel rooms, to the preparation and storage of food, along with such issues as safety, and the uses of chemicals and cleaning agents. However, one effect that can really have an economic impact on the hospitality industry occurs when hotels and unions cannot collectively bargain new contract terms. For the hospitality industry, this issue has not been more evident as it had been in three cities, Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Washington, D. C. in the years 2004 and 2005 that were rife with strikes, and boycotts by union locals and lockouts by hotel management.

The Hotel Employees and Restaurant Employees International Union represents more workers in the hospitality industry than the Teamsters or Bartenders Unions, and its ability to organize has been more successful in “hotels than in restaurants, where unionization has virtually disappeared” (Cobble & Merrill, 1994, p. 447). According to Cobble and Merrill (1994), the union predicted that the decline in the unionization of hotel workers would reverse itself. This is due in part to the fact that “hotels are immobile and have large numbers of long-term employees; moreover, especially in large cities and convention centers, they are vulnerable to strikes” (p. 447). These authors also believed that part of the decline was attributed to the fact that some of the local unions

had been corrupt, and that the international union was headed by a group of “older white men, despite a work force that is heavily female and minority” (Cobble, 1994, p. 447). Their position that hotel laborers are mostly female and minority workers was corroborated by Waddoups and Eade (see Table 1) who believed that “the occupational structure in hotels still is characterized by high levels of occupational segregation by gender, race, ethnicity, and citizenship status,” (Waddoups & Eade, 2002, p. 161).

TABLE 1

Employment by Selected Occupations and Demographic Characteristics (%)

Selected Occupations	Female	Hispanic	Black	Non-Citizens
Hotel front desk clerks	74.5	8.2	9.7	3.5
Bartenders	33.1	8	5.2	10.3
Food Servers	65.1	16.8	5.5	15.2
Cooks	23.6	23.9	14.2	22.9
Food preparation workers	31.5	43.8	15.9	39.9
Maids and Housemen	85.1	29.8	23.1	31.6
Porters and Bellhops	13.1	11.2	16.3	16.2
Attendants	42.8	5	5	11.7
Average of Hotel Workers	46.1	18.3	11.9	18.9

Statistical data by Waddoups & Eade (1994-2000).

This data just may support HERE International Union President John W. Wilhelm’s statement that the labor movement has been refueled by immigrants and that the union can help to improve the standard of living for many of these and other Americans (Edsall, 2005). According to Waddoups and Eade (2002), “collective bargaining is prevalent in two locations where the hotel and casino industries are closely linked... in Las Vegas and in Atlantic City” (p.137), in spite of the fact that hotels linked to casinos also exist in Reno and Lake Tahoe, Nevada, as well as in Biloxi and Tunica,

Mississippi, and Shreveport, Louisiana, and many small towns, riverboat operations and tribal territories throughout the United States. By 2005, HERE was close to organizing workers and entering into a collective bargaining agreement on their behalf at some of the larger hotel and casino operations in Reno, but has not yet succeeded in its organizing campaign. Nearly twenty percent of the HERE International Union membership was composed of union member workers in Las Vegas and Atlantic City, (Waddoups, 2002). It was estimated that of the 330,000 members attributed to HERE as part of UNITE-HERE International Union, 75,000 are casino union workers with the remaining union members working in hospitals, airports, country clubs, and other related foodservice concessions, as well as hotels and restaurants. Aside from the major casino/hotel cities, “hotel unionism still exists in major urban centers, generally outside the South in cities such as Boston, Chicago, Detroit, Honolulu, Los Angeles, New York, San Francisco, and Washington, D.C.” (Waddoups, 2002, p. 138; Cobble, 1994).

In the summer of 2004, contract negotiations between several union locals and management stalled, and workers in Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Washington, D.C., voted to authorize strikes. This affected 9 properties in Los Angeles, 14 hotels in Washington, D.C., and a large number of hotels in San Francisco. “Besides the usual issues over wages, benefits and workload, the key demand for Los Angeles workers [and those in San Francisco and Washington, D.C. was] a contract that would expire at the same time as those for hotel workers in six cities and Hawaii – and expiration that employees said would give them more leverage at bargaining time” (Fox, 2004, p.1). The San Francisco workers presented the same issues as L.A. and Washington; however, they had also demanded an increase in pension funds for retirement. As stated earlier in

this study, the expiration of contracts nationwide, or at the very least in several major cities was a goal of HERE President John Wilhelm and most definitely a major issue in all union and hotel management contracts under negotiation now and most probably in the future according to Wilhelm and union local representatives.

A union member who was a banquet chef and union shop steward at one of the L.A. hotels believed that by having the contracts end in other cities at the same time would give them the leverage “that would level the playing field.” This person also stated, “our goal is to get into the middle class, to break in” (Fox, 2004, p.1). Similar statements were expressed by workers in San Francisco and Washington, D.C. According to a spokesperson for the Los Angeles Hotel Employers Council, the expense and difficulty of negotiating new contracts again in 18 months was not a prospect that management wanted or looked forward to (Fox, 2004). The Washington D.C. hotels had sought a three-year contract, which was typical of past contract terms (Hedgpeth & Irwin, 2004, p. E01).

From March through September, 2004, the HERE Locals presented their demands for new contracts, with the major issue of a contract expiration date ending in 2006, to all union hotel property representatives in Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Washington, D.C. On September 21, 2004 management and the union representing 3,800 Washington, D.C. hotel workers sat down to resume contract negotiations that had stalled back in August. “Officials on both sides said they hope to avert a strike but that the prospects will hinge on whether the other side will yield on the most intractable issue on the table: the length of a contract” (Irwin & Joyce, 2004, p. E01). However, not all employees believe that striking, being unemployed and possibly without health benefits during the

strike, even for a short time, was good for them. Speaking on behalf on some of the workers at the city's largest hotel one worker stated, "some workers were expressing anxiety about the prospects of a strike.... Employees said they wanted more money but were worried about getting caught up in national labor politics between the unions and the hotels" (Hedgpeth, 2004, p. E01). Many of the employees did not want to be caught in what they believed was "the union's politics to negotiate a deal that will benefit several cities" (Hedgpeth, 2004, p. E01). Several Washington hotel banquet workers who were union members stated, "they were frustrated by the union's effort to coordinate actions with San Francisco and Los Angeles and to insist that the three contracts expire the same time" (Hedgpeth, 2004, p. E01). A bellman at the city's largest hotel was also apprehensive about the strike and stated "I can make good money here... [t]he benefits are good. I like this place, but I want us to get this resolved" (Irwin & Hedgpeth, 2004, p. A01). The Washington city negotiations also include issues pertaining "to an employee pension fund, whether hotels can increase employee workloads without union approval, and whether employees can be disciplined for not getting all their work done when the hotel doesn't have supplies ready for them" (Hedgpeth, 2004, p. E01).

Of the nearly 1,000 workers at the largest hotel in Washington, D.C., forty-four have worked there for 30 years or more, and more than half have been employed there for more than 10 years. These workers speak nearly two dozen different languages and come from 44 countries, (Hedgpeth, 2004). In fact, this hotel had only a 6 percent turnover rate, which was well below the hotel industry's average of 30 percent in 2003. One might surmise, based on some worker comments and the low turnover rate that the employees are happy with management and are seeking only to get their fair share of the

profits and benefits on an annual basis. After months of negotiating, the Washington, D. C. hotel management group and HERE union Local 25 reached contract terms, were the union accepted a contract ending in 2007.

In San Francisco, talks between 14 downtown San Francisco hotel operators, which were represented by the San Francisco Multi-Employer Group, and Local 2 the union representing 4,000 workers, hit a snag over the issue of the length of the contract. Though the union members had authorized a strike, the management group still sought to sign a five-year contract. According to Mark Huntley, president of the negotiating group representing the 14 hotels, "until the union is willing to negotiate on the length of the contract, the San Francisco Multi-Employer Group is not in a position to offer further enhancements or incentives in the areas of health and welfare benefits or wages" (San Francisco Chronicle, 2004).

By September 29, 2004 workers at 4 San Francisco hotels walked out on strike, leaving the hotels to implement their contingency plans in order to remain open. At a hearing before city and state government officials, HERE Local 2 President Mike Casey said "that health care costs, such as employee co-payments that could rise from \$10 to \$273 per month, are the main sticking point in negotiations" (KTVU, 2004, September 29). Mr. Casey later acknowledged that the contract term had become the major issue, to which the management group agreed. Health care had been a main concern and management had been willing to consider contract expiration in 2006 if the union had been willing to have its members share more of the cost burden for health care. The health care proposal, "which does not differentiate between an individual worker and one providing coverage for himself or herself and a family, asks workers to pay considerably

more, \$32.53 per month in the first year, rising to \$273.42 per month in the fifth year of the contract. The hotels, which are paying \$630 per month per employee for health care, would pay \$683.30 per employee per month in the first year, rising to \$951.36 per employee per month in the fifth year” (Raine, 2004, October 8).

According to a management group spokesperson, "San Francisco hotels have demonstrated a commitment and an ability to negotiate in San Francisco to benefit San Francisco, San Francisco employees and the union. There is a 10-year track record in San Francisco of the hotels working side by side with the union" (KTVU, 2004, September 29). Though this might be true, the union was steadfast in its demand that the only way to level the playing field with national chain hotels and consolidated corporate operations was to work together on a nationwide contract.

The last major hotel strike to hit San Francisco was in 1980 when 6,000 workers faced 36 hotels in a battle that lasted four weeks. According to a staff writer with the San Francisco Chronicle, “there are a number of similarities between the situations then and now. In 1980, officials of the city's Convention & Visitors Bureau said San Francisco's billion-dollar tourist economy was already down 10 percent, ...” on September 29, 2004 “convention bureau officials noted that the city's 2003 tourist income of \$6.03 billion is down 20 percent from its 2000 level...” (Abate, 2004, October 1). In what might have seemed like a showing of solidarity, but this time by the hotel owners group, the owners of 10 large hotel properties in San Francisco appeared ready to lock out unionized workers after the union struck the four other hotels. Within a couple of days, the larger hotel properties did lock out the union workers and began to replace them with individuals hired through a local employment agency. On October 13, 2004, when the

strike against the original four hotels ended, management at those four properties locked out the union workers (Raine, 2004, October 20).

For over a month, members from the San Francisco Board of Supervisors, to the Mayor of San Francisco, and a federal mediator had tried helping with the negotiations between the hotel group and the union. Approximately “4,300 hotel workers were expected to return to their jobs [after] 38 days of clangorous picketing outside 14 San Francisco hotels that locked out their union employees” (Cabanatuan, 2004, November 24). This return to work represented an agreed to cooling off period that lasted 60 days, until January 23, 2005, while the two sides return to the negotiating tables to continue their talks. Throughout that period, the hotel owners made concessions regarding health care benefits and promised not to increase the co-payment over a four-year contract. The Union had rejected such an offer and similar ones, as it was holding steadfast to its demands for lower health care costs to employees, higher wages, and especially a contract that ends in 2006 (Raine, 2004, December 17).

The cooling off period that expired on January 23, 2005 was extended, but negotiations could not be reached, as both sides remained steadfast on certain issues. By May 2005, the San Francisco hotel group offered increases in wages, benefits, and retention of the \$10 co-pay for health care. This proposal by the hotel group was rejected by the union because the hotel group did not concede to the contract term issue. Additionally, the union seemed to up the ante by requesting, “employers agree to allow unions to represent workers who sign cards... [for card check, instead of the] employers preferred process administered by the National Labor Relations Board” (Raine, 2005, May 25).

Similar on-and-off negotiations, union boycotts, and a threatened lockout by management took place in Los Angeles. However, by May 2005, after many months of arguing, the hotel group in L. A., which represented 8 hotels, offered a proposal “that included a \$1,000 signing bonus for non-tipped employees and a \$500 signing bonus for tipped employees, as well as wage increases” (Raine, 2005, May 25). The union representative from Local 11 in L.A. stated “they seem to have found money that our members deserve ...but it does not include what we told them we need – the 2006 expiration” (Raine, 2005, May 25). To this comment the spokesperson for the hotel group stated "If they (the union) are saying they have no intention of accepting anything other than a contract expiring in '06, you have to wonder if they have been bargaining in good faith the past year" (Raine, 2005, May 25).

On June 6, 2005, the Millennium Biltmore Hotel decided not to “oppose the efforts of a union to line up a contract with cities across the country, [and] in return, the union will stop urging Biltmore clients to boycott the hotel” (Fixmer, 2005, June 6). This one-sided hotel compromise was met with a lawsuit that was brought by the remaining seven L.A. hotels. Accordingly, “the Los Angeles Hotel Employers Council – a group of seven hotels collectively bargaining with the union – filed charges of unfair labor practices with the National Labor Relations Board” (Fixmer, 2005, June 6). The hotel group threatened to lock workers out of the hotels. However, some swift action was taken by the mayor of L.A. to broker a deal, and a tentative accord was reached at Los Angeles City Hall at 4:55 a.m. just five minutes before some 2,800 union workers “were to be locked out of the seven hotels that had been at odds with the union since March 2004” (Raine, 2005, June 14). The deal gave the union what it wanted which was a 2006

contract expiration date, however, it was not the April date the union wanted but a November 30, 2006 date, which “makes the Los Angeles contract the last to expire and should allow the hotels to avoid a labor dispute” (Raine, 2005, June 14). A contract with an expiration date in 2006 put the L.A. hotel group and Local 11 in accord with hotels and union locals in Hawaii, New York, Chicago, Sacramento, Monterey, and Toronto, thus enhancing the unions bargaining strength.

Though contracts had been negotiated in Washington, D. C. and Los Angeles, the dispute in San Francisco continued, though two hotels had decide by September 13, 2005 to accepted a shorter contract term if it meant settling the boycotts and contract dispute. However, being part of the San Francisco Multi-Employer Group, the two hotels could not negotiate separate contracts with HERE Local 2 (Raine, 2005, September 13). On Saturday, September 20, 2005

San Francisco's Argent Hotel said it was willing to support the union’s demand for a short contract ending in 2006 in order to end the labor dispute that hampered the city's lodging industry. However, “a majority of eight hotels in the negotiating group is required to reverse the organization's stand opposing a 2006 expiration. A spokesman said the group as a whole remains opposed to a short-term contract” (Raine, 2005, September 20).

Thus, the conflict over a new contract for hotel workers in San Francisco union hotels continued more than one year after it began. The union dropped the St. Francis hotel from its do-not-patronize list. It had not yet lifted its boycott of the Palace and Argent hotels, and continued its boycott of the remaining hotels in the San Francisco Multi-Employer Group and vows to continue the fight against management.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

A number of articles, pamphlets, booklets and even some books have been written about the history of some of the original local hospitality unions, the formation of a national hospitality union and its founder, the hotels and casinos along with their developers and founders, some early collective bargaining processes, and the struggles between employees and employers. However, a majority of these researched materials address surface aspects of the industry in a self-serving capacity without ever having sampled union membership in large numbers to collect data regarding the needs and concerns of hospitality employees, or the management perspective (J. Bruckler & M. Conley, personal communication, March 23, 2005).

This chapter discusses the methodologies used for addressing my objectives and research questions as posed in Chapter I. It further includes specific details concerning: (1) population and sample selection, (2) research design, (3) development of the survey instruments, (4) data collection, and (5) data analysis for the study.

The collected research data and subsequent analysis was priority-focused, i.e. the needs and concerns of hospitality employees and their view of management. The research questions seek information on the employees' view of management and that of the short- and long-term needs of the corporation in an increasingly competitive and complex economy. The research also proposed to examine management's view of both union and non-union employees, and what role collective bargaining plays in the treatment of these two types of employees. An additional important aspect of the study was to determine to what extent apathy and indifference exists between hospitality employees and corporate management. Finally, this investigative research assessed how the concerns and needs of the members of the Hotel and Restaurant Union (HERE) and that of corporate management, are viewed by each and presented in collective bargaining agreements in order to obtain a balance of their interests that will lead to a successful operation.

This study was pilot tested and it solicited information from both HERE union and non-union members involved in the hospitality industry to determine their perception of hotel employee concerns and needs in the workplace, as well as their opinion about unionization and collective bargaining. The pilot study proved beneficial in determining employee concerns and needs for better working conditions and a working relationship with management. The pilot study also gave valuable information regarding union members and non-union members' views of unionization and collective bargaining. The pilot study data was also instrumental for redesigning the instrument used for the final study conducted during the summer of 2005.

Research Design

The planning and development of this research study began in the fall of 2003. Since then the topic and focus have changed several times until fall of 2004 when discussions with industry professionals and academicians helped to align the focus and topic centering on some important labor related issues that will challenge the hospitality industry and corporate America in the 21st century. Beginning in the fall of 2004 and through the Summer of 2005, there was an ongoing review of literature, personal interviews of union members, employees and officers, industry professionals, and academicians. The literature review and personal interviews resulted in the development of two survey instruments and the collection of preliminary data.

A descriptive cross-sectional survey questionnaire was designed, pilot tested and formulated for interviewing hospitality workers and managers from different cultures, levels of education, and work related experience. Additionally, a selection of data analysis techniques was established in order to learn more about the union process, collective bargaining, and hospitality employees, as well as for the purpose of designing employee and management survey instruments to overcome potential validity issues.

The researcher also conducted semi-structured interviews with twenty ($n = 20$) participants who represented academia, the union and the hospitality profession. The group of experts used in the pilot study was composed of a select number of union officers and general members, non-union members, management, academicians, and industry professionals, some of whom have been involved in a collective bargaining process. The academicians in this group consisted of male and female professors from

several universities such as Oklahoma State, Kansas State, University of Nevada Las Vegas, and the University of Denver. The industry professionals were owners, managers, or assistant managers from hotel chains such as Hampton Inns, Westin, Sheraton, and Marriott. The pilot sample also included a few individuals from non-union hotels in Oklahoma and Texas. The union officers and members were from UNITE-HERE International Union Local 54 in Atlantic City, New Jersey, and Local 226 in Las Vegas, Nevada. Several of the interviews were followed up with written comments that were reviewed and used accordingly in making appropriate adjustments to the survey questionnaires. Responses obtained from the individuals in the two pilot studies were reviewed and considered for inclusion in the development of the two survey questionnaires that were used in the study for collecting data.

Employee Questionnaire

The information that was obtained for developing the employee instrument came from members and officers of the UNITE-HERE union, academicians, and other hospitality individuals who have participated in a collective bargaining process. This instrument was developed to obtain information from hospitality union members pertaining to their views of the union, management, and other issues regarding wages, benefits, and other personal needs and concerns. Fifteen ($n = 15$) of the twenty individuals who were originally interviewed for the development of the instrument then participated in a pilot study of the employee questionnaire.

Management Questionnaire

The management survey questionnaire was developed to obtain information from management in hotel operations regarding: (1) how management views employees and the primary responsibility of the human resource manager, (2) whether the organization practices participative leadership and empowerment, and (3) other issues that pertain to unionization and collective bargaining. The information for this questionnaire was obtained from business and hospitality academicians, members, and officers of the UNITE-HERE union, management professionals, and other hospitality individuals who have either dealt with employees or participated in a collective bargaining process. The same process used to develop the employee questionnaire was also used to develop and review the management questionnaire, where 11 participants were included in the pilot study of the management instrument.

Population and Sampling Plans

Union Member Employee Survey

Generally, a target population is the population about which we would like to be able to draw statistical inferences (Warde, 1990). The target population for this study was defined as (1) those individuals, who were active members of UNITE-HERE International Union,(2) members of hotel management and human resource departments, and (3) other individuals who were non-union members and working in hotels within a

hospitality related field. Often the target population consists of a very broad or extremely large number of individuals.

In this study, the target population was not an appropriate population for conducting the survey, because it was too broad and general to draw valid statistical inferences. Therefore, from the target population the researcher chose a survey population from which to gather the data that was necessary for the study. According to Warde (1990), the survey population is the population to which we can draw valid statistical inferences. For that reason, it is important to define the survey population specifically from the target population. The survey population for this study was composed specifically of active members of the UNITE-HERE Union who were a part of the Culinary Workers Union Local 226 of Las Vegas, Nevada, and thirty-two (32) human resource directors at major hotel properties within Las Vegas, Nevada.

Because of the somewhat adversarial relationship that exists between a union, management, and employees, the researcher was required to be accompanied by a union representative at all times while on any of the hotel properties, whether presenting the survey to a human resource director or assistant human resource director, or to a hospitality employee. Furthermore, the researcher had to conduct the employee research at the hotel properties only during the lunch periods between the hours of 11:30 am and 2:00 pm.

Because of the restrictions placed on the research study, it was determined that a convenience sample of the survey population was the only appropriate way in which to conduct the survey. A convenience sample is one in which the respondents are selected, in part or in whole, at the convenience of the researcher. In order to insure as best as

possible that this convenience sample was an accurate representation of some larger group or population, respondents for the employee survey were contacted at five (5) major hotel properties within the City of Las Vegas, Nevada. Additionally, respondents were surveyed at the Culinary Workers Union Local 226 headquarters by using a survey ballot box. Union members who approached the service desk at Local 226 were asked to participate in the survey by completing the questionnaire and then depositing it in a sealed ballot box that was later opened only by the researcher in the privacy of an available office.

It was estimated, based on information obtained during personal communications between the researcher and Local 226 representatives, that there was a survey population of 10,000 individual union member hotel employees working in hotel operations in the Las Vegas area. Based on the aforementioned criteria for a survey population and a convenience sampling, the researcher attempted to survey close to two hundred and fifty ($n = 250$) hotel employees that were union members.

A convenience sample of the survey population for union hotel employees was intermittently conducted through personal contact from July 22, 2005 through July 28, 2005. Because the purpose of the research was to survey hotel employees who worked in the hospitality industry and not gaming or other work related fields within a hotel, union representatives helped the researcher by pointing out the differences in the employee uniforms that represented hospitality union workers at the various hotel locations where the research was conducted. The employee survey population consisted of employees who were members of Union Local 226 and a part of the hospitality unionized labor force that was comprised of employees who worked in/as Housekeeping/Porter, Front Desk,

Bell Person, Bartender, Restaurant Service, Kitchen, Banquet Service, Laundry, Valet, or other directly related hotel operation.

With the further assistance of union representatives, the researcher was introduced to union shop stewards who were also instrumental in helping to get workers to complete the survey questionnaire. Additionally, a union agent acted as a translator in assisting the researcher in communicating with the Spanish and Latino heritage union members who could not speak or read English. The translator was also available to assist in instructing participants, who were unfamiliar with surveys, how to complete the survey instrument.

With the aforementioned assistance, the employee survey questionnaire was presented to union hotel workers during the lunch period in the employees' dining room at the hotel properties visited by the researcher. Since the employees' only have a half-hour lunch break, the questionnaire was personally distributed by the researcher or the assisting union representative. The researcher and/or representative waited for the respondent(s) to complete the survey and to determine if it was completed correctly, at which time the survey was handed back to the researcher or interpreter and placed in a file folder.

Of the 250 individuals that were asked to participate in the survey, thirty-five were ineligible or could not participate for various reasons. This resulted in an actual survey population of two hundred and fifteen (215) potential respondents. Of those individuals who responded to the survey, there were nine (9) submissions that were returned incomplete. The usable responses of the actual survey population were two hundred and six ($n = 206$), giving an effective response rate of ninety-five point three percent (95.8%). The collected data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the

Social Sciences, Windows Version 12 (SPSS version 12). The procedure used was descriptive statistics, which included frequencies, mean score and standard deviations, in addition to factor analysis.

Management Survey

A convenience sample of the human resource directors was conducted in person and via fax from July 22, 2005 through September 1, 2005. The management questionnaire was presented to potential respondents either in person at a meeting used to describe the purpose of the research, and/or via a fax of the cover letter that asked potential respondents to complete the survey through the internet using a specified URL. Thus, if the survey were personally handed out, the researcher would personally collect it from the respondent upon completion. However, if the Internet was used to complete the survey, then the participant was requested to return the completed questionnaire via a submit button at the bottom of the questionnaire that directly sent the respondent's answers to a collective server on the Oklahoma State University campus. Upon completion of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to submit the completed survey according to the method that was most appropriate considering the type of distribution used. The collected data was later analyzed, interpreted, and reported in Chapter IV of this study.

The personal contacts that the researcher made took place at three (3) hotel human resource departments to identify managements' initial response toward participation in the survey, and to determine how best to administer the survey to other hotel human resource departments. Even though the personnel office staff whom the researcher met

was cordial and understanding of the importance of the research, it was determined that all requests to participate in the management survey had to be approved by the Vice President of Human Resource at the corporation's headquarters. The cover letter and survey that was left at personnel offices with personnel directors or staff personnel who were personally contacted were forwarded to the appropriate person at their headquarters.

Sampling Plan

An important issue in sampling was to determine an appropriate sample size. In choosing the sample size for the hotel employee union members and the human resource managers, this researcher took into consideration whom would be most affected by and/or interested in the literature and survey results. The questions addressed the potential concerns and needs of the workforce in hotels within the hospitality industry that are important to union representatives and management. Several of these questions might be of interest to members of academia who teach students who are interested in becoming managers of hotels operations, and other divisions within the hospitality industry. Some questions posed to employees within the workforce also addressed the concerns of management and elicited the view of the hospitality employee.

Questionnaire Design and Survey Instrument

When designing the questionnaires, it was important to make sure that the questions were relevant to the objectives of the survey. This should also include any

questions relating to demographics. One should not ask a question for which there is no need to obtain or use the information received. Such questions might lead the participant/respondent to believe that the researcher is snooping. Such questions may also be the cause of the researcher receiving a number of non-responses.

In addition to relevancy, the phrasing of each question is very important, because if a question is poorly phrased it can cause respondents to refuse to answer a question or not respond entirely. Thus, the physical characteristics of the questionnaire are equally important because it can also affect the accuracy of the responses that will be collected. Therefore, it is important and advisable to have a questionnaire reviewed by colleagues and other professionals for accuracy and validity, and if time permits and it is appropriate, a pretest or pilot test should be conducted (Sullivan, 2001).

Finally, the order in which the questions are presented is also crucial to the success of the research. However, this researcher has discovered that some scholars believe that demographic questions, which are considered easy to answer, should be first in a questionnaire, while other scholars believe that respondents become tired and less interested the more they respond, and therefore demographic questions should be left for last. Considering that this research was administered to a broad variety of both blue- and white-collar professionals, this researcher decided to ask pertinent, subject matter related questions first and leave the demographic questions for the end of the survey questionnaire.

Survey Instrument

Two self-administered questionnaires (See Appendix D) were created from information obtained in the literature review, interviews with union members and officers, hospitality executives, academicians, and non-union management employees. Overall, the instruments consisted of Likert-type questions, yes and no responses, and multiple choice type demographic questions. Content validity for measuring the various aspects of the instruments was confirmed by obtaining opinions and expert judgment from colleagues in academia and the hospitality industry.

These questionnaires were pretested in a pilot study that was distributed to twenty ($n = 20$) participants, where each of these questionnaires was reviewed and analyzed by union representatives, academicians and non-union managers to test the clarity and validity of the questionnaire. The pilot study also sought to obtain recommendations and answers to the research questions that would or would not establish (support) construct validity. A final review of the recommendations and answers of the participants was used by the researcher to modify questions as needed in order to address the purpose and objectives of the research.

Usable responses to the pilot study were fifteen ($n = 15$), giving an actual effective response rate of seventy-five percent (75%). The pilot study participants indicated that the employee questionnaire was not ambiguous; however, there were suggestions that four additional questions should be added, and that two typographical errors should be corrected. Respondents to the pilot study also indicated that the management questionnaire was consistent with management's concerns and related employee issues; however, it was highly recommended that an open-ended question be

posed to management allowing for any overlooked issues that might pertain to the relationship between the employer, the employee, and the union.

Revisions to the survey instruments were made according to the recommendations of the respondents to the pilot study, resulting in a modified employee questionnaire of twenty-five (25) questions, and a modified management questionnaire of twenty-five (25) questions, exclusive of the demographic questions. The final questionnaires were distributed to the appropriate participants as described below in the sections on *Union Member Employee Instrument* and *Management Instrument*.

Union Member Employee Instrument

The questionnaire developed for non-management hospitality employees posed a unique problem. Because of the ethnic or cultural background of many of the front-line workers in the hospitality industry, this researcher, after consulting with union officers, decided that the questionnaire would have to be written and presented in English and Spanish, (J. Bruckler & M. Conley, personal communication, March 29, 2005).

Section one of the questionnaire consisted of Likert-type scale questions requiring respondents to choose the answer that best described their belief or viewpoint, based on a five point Likert scale ranging from: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. This point scale method allowed each respondent to indicate to what extent he or she agreed or disagreed with the statement presented.

Section two of the questionnaire also used a Likert-type scale where participants were asked to answer each question by rating the importance of each question presented from: 1 = not important, 2 = least important, 3 = neutral, 4 = important, and 5 = very important.

In section three of the employee survey, responses to the questions were based on a yes or no answer that best described their opinion or attitude. Additionally, this section included one question that required respondents to rank-in-order a question pertaining to why they joined the union. The final section of the survey pertained to demographics and asked each respondent to answer 5 basic questions relating to gender, marital status, age, education, the department, or type of work they did, and work history. Upon completion of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to submit the completed survey according to the method that was most appropriate considering the type of distribution used. The collected data was later analyzed, interpreted, and reported in Chapter IV of this study.

The questionnaire that was developed and administered to hospitality employees solicited information from hotel and restaurant union workers pertaining to their perception of worker concerns and needs. Additionally, the instrument had sought to determine if respondents believed they had the opportunity to voice their concerns to management, whether or not unionization and collective bargaining were the only means with which to obtain better wages and benefits, how management has addressed their concerns and needs, and other information needed in conducting this research.

Management Instrument

The survey questionnaire for hotel and lodging general and human resource managers was prepared by the researcher based upon literature reviews, focus groups, personal interviews, and results of the pilot study. The questionnaire that was developed and administered to hospitality managers solicited information from human resource

managers, in addition to upper and mid-level managers, in hotels that employ union and nonunion employees.

Section one of the questionnaire consisted of Likert-type scale questions requiring respondents to choose the answer that best describes their belief or viewpoint, based on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. This point scale method allowed each respondent to indicate to what extent he or she agreed or disagreed with the statement presented. In section two of the questionnaire, responses to the questions were based on a yes or no answer that best describes their opinion or attitude. Additionally, this section included one open-ended question. The final section of the survey pertained to demographics and asked each respondent to answer 5 basic questions relating to gender, marital status, age, education, the department, or type of work they do, and work history. The collected data was later analyzed, interpreted, and reported in Chapter IV of this study.

The management questionnaire solicited information from hotel and lodging general managers and human resource directors pertaining to their perception of the work ethic of both union and nonunion hospitality employees to determine if there was any degree of apathy or indifference toward how they approached their working environment. The questions also pertained to management's perception of employee work concerns and needs, and how management addressed employee issues. The instrument also solicited the opinion of management concerning its belief about why hospitality workers choose or did not choose to unionize and bargain collectively, as well as their view of the effect unionization and collective bargaining has had on the workplace environment. Additional employee and job related questions were asked in conducting this research.

The research study also sought to examine how management addresses the concerns and needs of their employees at nonunion properties in order to maintain a friendly and professional working environment.

Reliability and Validation

When any researcher uses a scale to measure the responses of participants in a survey, it is important that the measuring scale be tested for reliability and validity. Utilizing a very simple definition, “reliability refers to the consistency with which a test measures whatever it measures,” and “validity ... is the degree to which a test measures what it is suppose to measure” (Gay, 1987, p. 128).

Reliability

A test or instrument that is reliable is one that can be considered dependable or trustworthy. Reliability as a measure of internal consistency is related to the degree to which different researchers using the same scale can generate results that agree, (Warde, 1990) which is to say that it provides stable and consistent results of the phenomenon that is being measured, (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). According to Hair, et. al., “reliability is an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable (Hair, 1998, p. 117). The “average correlation” of the items being tested “is regarded as an estimate of the extent to which the items have some communality” (Warde, 1990, p. 228).

In testing the reliability of the scales used in the instrument, the researcher examined the results of the correlation matrices of the components of the two types of scales utilized in examining the participants' responses. The instrument contained two Likert-type scales, where one scale used a five point measure where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree, and the other scale used a measure where 1 = not important and 5 = very important. Since an unreliable criteria or standard cannot be valid, having reliability verifies an upper bound on validity, (Green & Tull, 1978). Cronbach's alpha is a widely used diagnostic measure where the reliability coefficient assesses the consistency of the entire scale (Hair, 1998), i.e. it is "a measure of reliability of a scale or index containing k items... [whereby the resulting measurement] is the average correlation between items in the scale" (Warde, 1990, p. 228).

In using Cronbach's alpha method to assess reliability, we looked to see if there is a positive relationship to the number of items in the scale. According to Hair et. al. (1998) and other research statisticians, "the agreed upon lower limit for Cronbach's alpha is .70, though it may decrease to .60 in exploratory research" (p. 118). According to Warde (1990), he states that researchers "Sondquist and Dunkelberg (1977) "take the position that serious efforts should be made to develop measures that have a reliability level of at least .7 or .8" (p. 229). In this study, reliability was confirmed by using Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha to analyze for internal consistency of the numbers used to represent the participants' choice of responses, and to measure the inter-correlation of the attributes. A high coefficient [i.e. a coefficient that is close to 1.00] indicates high reliability. In using Cronbach's alpha the results of the correlation matrices revealed reliability coefficient alphas equaled to .7955 (0.8) and .6943 (0.7)

respectively, (Hair, 1998; Gay, 1987; Nunnally, 1978). Based on the aforementioned range limits in the preceding paragraph, the results of this study are well within the reliability coefficient alphas and thus the instrument is considered reliable.

Validity

Ideally, a researcher uses a measurement scale in a questionnaire that will “generate a score that reflects true differences in the characteristics one is attempting to measure, without interference from irrelevant factors (Churchill, 1996, p.402). If a measurement instrument is accurate in measuring what it was intended to measure, then it can be considered a valid instrument. The instrument was pretested and the content validity (internal validity and face validity) for measuring the various aspects of the instrument was confirmed by obtaining opinions and expert judgment from academicians and hospitality professionals, as described earlier in the interview and pilot testing description on pages three and four.

Content Validity

According to Churchill, (1996) content validity is achieved if the measurement instrument sufficiently includes the most important aspect of the frame that is being measured. Churchill goes on to state that the procedures that are used to develop the instrument are the key to content validity. Gay simply states that “content validity is the degree to which a test measures an intended content area” (Gay, 1987, p. 129).

Content validity is a broad concept that deals with and examines *item validity or internal validity* and *sampling validity or face validity*. *Item validity* is concerned with

whether the test items are relevant to measurement of the intended content area.

Sampling validity focuses on how well the test samples the total content area being tested (Gay, 1987). That is, it refers to the degree to which a test appears to measure what it claims to measure.

According to Hair, et. al. (1997) the concept of content validity can be tested “through ratings by expert judges, pretests with multiple subpopulations, or other means” (p. 117). In this study, a panel of hospitality educators and industry professionals were used to test whether the instrument measures the concept or content that it is supposed to measure.

These survey questionnaires were designed to measure the needs and concerns of hospitality employees, how management addresses these needs and concerns, and several other aspects related to labor relations and unionization. Thus, content validity was assessed by examining the process by which scale items were generated i.e. development of the measure from the literature, initial pretest, and professional evaluations.

The responses, comments, and recommendations received from participants in the pilot study helped in determining content validity. Content validity for measuring the intended responses of the amended instrument was further confirmed by obtaining expert judgment from several colleagues as mentioned above and from colleagues at other universities.

Construct Validity

Construct validity is a good concept but one that is difficult to measure and conclude as valid (Warde, personal communication, October 3, 2005). A similar opinion

is given by Churchill (2001) who believes that construct validity is the most difficult to establish. Churchill (2001) further states that construct validity assess “how well the instrument captures the construct, concept, or trait it is supposed to be measuring” (p. 371). The construction of the instrument must be internally consistent, and show a correlation with other items in the instrument, as well as be able to measure what it intends to measure.

The instruments used in this study contained various issues that were aligned with the research purpose, and relative to the construct of labor relations in the hospitality industry. The purpose of this study was to examine the concerns and needs of hotel employees, what aspects of the employment factor are important to them, what were the employees’ view or attitude toward management and the union, and to determine why these employees joined a union. Additionally, the study sought to determine managements’ viewpoint and attitude toward employees who were union and non-union members, how management addresses employees’ concerns and needs, whether or not managements’ human resource department has an open door policy toward employees, and other aspects related to the workplace environment. The questions in the instrument were representative of measurements of constructs for explaining both employees’ and managements’ viewpoint of and attitude toward each other, as well as other issues aligned with the purpose of the research study.

According to Gay (1987), construct validity is a “nonobservable trait” (p. 131). Thus, since the constructs are nonobservable, i.e. the behavior or attitude of employee’s and management, the instrument questions were written in a manner to best ascertain the respondents’ viewpoint and attitude. Each item in the instrument was written in a

manner to correlate with each other and with the overall purpose and objectives of the study. In order to insure that the instrument captured the concepts or traits that underlined the purpose of the study, the questions were developed through review of appropriate literature on the subject matter, and by having interviewed union members, management personnel, academicians, and professionals within the hospitality industry. Finally, in order to further assess construct validity, the survey instrument was pilot tested.

Cover Letter and Instrument Introduction

Where the Internet was used to conduct the survey, a cover letter was sent to all participants and the survey questionnaire was attached through a link that allowed each participant to open the survey. Once the questionnaire was opened, the participant had the opportunity to respond to each question, and when the survey was completed they could click on a submit button to send the completed questionnaire back to a server that collects the data and immediately enters it into a spreadsheet. The software that was to create the cover letter and survey instrument was Microsoft Word XP and Front Page respectively. The Front Page application was used through the guidance and assistance of the OSU department of computing and information services.

The cover letter served to introduce the researcher and the study. In order to minimize the non-response rate, a well-written cover letter is important in obtaining the support and cooperation of the potential respondents. The cover letter for this research

study specified the purpose of the survey, included a statement of anonymity and confidentiality, and explained to the participant how to reach the researcher and the OSU IRB office to answer any questions or concerns. The cover letters and instrument introduction are included in Appendix D.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine the concerns and needs of hotel employees and why the employees joined the union, as well as to develop a model to be used as a guide in future collective bargaining agreement negotiations. Additionally, the researcher wanted to ascertain the employees' view of management, and what aspects of the employment factor are important to the employees. The specific objectives of this study were to:

1. examine what is considered to be important and a priority to hotel workers in order to maintain a happy and productive work environment;
2. determine hotel managements' perception on employee commitment and a balance between equity, voice and efficiency in the workplace;
3. assess the role that the union plays in securing better wages and benefits for their members;
4. ascertain the important concerns and needs of hotel employees;
5. establish the degree employees believe that unionization is important in obtaining managements' attention regarding their needs and concerns;
6. what degree hotel employees believe management understands the concerns and needs of the workforce; and

7. examine what measures management has taken to address the concerns and needs of the workforce.

The applied objective of this study was to report information that would be useful to management and the union in determining the needs and concerns of employees, and how to correlate this information and administer it within the collective bargaining process. A secondary applied objective was the evaluation of employees' responses in order to determine how best to prepare and addresses issues for future research, regarding the workplace environment, the need for a union, and managements' approach in addressing employee issues.

Research Questions

1. What are the major concerns of hotel employees?
2. How satisfied are hotel workers with their jobs?
3. How satisfied are hotel employees with management?
4. Does empowering employees to make some minor work related management decisions give them a voice in making decisions and thus fulfill a need?
5. Does management follow an open door policy:
 - To address employee concerns and needs?
 - To promote loyalty and employee happiness?

- To give employees a voice within the workplace?
6. Does management consider:
 - The human resource director to be a primary representative for employees?
 - Non-union employees more committed to their job than union employees?
 - Unions to play an important role in securing better wages and benefits for employees?
 - Employees' right to collectively bargain without union interference?
 7. What do union employees expect of management?
 8. What are the three main reasons hotel employees want to unionize?

Response Rate

Management

Management employees who were directors of human resource departments at thirty-two (32) of the major hotel properties in Las Vegas, Nevada were contacted to participate in the research. Personal contacts did not yield a positive response in the completion of the survey instrument. This result led to the faxing of the research cover letter, inclusive of the request to access a web-based link, to all the human resource departments at the thirty-two major hotel properties. Unfortunately, two attempts at faxing the cover letter and survey information over the course of four weeks resulted in

no responses from the human resource directors that were contacted. A subsequent phone call to two human resource departments was met with an apology by one human resource director who stated that corporate headquarters did not give its approval for the director to complete the survey. The second phone call resulted in the leaving of a message requesting a return call by the human resource director, which was never returned. Therefore, the researcher was not able to obtain the cooperation of management at any of the major properties in Las Vegas in collecting the necessary data to determine managements' approach for addressing employees' needs and concerns, along with other appropriate information.

Employees

The employees' survey population was determined to be all union members of the Culinary Workers Union Local 226 that worked in hotels within the City of Las Vegas, Nevada. Hotel Employees who were members of the Culinary Workers Union Local 226 were approached and asked to participate in the research by completing the survey instrument. A convenience sample was taken over a five day period that attempted to survey a population totaling two hundred and fifty ($n = 250$). From that estimated population, it was deduced that thirty-five (35; 14%) refused to participate in the survey. Some of the reasons for refusing to participate were because the employees were not union members, or they could not read English or Spanish, or for other personal reasons. This resulted in a sample size (i.e. actual survey population) of two hundred and fifteen ($n = 215$; 86%) respondents. Of those individuals who responded to the survey, there were nine ($n = 9$; 4.2%) submissions that were returned incomplete. The usable

responses of the actual survey population were two hundred and six ($n = 206$), giving an effective response rate of ninety-five point eight percent (95.8%). Table 2 below showed raw and adjusted response rates to the employee survey.

TABLE 2
RESPONSE RATE

(A) Attempted Survey Population	250
(B) Number of Refusals	35
(C) Percent of Refusals ¹	.14
(D) Actual Sample Size (surveys returned) ²	215
(E) Percent of Sample Size ³	.86
(F) Surveys Properly Completed ⁴	206
(G) Raw Response Rate ⁵	.824
(H) Adjusted Response Rate ⁶	.958
(I) Unusable Surveys	9
<u>(I) Percent of Unusable ⁷</u>	<u>.042</u>

Notes: 1. B/A 5. F/A
 2. A - B 6. F/D
 3. D/A 7. I/D
 4. D - I

Respondent Profile

The respondents were assured of anonymity, and that their participation was strictly voluntary via a written statement in the cover letter and during personal contact of hotel union member employees at the time when the survey was conducted. Assurances were given that the researcher would maintain the highest level of priority for confidentiality and privacy, and that the actual survey instrument would not be made available to anyone other than the researcher. Additionally, these same types of assurances were given to respondents at the union headquarters, and they were informed

that their completed questionnaire would not be examined by anyone other than the researcher. Furthermore, participants at the union headquarters were asked to deposit the completed questionnaire in a sealed box that would not be opened by anyone other than the researcher, and therefore would not be viewed by any union officers or representatives.

TABLE 3
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF SAMPLE

Marital Status	Female	%	Male	%	Total	%
Single	44	41.5	45	52.3	89	43.2
Married	62	58.5	41	47.7	103	50
Missing					14	6.8
Total	106	100	86	100	206	100
Age						
18-25 years	10	8.9	11	12.2	21	10.2
26-35 years	25	22.3	16	17.8	41	19.9
36-45 years	29	25.9	19	21.1	48	23.3
46-55 years	27	24.1	28	31.1	55	26.7
over 55 years	21	18.8	16	17.8	37	18
Missing					4	1.9
Total	112	100	90	100	206	100
Education						
Some Grade School	8	7.1	6	6.8	14	6.8
Grade School Graduate	11	9.7	7	8	18	8.7
Some High School	20	17.7	16	18.2	36	17.5
High School Graduate	34	30.1	20	22.7	54	26.2
Some College	29	25.7	27	30.7	56	27.2
4 years College Graduate	6	5.3	5	5.6	11	5.3
Vocational Technology Graduate	5	4.4	7	8	12	5.8
Missing					5	2.4
Total	113	100	88	100	206	100
Department or Type of Job						
Housekeeping/Porter	47	41.2	21	23.3	68	33
Front Desk ¹	11	9.6	6	6.7	17	8.3
Bell Person	6	5.3	5	5.6	11	5.3
Beverage Service	7	6.1	2	2.2	9	4.4
Restaurant Service	19	16.7	21	23.4	40	19.4
Kitchen	19	16.7	22	24.5	41	19.9
Banquet Service	4	3.5	3	3.3	7	3.4
Laundry & Valet	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other	1	0.9	10	11.1	11	5.3
Missing					2	1
Total	114	100	90	100	206	100
Work History						
Less than 6 months	18	15.8	7	7.7	25	12.1
6 months to 1 year	5	4.4	9	9.9	14	6.8
1 to 2 years	9	7.9	7	7.7	16	7.8
3 – 5 years	7	6.1	15	16.5	22	10.7
More than 5 years	75	65.8	53	58.2	128	62.1
Missing					1	0.5
Total	114	100	91	100	206	100

Note: The percentages in this table are for the total sample within each gender group.

¹ The front desk personnel surveyed in this study are members of the Culinary Workers Union Local 226, an affiliate of the UNITE-HERE International Union.

The demographic characteristics of the respondents are described for female and male participants in Table 3. The data showed that there were one hundred fourteen (114; 55.3%) female respondents and ninety-two (92; 44.7%) male respondents. The data also showed that of the 206 respondents, 192 (93.2%) declared their marital status with 14 choosing not to reveal their state of marriage. Of the 192 respondents, 106 (55.2%) were female and 86 (44.8%) were male. These 192 respondents were representative of 103 (53.6%) married participants and 89 (46.4%) single individuals. The 106 female respondents represented a cross section that included 44 (41.5%) single and 62 (58.5%) married women, while the 86 male respondents represented 45 (52.3%) single and 41 (47.7%) married men.

Of the respondents who revealed their age, 112 were female and 90 were male, while two from each gender chose not to reveal their age. The females were evenly divided within the age range of 26 to 55 years, having only 10 females who listed their ages between 18 to 25 years old. The largest number of male respondents (28) was between 46 and 55 years old, and the smallest number of male respondents were in the age range from 18 to 25 with only 11 (12.2%) participating in the survey.

In terms of respondents' education background, 14 (6.8%) had only an elementary education. At least 54 (26.2%) had some high school education or had graduated from high school, whereas, 110 (53.4%) respondents had gone to college; however those with college backgrounds were pretty evenly split between those that graduated college 56 (27.2%) and those that did not 54 (26.2%).

Housekeeping/Porter was the department with the largest number of working respondents interviewed at 68 (33%) with most of them being female (47; 41.2%) as

compared to 21 (23.3%) of them being male. The next largest work related departments were kitchen and restaurant service, which had the same amount of female employees with 19 (16.7%), and had 21 (23.4%) and 22 (24.5%) male employees in those two departments respectively. Of the respondents who were surveyed, none worked in the laundry or valet departments at any of the hotel properties surveyed.

Regarding the length of time that the survey participants worked at the hotel properties where the survey was administered, more than half of all respondents, i.e. 128 (62.1%), worked at their current job for more than five years. Of these 128 individuals, 75 (65.8%) were representative of female hotel workers, and 53 (58.2%) represented the males who work in hotels in Las Vegas where the survey was conducted. Of the remaining work history categories, only two, those with 3 to 5 years, and those with less than 6 months of time on the job at the current hotel had percentages higher than ten (>10%). Twenty-two (10.7%) of both female and male workers had been working 3 to 5 years at their current hotel property, and 25 (12.1%) of respondents, representing the next highest number overall, worked less than 6 months at their current hotel property.

Hypothesis 1

H_0 = Unions are no longer relevant in terms of providing protection for members of the hotel workforce, because of existing state and federal laws.

H_A = Unions are relevant in terms of providing protection for members of the hotel workforce, in spite of existing state and federal laws.

Hypotheses 1 was drawn from question number 11 of the survey instrument which asked survey participants to state their level of agreement whether, “[w]ith the number of federal and state laws and regulations protecting employees and their rights, unions are not needed.” As seen in Table 4 below, out of 201 responses, where gender was used to determine how participants’ responded to survey question 11, ninety-nine respondents (49.3%) strongly disagreed, and an additional thirty-one respondents (15.4%) disagreed with the statement that unions were not needed because of federal and state laws that protected employees rights within the workplace. These figures combined showed that nearly two-thirds (64.7%) of all those union members surveyed by gender, believed that unions were relevant in terms of providing protection for members of the hotel workforce, in spite of existing state and federal laws and regulations. A review of respondents’ answer to the same question but based on the marital status of the participants in the study, showed a very similar response rate where ninety-five (50.2%) of both single and married respondents strongly disagreed, and an additional thirty-one respondents (15.9%) disagreed with question number 11. According to responses given by marital status, just over sixty-six (66.1%) percent of respondents combined to strongly disagree and disagree that unions were not needed, because federal and state laws protected employees rights within the workplace.

TABLE 4

A CROSS-TABULATION ANALYSIS BY GENDER AND MARITAL STATUS ON THE DEGREE TO WHICH UNIONS ARE NO LONGER NEEDED

	Gender		Frequencies ¹		Marital Status		Frequencies ²	
	M	F	Overall	%	S	M	Overall	%
Strongly Disagree	39	60	99	49.3	42	53	95	50.2
Disagree	17	14	31	15.4	11	19	30	15.9
Neutral	15	15	30	14.9	16	11	27	14.3
Agree	6	8	14	07.0	8	5	13	06.9
Strongly Agree	12	15	27	13.4	12	12	24	12.7
Totals	89	112	201	100	89	100	189	100

Note: ¹ frequency figures are representative of the data stated by Gender.

² frequency figures are representative of the data stated by Marital Status.

TABLE 5

SAMPLE STATISTICS AND SAMPLE T-TEST ANALYSIS OF THE NEED FOR UNION REPRESENTATION

	N	Mean	SD	SED	SEM	t	df	Sig. 2-tail	Sig. 1-tail
WFSLRUNN¹	201	2.20	1.449		.102	-7.836	200	.000	
MALE GENDER	89	2.27		.206		.615	199		.539
FEMALE	112	2.14							

Note: ¹ WFSLRUNN refers to *with federal/state laws/regulations union not needed*.

In testing Hypothesis 1 for significance, the researcher ran a one-sample 2-tailed t-test of the total 201 responses as shown in Table 5 above. The overall frequency statistics of the data in relation to question 11 indicated that there was a mean score of 2.20 with a standard deviation of 1.449, and a standard error of the mean of .102, based on a scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 3 = neutral, and 5 = strongly agree. Over sixty-

four percent (64.7%) of respondents combined to strongly disagree and disagree with statement 11 in the survey instrument.

A t-test of the Hypothesis based on a neutral score of 3 was conducted to test the difference between responses to the question of whether or not unions are needed in spite of existing federal and state laws and regulations for the protection of employees in the workplace. As shown in Table 5 the t-test was statistically significant with $t = -7.836$, $df = 200$, $Sig. = .000$.

Partitioning the data by gender, we observed that sixty-six (66%) percent of females and sixty-three (63%) percent of males combined to strongly disagree and disagree with research questionnaire item number 11. A two-group t-test showed that there was no significant difference due to gender in the responses, ($t = .615$, $df = 199$, $p = .539$). This was supported by the Chi-Square test which showed no difference, i.e. there was a greater association or similarity, in the distribution of responses due to gender ($\chi^2 = 2.768$, $p = .597$). Based on these findings, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected, thus accepting (proving) the alternative hypothesis (H_A) that states “unions are relevant in terms of providing protection for members of the hotel workforce, in spite of existing state and federal laws.”

Hypothesis 2

H_0 = The leadership style of empowerment of employees, and fulfillment of some needs, negates employees' desire to form a union and collectively bargain.

H_A = The leadership style of empowerment of employees, and fulfillment of some needs does not negate employees' desire to form a union and collectively bargain.

In order to test Hypothesis 2 of the research study, it was important for the researcher to have obtained data from the surveys that were administered to human resource directors as representatives of management, and from both non-union and union member hotel employees. Unfortunately, though three attempts were made to get human resource directors to complete the management survey instrument, the researcher was not able to collect any data from any hotel management operation within the survey area of Las Vegas, Nevada. Furthermore, the researcher was not allowed access to any non-union hotel property for the purpose of surveying hotel employees who were non-union members working in Las Vegas, Nevada.

Without having any data from management to describe the "leadership style of empowerment of employees," and not having collected data from non-union member hotel employees to determine if empowerment and the fulfilling of some needs negates their desire to form a union and collectively bargain, it was impossible to determine if H_0 in Hypothesis 2 should be rejected or not rejected. Therefore, no determination can be made regarding whether or not the leadership style of empowerment of employees, and fulfillment of some needs, negates employees' desire to form a union and collectively bargain.

Research Question 1

What are the major concerns and needs of hotel employees?

TABLE 6

IMPORTANCE ANALYSIS OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES' CONCERNS AND NEEDS

Concerns and Needs	Not Important			Least Important			Neutral			Important			Very Important		
	M	F	%	M	F	%	M	F	%	M	F	%	M	F	%
Time to complete job	1	2	1.5	6	2	4.0	6	14	9.9	38	27	32.2	38	68	52.5
Health Insurance	2	1	1.5	1	1	1.0	3	3	3.0	7	10	8.4	78	97	86.2
Use of Sick Leave	2	1	1.5	4	3	3.4	1	5	3.0	26	20	22.7	58	83	69.5
2-15 minute breaks daily	8	13	10.3	11	5	7.9	17	16	16.3	16	13	14.3	39	65	51.2
Qualifying time for health benefits	4	9	6.4	3	5	4.0	10	17	13.4	26	25	25.2	48	55	51.0
Employer supply/pay uniform/cleaning	7	13	9.8	3	7	4.9	7	5	5.9	17	15	15.6	58	73	63.9
Pension plan for retirement	2	2	1.9	1	2	1.5	2	1	1.5	8	11	9.2	79	98	85.9

A major focus of the research was the concerns and needs of hotel employees.

Table 6 above depicts how respondents rated the importance factor of seven job related attributes. For the seven attributes, 175 out of 203 respondents (86.2%) stated that health insurance was the most (very) important attribute, followed closely by having a good pension plan to support retirement, where 177 out of 206 (85.9%) of respondents rated that attribute as very important. Combining the rating factors of important and very important (based on a scale where 1 = not important, 2 = least important, 3 = neutral, 4 = important, and 5 = very important) resulted in the attribute of pension plan garnering 95.1% of all responses, while health insurance was second at 94.6%, followed closely by

the attribute of *being able to use sick leave for family matters* with a response rating of 92.2%.

Though all attributes received a higher than fifty percent rating of very important as shown in Table 6, the attribute of *time on the job before qualifying for health benefits* received the lowest rating of the seven attributes with fifty-one (51%) percent. However, when combining the two highest rating factors of important and very important, qualifying time for health benefits was higher than the need for two 15-minute breaks per day with a total importance rating of 76.2% as compared to 65.5% respectively.

TABLE 7
A COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES BASED ON GENDER
AND JOB IMPORTANCE ATTRIBUTES

		Time to do work	Health Ins.	Sick Leave	2-15 minute breaks	Qualifying time	Supply Uniform	Pension Plan
Male	N	89	91	91	91	91	92	92
	Valid	3	1	1	1	1	0	0
	Missing	4.19	4.74	4.47	3.74	4.22	4.26	4.75
	Mean	.915	.772	.899	1.357	1.063	1.212	.750
	Std Deviation	.097	.081	.094	.142	.111	.126	.076
	Std Error Mean							
Female	N	113	112	112	112	111	113	114
	Valid	1	2	2	2	3	1	0
	Missing	4.39	4.79	4.62	4.00	4.01	4.13	4.76
	Mean	.901	.617	.774	1.401	1.254	1.405	.720
	Std Deviation	.085	.058	.073	.132	.119	.132	.067
	Std Error Mean							
Total	N	202	203	203	203	202	205	206
	Valid	4	3	3	3	4	1	0
	Missing	4.30	4.77	4.55	3.88	4.10	4.19	4.76
	Mean	.910	.690	.833	1.384	1.174	1.320	.732
	Std Deviation	.064	.048	.058	.097	.083	.092	.051
	Std Error Mean							

As seen in Table 7 above, the mean score value or “central tendency” in the distribution of responses to the seven attributes that relate to Hotel Employees’ Concerns and Needs were all well above the neutral level of three. Table 7 also shows the grand mean scores for the seven attributes ranging from a low of 3.88 for the *need to have two 15-minute breaks daily during the work period*, to the highs of 4.77 and 4.76 for the issues of *health insurance* and having a *pension plan* respectively, based on a five (5) point scale.

The mean score responses of males and females on the issue of importance of having a pension plan was 4.75 and to 4.79 respectively. In a reverse similar pattern, the females rated having health insurance higher than having a pension plan by a mean score of 4.74 to 4.76 for the males. Being able to use sick leave for family matters was rated as the third highest concern by both males and females with a grand mean score of 4.55. The rating of the remaining four attributes based on the grand mean was 4.30% for *having adequate time to complete my job*; 4.19% for *having employer supply & pay for uniforms laundering*; 4.10% for the *length of time to qualify for full health benefits*; and the lowest rated attribute was *getting two 15-minute breaks each day during work* with a score of 3.88%. The mean score of the four remaining attributes based on female responses had the same order of ranking of importance with mean scores of 4.39%, 4.13%, 4.01%, and 4.00% respectively. However, the males chose supplying and paying for uniforms and laundering, along with the length of time to qualify for health insurance before the attribute of adequate time to complete the job. Both males and females considered getting two 15-minute breaks as the least important of all the attributes by both percentage scores as shown in Table 6 and mean scores as shown in Table 7.

Research Question 2

How satisfied are hotel workers with their current job?

TABLE 8

EMPLOYEE'S DEGREE OF SATISFACTION WITH CURRENT JOB
ACCORDING TO GENDER AND BY JOB TYPE/DEPARTMENT

Department	Strongly Disagree			Disagree			Neutral			Agree			Strongly Agree			Mean
	M	F	T ¹	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	
Housekeeping or Porter	4	1	5	3	11	14	3	12	15	4	13	17	7	10	17	3.40
Front Desk		1	1		3	3	1	2	3	3	2	5	2	3	5	3.59
Bell Person							2	3	5	2	3	5	1		1	3.64
Beverage Service					1	1		3	3	2	2	4		1	1	3.56
Restaurant Service	2		2	3	1	4	3	3	6	12	11	23	1	4	5	3.62
Kitchen	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	5	7	10	6	16	8	6	14	3.93
Banquet Service				1	1	2				1	2	3	1		1	3.50
Other	1		1	1		1	3		3	4		4	1	1	2	3.45
TOTALS (203)			11			27			42			77			46	

¹ T = Total

Research question number two focused on participants' rating of how satisfied they were with their current job. For the satisfaction measurement a five point Likert-type scale was used that had a response format where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. Table 8 shows that 203 out of 206 respondents answered the question, with their satisfaction measurements stated according to gender and by department, and their satisfaction mean stated only by department as a grand mean. When combining the responses of participants' who agreed and strongly

agreed with the statement, an overwhelming number of respondents (n = 123) stated that they were satisfied with their current job, which represented nearly sixty-one percent (60.6%) of all responses to the question. The number of respondents who were neutral to the question of job satisfaction was forty-two (20.7%), thereby leaving only thirty-eight respondents (18.7%) who combined to strongly disagree or disagree with the issue of job satisfaction. Based on the mean figures, the respondents who seemed most satisfied with their job were the kitchen workers with a mean satisfaction rating of 3.93 percent based on a rating of 5.0. The department with the lowest mean satisfaction rating was housekeeping with a mean of 3.40 percent.

TABLE 9

EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION BY DEPARTMENT AS DETERMINED BY USING A ONE-SAMPLE STATISTICS AND ONE-SAMPLE T-TEST

	N	Grand Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed	
CEIASWMJ ¹	204	3.58	1.139	.080	7.312	203	.000	
DEPARTMENT	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed	Sig. 1-tailed
Housekeeping/ Porter	68	3.40	1.271	.154	2.576	67	.012	.006
Front Desk	17	3.59	1.278	.310	1.898	16	.076	.038
Bell Person	11	3.64	.674	.203	3.130	10	.011	.006
Beverage Serv.	9	3.56	.882	.294	1.890	8	.095	.048
Restaurant Serv.	40	3.63	1.005	.159	3.934	39	.000	.000
Kitchen	41	3.93	1.081	.169	5.488	40	.000	.000
Banquet Service	6	3.50	1.225	.500	1.000	5	.363	.162
Other ²	11	3.45	1.214	.366	1.242	10	.242	.121

Note: ¹ Considering Everything, I Am Satisfied With My Job

² Other is representative of employees who work a graveyard (midnight) shift cleaning equipment, exhaust vents, and floors in restaurant kitchens.

A one-sample t-test was used to test the significant mean difference between employees rating of job satisfaction within their job types/departments (See Table 9). As seen in Table 9, job satisfaction was determined by using the t-test based on a 95% confidence interval, thus, any data with a p-value smaller than .05 would be considered significant. In using that testing method, we observed that there was statistical significance in job satisfaction for the Housekeeping/Porter (.012), Bell Person (.011), Restaurant Service (.0001), and Kitchen (.0001). The survey question was constructed in a manner that respondents took into consideration everything that affects them within the workplace. The responses for this question were based on a Likert-type scale with 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree, the testing level was set at 3 neutral. In analyzing the data, the researcher was concerned with how high above level 3 were respondents' answers. The level of respondents' answers was important to determine if union members were satisfied with management, which is a position that the union rarely agrees with. To determine this, it was important to observe whether there was statistical significance with the data as a one-tailed t-test analysis instead of a two-tailed analysis. In order to achieve this element the researcher was required to divide the Sig. 2-tailed data by 2, the results of which are presented in the Sig. 1-tailed column as seen above in Table 9.

By recalculating the significance data of the t-test, we observed that all of the departments had a p-value $<.05$ with the exception of Banquet Servers and Other. The results of this reevaluation shows statistical significance in six out of eight departments (91.7%) that the observed difference in sample means did not arise by chance, and

suggests that employees at these jobs or in these departments are satisfied with their current job, and that only 8.3% are not satisfied with their current job.

Research Question 3

How satisfied are hotel employees with management?

TABLE 10
EMPLOYEE'S DEGREE OF SATISFACTION WITH MANAGEMENT

	GENDER			
	Male	Female	Total	%
Strongly Disagree	10	16	26	12.7
Disagree	19	19	38	18.5
Neutral	29	36	65	31.7
Agree	24	19	43	21.0
Strongly Agree	9	24	33	16.1
Totals	91	114	205	100.0
Frequency Mean			3.09	
Std. Deviation			1.243	
Mean of Education			3.333	

When surveyed on how satisfied hotel employees had been with management, respondents were asked to consider managements' past efforts toward employee training, education, development, empowerment, and its endeavor to understand the employees' concerns. A review of Table 10 showed that there was almost a balance or an even split whereby nearly one-third of all respondents (64) combined to strongly disagree and disagree with their satisfaction of management (31.2%), and almost one-third (65) were neutral with regard to their satisfaction level (31.7%). Just over one-third, (76) of all respondents who were surveyed combined to agree and strongly agree with the statement

that they were satisfied with management, representing 37.1%. The mean of the frequencies was 3.09 out of 5.0 with the 5 being representative of strongly agreeing with the stated question. The researcher also chose to examine the employees' degree of satisfaction based on education, and job type/department, those figures were in direct relation to the data based on gender where the mean score based on the employee's education was 3.26 and for job classification, it was 3.10.

TABLE 11
CASE SUMMARY ANALYSIS OF EMPLOYEES' SATISFACTION
LEVEL WITH MANAGEMENT BY DEPARTMENT

	N	Grand Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of Mean
IASWCM ¹	205	3.10	1.243	.087
DEPARTMENTS	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of Mean
Housekeeping/Porter	68	3.04	1.450	.176
Front Desk	17	3.53	1.328	.322
Bell Person	11	3.27	.786	.237
Beverage Service	9	3.00	1.500	.500
Restaurant Service	40	2.88	.992	.157
Kitchen	41	3.24	1.135	.177
Banquet Service	7	2.57	.976	.369
Other	11	3.27	1.272	.384

Note: ¹ I Am Satisfied With Current Management

A comparison analysis of employee satisfaction by job type/department was also conducted as shown in Table 11, once again using a neutral score of 3 based on a rating where 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. When analyzing employee job satisfaction by job type/department, employees were not overly committed to disagreeing

or agreeing with their satisfaction of management. In comparing the mean scores between gender and department, the scores are almost identical at 3.09 and 3.10 respectively. Even though the Front Desk employees' responses had a mean score of 3.53 as shown in Table 11, with only 16 degrees of freedom the results were not statistically significant in favor of management satisfaction, though close. Similarly, the Banquet Service employees' responses showed a mean score of 2.57. Being below the neutral level of three, indicating that some employees are dissatisfied with management, however, at six degrees of freedom this statistic is also not significant.

Research Question 4

Does empowering employees to make some minor work related management decisions give them a voice in making decisions and thus fulfill a need?

TABLE 12

EMPOWERMENT GIVES ME A FEELING OF BELONGING AND SELF-WORTH

Department/ Job Type	Strongly Disagree			Disagree			Neutral			Agree			Strongly Agree			Total N
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	
CUSTOMER CONTACT																
Front Desk		3	3	1	1	2	3		3	1	1	2	1	6	7	17
Bell Person		1	1				2	2	4	1	1	2	2	2	4	11
Beverage Service		2	2	1		1				1	2	3		2	2	8
Restaurant Service				1	1	2	5	6	11	9	7	16	6	5	11	40
Banquet Service				1		1	1		1	1		1		4	4	7
Valet																0
Subtotal		6	6	4	2	6	11	8	19	13	11	24	9	19	28	83
NON-CUSTOMER CONTACT																
Housekeeping / Porter	1	2	3	3	5	8	5	10	15	9	10	19	3	18	21	66
Kitchen	1	1	2	1	2	3	5	5	10	8	4	12	7	4	11	38
Laundry																0
Other	2		2				3		3	2		2	3	1	4	11
Subtotal	4	3	7	4	7	11	13	15	28	19	14	33	13	23	36	115
Total			13			17			47			57			64	198

The data contents of Table 12 is reflective of the respondents' attitude toward a feeling of being a part of management, and also one that imparts a stronger feeling of self-worth, supposedly due to management's leadership style of empowerment. In determining the attitude of respondents, the researcher chose to make comparisons based on gender and according to job type/department. In relation to job types/departments, the

data was separated according to those employees whose jobs required personal contact with hotel guests, and those employees who traditionally did not have any personal contact with customers, though they might have been in contact with customers or guests while they carried out their work related duties.

By separating respondents according to customer contact or lack thereof, eighty-three (83) respondents, representing 41.9 percent of all respondents, worked in jobs that brought them in personal contact with hotel guests. A total of 115 respondents (58.1%), worked in jobs where they mainly did not have personal contact with customers. Of those 83 individuals, 28 strongly agreed and 24 agreed that being empowered had given them a feeling of belonging and self-worth. The fifty-two agreeing participants were representative of a combined response of 62.7% of the respondents who had daily contact with hotel guests, and showed a positive response to the research question. Of those 115 individuals who did not normally have customer contact, 36 strongly agreed and 33 agreed, which was representative of a combined response of 60.0%, that being empowered had given them a feeling of belong and self-worth. A very small percentage, 14.4% of employees with customer contacts, and 15.6% of employees who normally do not have customer contacts, combined to strongly disagree and disagree with the statement that empowering employees to make some minor work related management decisions gave them a feeling of belonging and self-worth.

TABLE 13

ANALYSIS OF IMPORTANT DIFFERENCES BY DEPARTMENT:
EMPOWERMENT FOR FEELING OF BELONGING AND SELF-WORTH

	N	Grand Mean	Std. Error of Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed	
BEGMFOBS ¹	199	3.71	.085	1.196	8.359	198	.000	
CUSTOMER CONTACT	N	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed	Sig. 1-tailed
Front Desk	17	3.47	.385	1.586	1.224	16	.239	.1195
Bell Person	11	3.73	.384	1.272	1.896	10	.087	.0435
Beverage Serv.	8	3.25	.590	1.669	.424	7	.685	.3425
Restaurant Serv.	40	3.90	.138	.871	6.534	39	.000	.0000
Banquet Service	7	4.14	.459	1.215	2.489	6	.047	.0235
NO CUSTOMER CONTACT								
Housekeeping / Porter	66	3.71	.144	1.174	4.929	65	.000	.0000
Kitchen	38	3.71	.184	1.137	3.853	37	.000	.0000
Other	11	3.55	.455	1.508	1.200	10	.258	.1290

Note: ¹ Being Empowered Gives Me A Feeling Of Belonging and Self-worth.

In examining responses based on research question 4, a review of the total mean of participants responses according to their job type/department, showed that based on a scale of one to five with 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree, the grand mean is 3.71. Table 13 also shows that the lowest mean by job/department grouping was in Beverage Service with a mean of 3.25. The job/department with the highest mean of 4.14 was Banquet Service. A t-test of the research question was conducted to test the difference between responses to the question of empowerment leading to a feeling of belonging and self-worth, with a neutral score set at 3. As shown in Table 13 the t-test was statistically significant with $t = 8.359$, $df = 198$, $p < 0.001$.

With a test level of three, the researcher was concerned with where respondents' answers were in proportion to being above or below three. To determine this if was important to observe whether there was statistical significance with the data as a one-tailed t-test analysis instead of a two-tailed analysis. In order to achieve this factor the researcher was required to divide the Sig. 2-tailed data by two, the results of which are presented in the Sig. 1-tailed column as seen in Table 13 above.

By recalculating the t-test data based on a one-tailed analysis, we now observed that all of the departments have a p-value < 0.05 except for Front Desk, Beverage Service, and Other. Thus, there is statistical significance to show that 5 out of 8 departments (81.9% of individuals where N = 199) believe that empowerment gives them a feeling of belonging and self-worth.

Research Question 7

What do union employees expect of management?

TABLE 14

ANALYSIS OF WHETHER PAY INCREASES ARE MORE IMPORTANT THAN HEALTH BENEFITS

	Gender		Frequencies ¹		Marital Status		Frequencies ²	
	M	F	Overall	%	S	M	Overall	%
Strongly Disagree	12	30	42	20.5	17	23	40	20.8
Disagree	13	29	42	20.5	20	30	40	20.8
Neutral	31	17	48	23.4	26	20	46	24.0
Agree	21	14	35	17.1	16	16	32	16.7
Strongly Agree	14	24	38	18.5	10	24	34	17.7
Totals	91	114	205	100	89	103	192	100

Note: ¹ The frequency figures are representative of the data stated by Gender.

² The frequency figures are representative of the data stated by Marital Status.

No individual research question directly asked the question, *what hotel employees expected of management*. One of the research questions that has at least a direct relationship to what employees would like to have from management was “receiving annual increases to my pay is more important than any other benefits.” In this case, the researcher is interpreting the question as though hotel employees were expecting annual pay increases from management instead of better benefits, in order to maintain a lifestyle that is equal or better than the annual cost of living increases within the economy. As seen in Table 14, just over two-fifths of employees, 41.0% and 41.6% by gender and marital status respectively, combined to strongly disagree and disagree with the statement that getting an annual pay raise from management is more important than getting better benefits. Just over one-third of the hotel employees, 35.6% and 34.4% by gender and marital status, believed that getting an annual pay raise from management was more important than any other benefits.

TABLE 15

ONE-SAMPLE STATISTICS AND ONE-SAMPLE T-TEST ANALYSIS:
IMPORTANCE OF A PAY INCREASE OVER OTHER BENEFITS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed	Std. Error Diff.
RAIPRMIB ¹	205	2.93	1.393	.097	-.752	204	.453	
MALE GENDER	91	3.13			1.936	203	.060	.190
FEMALE	114	2.76						
SINGLE MARITAL STATUS	89	2.80			-.923	190	.357	.357
MARRIED	103	2.98						

Note: ¹ RAIPRMIB refers to receiving annual increases (to my) pay rate (is) more important (than any other) benefits.

An examination of the data in Table 15, as it pertained to research question 7, shows that the grand mean of 2.93, which represents the participants' responses to the statement that pay increases are more important than any other benefits, is very close to the neutral level of 3. This is based on a scale of one to five with 1 = strongly disagree, 3 = neutral, and 5 = strongly agree. Table 15 also shows that the mean scores for males 3.13 and females 2.76, along with those based on being single 2.80 or married 2.98 are also within an acceptable range to 3, which means that respondents neither by gender nor marital status disagreed or agreed with the statement presented.

A t-test of the research question was conducted to test the difference between responses to the question of annual pay increases being more important than any other benefit, with a neutral score set at 3. As shown in Table 15 the t-test was not statistically significant with $t = -.752$, $df = 204$, $Sig. = .453$. Additionally, the t-tests were run on the responses of the survey participants by gender with $t = 1.936$, $df = 203$, $Sig. = .060$, and by marital status with $t = -.923$, $df = 190$, $Sig. = .357$, and in neither case was there any statistical significance.

Research Question 8

What are three main reasons hotel employees want to unionize?

TABLE 16

IMPORTANCE OF UNIONIZATION BY GENDER AND MARITAL STATUS

	Gender			Marital Status			Statistics		
	M	F	% AVG	S ¹	M ²	% AVG	Freq.	Mean	Standard Deviation
Believed Important for Job Security								4.42	1.144
Least Important	9	5	6.8	8	6	7.3	14		
Somewhat Important	1	2	1.5	3		1.6	3		
Important	5	11	7.8	7	9	8.3	16		
Very Important	10	12	10.7	10	12	11.5	22		
Most Important	67	84	73.3	61	76	71.4	151		
Only Way Get a Job In a Hotel								2.88	1.212
Least Important	17	15	15.5	12	16	14.6	32		
Somewhat Important	19	34	25.7	25	25	26.0	53		
Important	14	29	20.9	19	23	21.9	43		
Very Important	34	29	30.6	28	29	29.7	63		
Most Important	8	7	7.3	5	10	7.8	15		
Provides Social Activity and Camaraderie								2.74	1.025
Least Important	8	18	12.6	12	14	13.5	26		
Somewhat Important	27	31	28.2	30	25	28.6	58		
Important	40	30	34.0	22	39	31.8	70		
Very Important	14	33	22.8	22	23	23.4	47		
Most Important	3	2	2.4	3	2	2.6	5		
Total per Grouping	92	114		89	103		206		

1 = Single

2 = Married

Survey participants were asked to rank by level of importance five attributes that pertained to reasons why they joined the union. The level of ranking was based on a 5 point scale where 1 = least important, 2 = somewhat important, 3 = important, 4 = very important, and 5 = most important. Table 16 shows the three main reasons why hotel employees joined the union; those reasons were ranked as:

- Most important – job security;
- Very important – only way to get a job in a hotel; and
- Important – union provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people.

The statement that received the second lowest ranking (somewhat important) as the reason for joining the union, with a mean score of 2.63, was because family members were, or had been union members. The lowest ranking statement rated least important with a mean score of 2.29, was because of a dislike for a supervisor.

The data in Table 16 is reflective of the three main reasons why hotel employee union members chose to join the union. The most important reason for wanting to join the union reported by 67 (72.8%) males and 84 (73.7%) females was job security. In a comparison based upon marital status, 61 (68.5%) males and 76 (73.8%) females believed it was important for job security. There was very little difference in the reason given for joining the union when comparing gender with marital status. This attribute of unionization for the purpose of job security had a mean score of 4.42, which was 1.54 points higher than the next highest mean score of 2.88. Joining the union because respondents believed it was the only way to get a job in a hotel in Las Vegas, was the second highest ranked reason with a mean score of 2.88.

Of the males and females who considered membership to be very important and the most important reason for job security, there were a combined 173 out of 206 responses, which was representative of 84%. Examining the same importance factor using marital status, there were 159 out of 202 responses, or 82.9% who considered union membership important for job security. A similar comparison based on age and job type/department showed an overall ranking of 73.0% of survey participants who believed unionization was important for job security.

The second most important reason given by respondents for joining the union was to obtain a job in a hotel. However, the respondents' ratings were not nearly as high as that for the job security attribute. Joining the union to get a job in a hotel was considered most important and very important by 37.9% and 37.5% based on gender and marital status respectively. As seen in Table 16, 41.2% of males and females and 40.6% of respondents by marital status believed that getting a job in a hotel was the least important or somewhat important of a reason for joining the union.

The third ranked reason to join the union was for camaraderie and social activities with similar people, which had a mean score of 2.74. Table 16 shows that based on gender, just over forty percent (40.8%) considered this attribute to be least important and somewhat important, with nearly sixty percent (59.2%) believing that joining the union was important, very important and most important for camaraderie and social activity.

Research Question 5 and 6

5. Does management follow an open door policy:
 - To address employee concerns and needs?
 - Because it is considered critical for employee happiness?
 - To give employees a voice within the workplace?

6. Does management consider:
 - The human resource director to be a primary representative for employees?
 - Non-union employees more committed to their job than union employees?
 - Unions to play an important role in securing better wages and benefits for employees?
 - Employees' right to collectively bargain without union interference?

Since the researcher was not able to collect any data from any hotel management, operation within the survey area of Las Vegas, Nevada it was impossible to answer research questions 5 and 6. Unfortunately, the three attempts that were made to get human resource directors to complete the management survey instrument were unsuccessful. Without having any data from management to describe its open door policy if any, and certain other policies and management considerations it was impossible to determine any response to questions 5 and 6.

CHAPTER V

IMPLICATIONS, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Summary

The purpose and objectives of this study were focused on the needs and concerns of both employees, mainly hotel and restaurant workers, and management in the hospitality industry. The researcher was also interested in how employees viewed management and how management viewed employees, especially considering that the hospitality industry is composed of union, non-union, and split-union operations.

The general purpose of this study was:

- 1) To examine what is considered to be important and a priority to hotel workers in order to maintain a happy and productive work environment;
- 2) To develop a model of the concerns and needs of hotel employees, which both management and the union can use as a guide in future collective bargaining agreement negotiations;

- 3) To determine hotel management's view of employee commitment and whether or not the collective bargaining process plays an, and
- 4) To ascertain why employees joined the union.

Statement of Objectives

The objectives of this study were to determine:

- 1) what are the important concerns and needs of hotel employees;
- 2) whether or not employees believe that unionization is the only means available to have management address their needs and concerns;
- 3) if hotel employees believe that management understands, at least to some degree, the concerns and needs of the workforce;
- 4) what measures management has taken to address the concerns and needs of the workforce; and
- 5) what effect unionization and collective bargaining has on guaranteeing the fulfilling of employees' concerns and needs.

The population of this study was defined as those individuals, who were active members of UNITE-HERE International Union, members of hotel management and human resource departments, and other individuals who were non-union members and working in hotels within a hospitality related field. The population of this study actually consisted of active members of UNITE-HERE International Union whose members were associated with the local chapter of UNITE-HERE, which was the Culinary Workers Union Local 226 Las Vegas, Nevada. A convenience sample of 250 hotel employees

who were active members of the union was conducted from July 22, 2005 through July 28, 2005. The employee survey population consisted of employees who worked in/as Housekeeping/Porter, Front Desk, Bell Person, Bartender, Restaurant Service, Kitchen, Banquet Service, Laundry, Valet, or other directly related hotel operation.

The survey instruments created for this study were developed from information obtained in literature reviews, interviews with union members and officers, hospitality executives, academicians, and non-union management employees. Prior to conducting the survey, the questionnaires were pretested in a pilot study that was distributed to twenty (n = 20) participants for review, analysis and revision as needed to obtain the information critical to the research purpose and objectives. The questionnaire that was used to survey union member hotel employees consisted of five sections. The first section pertained to general questions about management policies and procedures, importance of a union, and the employees' view or opinion as it pertained to certain issues or policies. This section required responses based on a Likert-type scale from 1 = strongly disagree, 3 = neutral, to 5 = strongly agree. The second section of the survey was used to determine the level of importance of seven job related attributes based on a Likert-type scale where 1 = not important, 2 = somewhat important, 3 = important, 4 = very important, and 5 = most important. The third section was composed of two yes or no questions used to determine if the respondent was a member of a union and whether the respondent believed their employer conducted an employee concerns and needs assessment survey. The fourth section-required respondents to rank in order of importance their reason for having joined the union. The final section asked questions of a general demographic nature. Two Hundred Fifteen (215) surveys were returned, giving

a response rate of 86%, which resulted in having 206 usable surveys for a usable response rate of 95.8%.

Summary of Survey Findings

The union member hotel employees this study surveyed believed:

1. management was willing to invest in their development and training (education) (48.6%);
2. management tried to understand employee problems on the job (35.6%);
3. union membership was important for finding a job (75.7%);
4. human resource departments used an open door policy to listen to the employees' concerns and complaints (46.1%);
5. it was important to have union negotiated employment contracts for hotel workers in other cities end at the same time (62.5%);
6. having a shop steward represent them in the workplace was important (84.4%);
7. management gave them the freedom needed to do what was best for the customer (43.2%);
8. their human resource department fairly represented their concerns and issues to management (37.2%);

9. their employer empowered them to make minor work related management decisions in order to please the customer (42.7%);
10. that being empowered to make some work related decisions gave them a feeling of belonging and self-worth (60.8%);
11. unions were still needed in spite of the number of federal and state laws and regulations protecting employees (64.7%);
12. considering everything, they were satisfied with their job (60.2%);
13. unions played an important role in securing better wages and benefits for employees (85.0%);
14. receiving annual increases in pay rate was more important than any other benefits (35.6%);
15. they were satisfied with current management because of the company's efforts toward training, education, development, empowerment and its endeavor to understand my concerns (37.1%);
16. having adequate time to complete their daily job was important (84.7%);
17. having health insurance was important (94.6%);
18. it was important to be allowed to use sick leave for family matters (92.2%);
19. getting two 15-minute breaks each day during work was important (65.5%);
20. the length of time to qualify for full health benefits was important (76.2%);

21. that having the employer supply & pay for uniforms and laundering was important (79.5%);
22. that having a pension plan that would support them upon retiring was important (95.1%).
23. respondents were all union members;
24. their employer conducted an employee concern and needs assessment survey (53.9%);
25. that it was important to join the union because:
 - a. their family members are or have been union members (31.1%);
 - b. they disliked their supervisor (20.9%);
 - c. it provided camaraderie and social activity with similar people (25.2%);
 - d. it was the only way to get a job in a hotel (37.9%);
 - e. they believed it was important for job security (84.0%).

Findings and Discussion of Research Questions and Hypothesis

Major Concerns and Needs

Of the seven attributes proposed to survey participants, all received an importance rating above 51%, however, three of the attributes emerged as a major concern. An analysis of the frequencies and mean scores of the three attributes suggested that hotel

employees were greatly concerned about having their employers offer a pension plan that would help provide the participant with a comfortable retirement. An overwhelming number of respondents (95.1%; mean of 4.76) rated this attribute as the most important concern and need of all. This attribute was closely followed by the respondents' concern for health insurance (94.6%; mean of 4.77) covering medical, dental, vision, and eyewear, which was hotel employees' second most important concern. The rising cost of medical benefits had made health insurance one of several major contract issues in negotiations that led to hotel employee union strikes in three large cities in the United States in the summer of 2004. Based on a question posed to hotel employees as to whether or not they wanted annual increases in pay as opposed to increases in benefits, more employees chose the benefits increase rather than the pay increase. The third most important attribute to hotel union employees was being able to use personal sick leave in order to attend to family matters (92.2%; mean of 4.55). Whether it was for the care of an elderly parent, spouse or child by a single working individual or a spouse where the household was a two-income household, the data suggested that the concern by employees to be able to use their personal sick leave to care for the needs of other family members had become a major issue.

The model below is a representation of union member hotel employees' concerns and needs. The issues of increased wages, working conditions, the supplying and cleaning uniforms by the employer, and qualifying time for the activation of health benefits were all major issues in the past. The issues of wages and working conditions were two of the original issues that led to the formation of unions to protect employees, especially those that worked in coalmines and steel mills back in the 19th and early 20th

centuries. In the 21st century, these four issues, though still important, seemed to have been replaced by such issues as health benefits, pension and retirement plans, job/time management, and using personal sick leave for family matters. The *Model of Employee Concerns and Needs* was developed so that management and the union can use it as a guide in future collective bargaining negotiations in the hopes that balance, equity and voice can be obtained for both the employer and employee.

MODEL OF EMPLOYEE CONCERNS AND NEEDS



1. Increase in Wages

Wages have been at the forefront of employees' concerns since the Civil War Era and will continue to be an issue in the 21st century as employee/employer contracts expire and negotiations begin for new collective bargaining agreements. However, wages from the very beginning were fairer, in fact, wages being paid in the United States were better than those in Europe, which was a major reason for the influx of immigrants beginning in the late 1800's. In the middle of the 20th century, wages for cooks and assistants were between \$9 and \$15 per day, and wait-staff and housekeepers were being paid \$4 to \$8 per day including tips. However, it should be noted that a meal was only five-cents, a complete turkey dinner about twenty-cents, and a glass of bourbon or whiskey was only eight to 12 cents. Today's union member hotel worker in Las Vegas earns nearly this equivalent wage per hour. (See Appendix C, Table 18). This study showed that receiving annual increases in pay rate was more important than any other benefits to only thirty-six percent (35.6%) of employees surveyed.

2. Health Benefits

In spite of the hard work and long hours required by many workers in the hotel and restaurant industry benefits did not become an issue until the middle of the 20th century when post WWII and Korean War costs forced a freeze on wage increases by the government. The health and benefit plans that the union fought for at that time were mostly comprehensive plans that centered around life insurance, sickness and accident payments, and hospitalization. Health coverage for the cold or flu was provided for union members at health care facilities operated by the union. The rising costs of health care in the 21st century will probably make health benefits the leading issue over wages in the future. Health care for hotel employees now includes medical, eye and vision (glassware), dental, chiropractic and other related physical and mental health issues. Today nearly ninety-five percent (94.6%) of employees surveyed considered health insurance to be the second most important concern and need of the hotel worker.

3. Working Conditions

Unlike other industries where work conditions often referred to job/duty hazards, such as coal mining where mineshafts collapsed on miners or miners contracted black lung disease, in the hotel and restaurant industry it was often an issue of long hours and long workweeks. As far back as the last quarter of the 19th century, the waiters and bartenders daily and weekly work schedule was a main concern of the employee whose association or union was represented by the Knights of Labor. A twelve to sixteen hour workday for six and sometimes seven days per week was often demanded of the employee, and even required if the employee wanted to keep their job. The demand for an eight-hour workday was first presented by the National Labor Union on behalf of the coalminers. The number of hours worked each day has a direct relationship on the workload of an individual, where management had been requiring some employees to complete more work within the same 8-hour workday. This workload issue was the driving force behind the unions arguing that two 15-minute breaks from work each day for the employee to relax and get unstressed was required. This issue is still a bargaining point at several hotel properties on the east coast of the United States. According to management, the workload issue stems from the fact that at major hotel properties like the ones in Las Vegas where the survey was conducted, at least 8 to 12 employees in any one-department are on vacation each week. Additionally, there are at least 1 to 2 daily sick calls and 3 to 4 individuals who were on short term or extended leave under the

Family Medical Leave Act. With the continued rise in the cost of living, especially health benefits, an increase in wages and benefits will continue to be demanded by the unions, thus directly affecting the employees workload. This will make workload issues a contract contention in all future collective bargaining negotiations. Getting two 15-minute breaks each day during work was important to nearly sixty-six percent (65.5%) of employees surveyed.

4. Employer Paid Uniforms and Laundering

Having the employer supply & pay for uniforms and laundering of uniforms was important to just over seventy-nine percent (79.5%) of hotel employees. This issue was deemed important because of the daily requirement that employees come to work wearing a clean, freshly laundered uniform, and the continued cost that an employee would have incurred. It is standard in nearly all union negotiated contracts that the employer either furnish or pay for the uniform or work clothes worn by employees on the job, and that the employer shall launder or pay for the cleaning of such uniforms, along with having a clean and well-ventilated locker room. The uniform requirement extends to shoes, boots, and hose that might be required for cocktail or other types of service employees. This is usually written into the contract along with the employers' requirement to furnish two to three employee meals each day or the equivalent cost of a meal to the employer. Supplying and cleaning of uniforms will probably not be an issue in the future since it is expected by both management and union to be included into the negotiated collective bargaining agreement.

5. Pension & Retirement Plan

The Social Security Act (old age and retirement fund) was passed in 1935 to help provide for the nations elderly. After World War II, the issue of retirement and pension plans (inclusive of life insurance) for employees became a major issue. The social security fund that was established then seems to have some major problems facing it today. In the 21st century there is a question lurking as to whether the federal government's social security fund will be able to make payments to individuals upon their future retirement. Believing that it was important to protect their members, the unions had instituted a pension fund in which both employees and the employer were required to contribute, so that monies could accumulate for the retirement, severance, and welfare of surviving dependents of union member employees. This survey did not determine if the hotel employee union members were aware that they already have a pension and retirement in place for them. However, this issue was considered the most important to the hotel employees, where ninety-five percent (95.1%) agreed that having a pension plan that will support them upon retiring was a concern to them.

6. Personal Sick Leave for Family Matters

Ninety-two percent (92.2%) of respondents believed it was important to be allowed to use sick leave for family matters. Most contracts provide for leave of absence; however only certain ones such as military, educational and union might be paid leaves. The issue of leaves of absence was covered in detail in the last negotiated contract for hotel employees at the surveyed properties. Though the employees were granted liberal leave of absence time from their job, it was also required that the leave be taken without pay. For the union workers in the Las Vegas hotels, leave of absence was covered by the

Federal Family Leave and Medical Act, the collective bargaining agreement, and in part by the Employer's Insurance Company of Nevada. This researcher was under the assumption that the high percentage of responses to the question of using sick leave for family matters was because sick leave was a paid leave of absence. Considering the liberal offerings under the aforementioned coverages, it is doubtful that the issue of using sick leave for personal family matters will be a negotiated item in future collective bargaining agreements.

7. Job/Time Management

Job/Time Management has a partial relationship with working conditions in that the demands of the job within a certain time factor seem to be creating hardship and concern to the hotel employee. At a grievance hearing, which this researcher was allowed to attend, both utility and housekeeping employees voiced concerns that supervisors were not prepared with the daily work schedule, nor had they pulled the daily supplies to be issued by the employee for the days work, when the employee arrives to begin their day. Additionally, a concern had been raised that supervisors were forcing some employees to do the work of others. An example of this was presented by a member of the utility crew who cleaned exhaust hoods over stoves, stoves and other pieces of kitchen equipment during their midnight shift; however, he had been required by his supervisor to wash pots and pans that were not done by the regular kitchen crew. Other individuals in housekeeping voiced their concerns that they were being forced to complete certain job duties in a shorter (faster) time than the usual standard time required to complete the work. Getting the employee to do maintains the operations labor force thereby saving money for the operation. The current study suggested that eighty-five percent (84.7%) of employees believed it was important to have adequate time to complete their daily job.

8. Qualifying time for health benefits

Of all the concerns and needs listed in the survey instrument for participants to consider, the length of time to qualify for full health benefits was rated the least important of all attributes, however it was considered important to seventy-six (76.2%) percent of employees. Because of the turnover rate of employees in the hospitality industry, employers often require a probationary period for the employees to prove themselves and make sure to some degree of certainty that the employee will remain on the job, before the employer incurs the added cost of full health benefits. Today's hospitality worker is required to complete 336 hours (9 weeks) of full-time employment to be eligible for full health benefits, and must maintain at least a 28 hour per week work schedule if they want the company to pay for full health benefits. If the employee falls below the required 28 hour per week schedule, the employee may pay the required supplemental difference in order to maintain the full health coverage.

Job Satisfaction

The data that was analyzed based on gender suggests that a considerable number of respondents were satisfied with their job after considering everything that management had done for them and how well they were treated. A t-test analysis disclosed no significant differences by gender. However, when the data was analyzed according to the job type/departments, based on a 1-tailed t-test the data suggested that there was statistical significance with regard to job satisfaction in the Banquet Service department and in Other meaning that the employees in these departments were not very satisfied with their jobs. Reasons why banquet service personnel might not be satisfied with their job could be that they were part-time employees who were usually on-call for work depending on the numbers and size of the banquets that were scheduled. Furthermore, being a part-time employee might not offer them adequate benefits. Other reasons could be that any tip for the banquet servers were preset in the banquet service contract, and it was customary to pool the tip and share it with service managers, bartenders, Maître d'Hotel, and others involved with the service function. The lessening of tips for the banquet server might have also had an affect on the respondents' answers.

As for the dissatisfaction of the job by those who listed their job type/department as other, these individuals were usually those who worked a night (graveyard) shift in the hotel kitchen cleaning exhaust hoods, stoves, floors, and carrying out similar duties. This researcher was fortunate to be invited to a grievance hearing with the personnel department that was requested by the union on behalf of these workers at one particular hotel. One of the issues raised by the workers was the lack of concern and understanding by the night supervisor who was often not available for assistance when a problem arose

or when cleaning equipment broke or supplies were needed. Additionally, an ancillary complaint that was also brought-up was that the worker could not complete their duties properly or on time when such instances occurred and as a result, the supervisor often reprimanded the employee or wrote-them-up for poor performance, sometimes singling out one individual who was not particularly liked by the supervisor. Other issues such as breaks or needed assistance for a duty that required two persons to complete were also presented by the workers at this grievance hearing. Based on the timing of the survey and the grievance hearing, it was very likely that these issues had a direct impact on how the workers in the *Other* job type/department responded to the question on job satisfaction.

Satisfaction with Management

The analysis of this study showed there were no statistically significant differences in hotel union member employees satisfaction rating of management based on gender. The responses to the survey question were nearly evenly distributed with almost one-third in disagreement with the stated question, nearly one-third were neutral on the subject matter, and just over one-third agreed that they were satisfied with management. These scores also closely resembled the respondents' attitude toward management satisfaction according to education level and job type/department. Where the mean score analysis showed a slight indication of dissatisfaction with management was in the responses by Front Desk employees. However, the number of responses, which is directly related to the degrees-of-freedom used in mean score determination, were minimal and therefore not significant.

Empowerment, Self-worth, and Fulfilling a Need

Empowering employees was done or should be done for the purpose of helping them to work in a context where empowerment acts as a motivator and a positive reinforcement of one's ability. Empowerment of employees, especially within the hospitality industry, was brought to the forefront of management training and education nearly two decades ago by the Ritz Carlton Corporation, where the implementation of empowerment was to motivate employees and to focus on customer satisfaction. Today, there are many companies that believe in empowerment and many that do not trust employees enough to empower them with any decision making authority. A question in this study asked the participants to determine if being empowered by management to make minor work related management decisions gave the employee a feeling of being a part of management, which in return imparts in the employee a feeling of belonging and self-worth. In analyzing the respondents' scores concurrently by gender and department, over sixty-one percent agreed that empowerment had given them a feeling of belonging and self-worth, as opposed to fifteen percent who disagreed with the statement.

In the hospitality industry, some employees are directly in contact with guests and others with little, if any, contact. This study also examined whether the type of job/department in conjunction with whether employees had or did not have contact with customers, affected their response to the empowerment question. The analysis suggested that customer contact did not have any affect on the issue of empowerment leading to a feeling of belonging and self-worth. An examination of the data using a t-test analysis indicated that five of the eight job types/departments showed statistical significance thereby indicating that the individuals in those jobs/departments believed that

empowerment had given them a feeling of belonging and self-worth. However, within the departments related to Front Desk, Beverage Service and Other operations, the respondents had not believed that being empowered gave them any feeling of belonging or self-worth. Front Desk and Beverage Service departments do have customer contact; however, *Other* is a non-traditional department where the employees work a night (graveyard) shift cleaning kitchen equipment and other related kitchen duties having no customer contact. There was no statistical significance in relation to the tested data for these three departments, suggesting that the employees in these departments did not strongly believe that empowerment gave them a feeling of belonging and self-worth. This response might not be that unusual since individuals within these departments are traditionally not empowered to make minor work related management decisions. Overall, the data suggests that giving employees a voice in the decision making process gave them a feeling of belonging to the company, and lifted their personal level of self-worth within the workplace and as a team member.

Expectation from Management

When posed with the question of whether getting an annual pay increase from management was more important than getting any benefits, over forty percent of respondents by gender and marital status disagreed with the statement, suggesting that getting benefits from management was more important to respondents than an annual pay increase. However, just over one-third of respondents believed that getting a pay increase from management was more important than getting benefits. Because the disagreed response rate was just slightly higher and thus relatively close to the agreed

response rate, a one-sample t-test was run which determined that there was no statistical significance, either by gender or marital status, on the issue of having an annual increase in pay from management instead of additional or better benefits.

Belonging to a Union

In this study, participants were asked to rank in order of importance their reason for joining a union. The three responses that scored the highest were job security, ability to get a job in a hotel, and a means of social activity and camaraderie. Respondents to the question overwhelmingly selected job security as the major reason for joining the union by more than a two-to-one margin over their second chose of believing that union membership was the only way to get a job in a hotel. Considering that so many employees in the hospitality industry, especially those working in hotels, were minorities, it does not seem unusual for respondents to this survey to believe that the union played an important role in helping them to maintain their job. Additionally, one must also consider that the respondents to this study were all union members.

The reason for joining the union because it was the only way to get a job in a hotel seems to be directly related to the fact that the respondents were union members. Though the question had a mean score below the neutral level of three, thereby suggesting that this had little importance to over forty percent of the respondents, it was the second highest ranked attribute of the five offered to respondents. The survey was conducted in the Las Vegas area where there were several major hotel operations whose employees were not union members or part of a collective bargaining agreement.

The third highest ranked attribute based on importance was that individuals joined the union because they believed it provided for social activity and camaraderie. In a city like Las Vegas, which is not only large but extremely tourist oriented and dominated by the Caucasian majority, it seems logical that a union in an industry that employs so many minorities would be a center for social activity and camaraderie. Las Vegas is not an inexpensive city in which to live, and therefore social activities for residents would seem to focus around civic, church or other organizational units such as a union. Since the responses to the question were based on a ranking scale, it is important to mention that nearly sixty percent of respondents believed that this issue was important to them.

Hypothesis Testing

The issue as to whether or not unions were no longer needed to represent employee concerns and needs was being considered in relation to the fact that there exist federal and state laws and regulations that provide protection for employees within the working environment. The relationship between whether existing laws and regulations protecting employees and that of having union representation with regard to management's employment, promotion, benefit and other related policies are shown in Tables 4 and 5. The researcher believes that the data presented in these two tables was directly related to the fact that the responses were made by active and current union members. Therefore, it was not unusual for the data to indicate that the respondents disagreed with the hypothesized statement that unions were not needed because of existing laws and regulations.

The level of significance for testing the hypothesis was set at $p < 0.05$. The data according to the t-test indicated that there was no real determinable difference based on either gender or marital status. This was supported by the Chi-Square test, which showed there was no difference in the distribution of answers by gender. Based on the data, the findings indicated that respondents' believed unions were still needed to protect their interest in spite of existing federal and state laws and regulations.

Limitations

The first limitation to consider in reviewing this study is that the researcher was not able to collect any data from either management or non-union hotel employees. As a result, it was impossible to determine how management viewed union member employees as compared to non-union member employees. Furthermore, no determination could be made with regard to certain management policy issues and considerations, how these might be viewed by union member and non-union member employees, and what affect these policies might have had on employees' desire to unionize and collectively bargain.

The second limitation is that the hotel employees who participated in the survey were conveniently sampled during their lunch period while on the job. This was the only means by which the researcher could obtain the cooperation of both the union and hotels in surveying the employees. Though the survey was conducted as a convenience sampling, it was very poignant none-the-less, in that Las Vegas is a major market for hotels, entertainment, food service operations, and other hospitality and tourism innovations. Thus, being a highly competitive environment, with rapid growth and

constant changes, Las Vegas is on the cutting edge for hospitality and labor relations research. Furthermore, the surveys used were written and distributed in both the English and Spanish languages. The majority of participants used the Spanish language survey and many required the assistance of an interpreter/translator to assist with questions regarding how to complete the survey instrument and what certain instructions meant. It is undetermined whether the translation had any effect on how respondents answered the survey questions but this must be considered in interpreting the responses.

It was assumed that the different data that the researcher hoped to collect from the three different survey groups would have an effect on the analysis of the responses. Because of the aforementioned limitations and assumption, the findings cannot be generalized to the general hotel employee population or that of other union member employees in other cities.

Implications and Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study the following implications and conclusions are proposed and offered for consideration:

1. With costs continuing to rise year after year, the economy in continual fluctuation, and unions fighting to gain more ground within the realm of employee representation, management should consider developing and implementing employment policies and guidelines that will insure job security or at least more permanence in the employee-employer relationship.

2. Employees want to be heard, and therefore seek more of a voice in their working environment with regard to their job. Employees represent frontline individuals, who are in direct contact with the customers and therefore have first-hand knowledge of what works, is needed or required by customers, and what will make the employees' working environment more enjoyable and efficient. They also seek steady pay increases and benefits that will, at the very least, remain parallel with the rise in inflation or cost of living. Additional income could always be acquired through a second part-time job; however, benefits (health, pension, day care, travel, etc.) are becoming more important to employees in the 21st century. Management needs to examine the role that benefits will have on employee loyalty and productivity. This should give management a better understanding of what breeds employee loyalty and long-term commitment, which should lead to customer satisfaction and improved profits to be shared by all.
3. Some if not many hospitality operations advertise that they are a family organization and welcome their customers to come join their family for a holiday or vacation, e.g., *mi casa e su casa*. These same organizations would do well if they cared for and treated their employees as they do their customers. In the hospitality industry, many employees are immigrants and minorities who come from cultures that believe in strong family ties, and would like to view the company that they work for as a family member that is concerned with their welfare and well-being. Thus, it is time for the employee-employer relationship to become more of a family, especially in an

industry where hospitality is important. Within a family, there exists a feeling of belonging, trust, and satisfaction, all of which have an affect on overall productivity. Having an employee-employer relationship that is like a family is probably a good foundation for a solid work ethic and team effort.

4. Since many hotel employees do not believe that management follows an open door policy in order to address employee concerns and grievances, it would seem crucial in establishing a better relationship between employee and employer if the human resource department as a whole acted more like a shop steward in dealing with and representing employees. Having the human resource department listen to and address employee concerns and needs on their behalf would probably not only save valuable time but money as well, by not having grievance or arbitration hearings with the union.
5. Many hotel employees seem to be satisfied with their job and with management. This was not only evident in the data analysis but in comments made by hotel striking employees in San Francisco, Los Angeles, and Washington, D.C. Several of the striking employees in these cities considered the union to be a negotiator on their behalf, and as such had voiced their frustration over stalled contract talks because of the union's demand to have the collective bargaining agreement expire at the same time in other major cities. The union might reconsider what its primary job is and what is in the immediate best interest of the hotel employee union members instead of trying to become an all controlling, monopolistic corporation. This might be one of

the reason the union had seen a decline in membership over the past several decades.

6. In a city that can seem as impersonal as Las Vegas, it was no wonder that union members view the union as an organization for social activities and camaraderie. Since Las Vegas is considered by many to be the entertainment capital of the world, maybe hotel management companies could provide some social activities for their employees on a regular basis. The overall effect of positive changes to social activities and camaraderie might result in a better working environment with more employee productivity and more customer satisfaction.
7. Unions in the 21st century need to follow the theory of *Business Unionism* and seek a fair and equitable balance in collective bargaining agreements. Each local union must negotiate in good faith and according to the needs and concerns of the local employee member, as well as consider the affects the negotiations will have on the local community, industry as a whole, and the economic environment.
8. Management and labor must be able to negotiate a shared balance of *efficiency, equity, and voice*.

Discussion and Recommendations for Future Research

This was an exploratory study and a type of study that the researcher believed had not been accomplished before. It was hoped that the study results would offer readers a reasonable amount of information and understanding of the concerns, needs, views, and employment relationship that exists between employer, employee, and the union in the hospitality industry. Unfortunately, having not collected the data from management and non-union hotel employees, this research study only hints at some of the issues and answers that face the hospitality industry today. The industry and employee relations have come a long way since its early beginnings in the late 1800's. If anyone wonders whether the hospitality worker of today is in a better position financially compared to his (few if any women worked in hotels back then) counterpart in the 1800's, the answer would have to be yes. Around the turn of the 19th and 20th century, an individual could purchase a complete turkey dinner for \$0.20 to \$0.25 and a glass (assumed two ounces) of aged bourbon for \$0.10. Based on an average daily wage of \$1.00 at the best of establishments, such a dinner and beverage represented thirty-five percent (35%) of the workers daily wage. At a national daily wage average for food preparation/service personnel of \$67.44 (See Appendix C, Table 18), assuming a complete turkey dinner today would cost \$12.95 and two ounces of aged bourbon might cost about \$6.00, today's worker is using approximately twenty-eight (28%) percent of his daily wage. When one includes all of the added benefits that today's worker is receiving, he and she are much better off than their counterparts were a century ago.

There is a need for future research, and that research might replicate this study on a larger scale encompassing hotel workers in major cities where unions play an important role in representing hospitality employees, and in cities where there is no union representation. Before any future research is done, it is important to ascertain from human resource departments and union offices what they perceive as the concerns and potential needs of hospitality employees, based on the latest grievance hearings and other forms of employee acknowledgement and suggestions. If possible, it is highly recommended that future research go directly to the main source, the hotel worker to obtain input for the development of a comprehensive survey instrument focusing on 21st century concerns and needs.

At one of the largest hotel properties in Las Vegas, this researcher spent combined time with individuals from the human resource department and local union. The researcher's personal observation of the working relationship between management and the union suggested that both parties can and do work together as a team to insure a happy and healthy working environment for the employees. Furthermore, it seemed evident that this working relationship created a productive environment in which the workers were training, developing, and becoming more successful at a trade or skill, and the company was being able to make a profit at the same time. This environment helped to eliminate the cost to both parties for grievance reviews and arbitrations, resulting in a win-win situation for the employee, management and the union. Finally, the management survey instrument should include open-ended questions and include what current human resource managers believe are important issues and challenges for both employees and management.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

AMERICAN LABOR LAWS

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Sherman Antitrust Act, 15 U.S.C. Section 1. (1892) – Every contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations, is declared to be illegal. Every person who shall make any contract or engage in any combination or conspiracy hereby declared to be illegal shall be deemed guilty of a felony, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by fine not exceeding \$10,000,000 if a corporation, or, if any other person, \$350,000, or by imprisonment not exceeding three years, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court.

(Retrieved August 25, 2005 from

<http://www.usdoj.gov/atr/foia/divisionmanual/ch2.htm#a1>)

Clayton Act, 15 U.S.C., Chapter 1, Section 6. §§ 17 (1914)

“Congress passed the Clayton Act to clarify and supplement the Sherman Act by prohibiting exclusive sales contracts, certain instances of price cutting used to "freeze out" competitors, certain types of rebates and other problematic activities. Additionally, the Clayton Act created exceptions to the proscriptions of the Sherman Act, including labor unions and agricultural cooperatives. It set restrictions on injunctions against labor and legalized peaceful labor movements including strikes, picket lines and boycotts.”

(Retrieved August 28, 2005 from <http://www.consortiuminfo.org/antitrust/clayton.shtml>)

Antitrust laws not applicable to labor organizations

The labor of a human being is not a commodity or article of commerce. Nothing contained in the antitrust laws shall be construed to forbid the existence and operation of labor, agricultural, or horticultural organizations, instituted for the purposes of mutual help, and not having capital stock or conducted for profit, or to forbid or restrain individual members of such organizations from lawfully carrying out the legitimate objects thereof; nor shall such organizations, or the members thereof, be held or construed to be illegal combinations or conspiracies in restraint of trade, under the antitrust laws. (Retrieved August 28, 2005 from

<http://www.usdoj.gov/atr/foia/divisionmanual/ch2.htm#a3>)

Norris-LaGuardia Act, 29 U.S.C. Chapter 6, § 101 (1932) – No court of the United States, as defined in this chapter, shall have jurisdiction to issue any restraining order or temporary or permanent injunction in a case involving or growing out of a labor dispute, except in a strict conformity with the provisions of this chapter; nor shall any such restraining order or temporary or permanent injunction be issued contrary to the public policy declared in this chapter.

§ 103 (outlaws *yellow-dog contracts* - reads in part) – Every undertaking or promise hereafter made, whether written or oral, express or implied, constituting or contained in any contract or agreement of hiring or employment between any individual, firm,

company, association, or corporation, and any employee or prospective employee of the same, whereby

(a) Either party to such contract or agreement undertakes or promises not to join, become, or remain a member of any labor organization or of any employer organization; or

(b) Either party to such contract or agreement undertakes or promises that he will withdraw from an employment relation in the event that he joins, becomes, or remains a member of any labor organization or of any employer organization.

(Retrieved August 25, 2005 from

http://www4.law.cornell.edu/uscode/html/uscode29/usc_sup_01_29_10_6.html)

National Industrial Recovery Act (1933) – This Act “established codes of fair competition aimed at supporting prices and wages and stimulating economic revival from the Great Depression of 1929-33.”

(Retrieved August 25, 2005 from

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Industrial_Recovery_Act).

Wagner Act (1933) – From a labor relations point of view, the Wagner Act prevents unfair labor practices by employers by encouraging unionization, enacting legal protections for workers, and outlawing company unions. However, most employers neither recognized the Act as law, nor followed its edict. On a more positive note, the Act also established the federal agency known as the National Labor Relations Board. This agency had the “power to investigate and decide unfair labor practice charges and to conduct elections in which workers were given the opportunity to decide whether they wanted to be represented by a union.”

(Retrieved August 25, 2005 from

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Labor_Relations_Act).

National Labor Relations Act, 29 U.S.C. Chapter 7, §§ II, Section 1. §§ 151 (1935)

The denial by some employers of the right of employees to organize and the refusal by some employers to accept the procedure of collective bargaining lead to strikes and other forms of industrial strife or unrest, which have the intent or the necessary effect of burdening or obstructing commerce by (a) impairing the efficiency, safety, or operation of the instrumentalities of commerce; (b) occurring in the current of commerce; (c) materially affecting, restraining, or controlling the flow of raw materials or manufactured or processed goods from or into the channels of commerce, or the prices of such materials or goods in commerce; or (d) causing diminution of employment and wages in such volume as substantially to impair or disrupt the market for goods flowing from or into the channels of commerce.

The inequality of bargaining power between employees who do not possess full freedom of association or actual liberty of contract and employers who are organized in the corporate or other forms of ownership association substantially burdens and affects the flow of commerce, and tends to aggravate recurrent business depressions, by depressing wage rates and the purchasing power of wage earners in industry and by

preventing the stabilization of competitive wage rates and working conditions within and between industries.

Experience has proved that protection by law of the right of employees to organize and bargain collectively safeguards commerce from injury, impairment, or interruption, and promotes the flow of commerce by removing certain recognized sources of industrial strife and unrest, by encouraging practices fundamental to the friendly adjustment of industrial disputes arising out of differences as to wages, hours, or other working conditions, and by restoring equality of bargaining power between employers and employees.

Experience has further demonstrated that certain practices by some labor organizations, their officers, and members have the intent or the necessary effect of burdening or obstructing commerce by preventing the free flow of goods in such commerce through strikes and other forms of industrial unrest or through concerted activities which impair the interest of the public in the free flow of such commerce. The elimination of such practices is a necessary condition to the assurance of the rights herein guaranteed. It is declared to be the policy of the United States to eliminate the causes of certain substantial obstructions to the free flow of commerce and to mitigate and eliminate these obstructions when they have occurred by encouraging the practice and procedure of collective bargaining and by protecting the exercise by workers of full freedom of association, self-organization, and designation of representatives of their own choosing, for the purpose of negotiating the terms and conditions of their employment or other mutual aid or protection.

(Retrieved August 25, 2005 from

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Labor_Relations_Act).

Fair Labor Standards Act, 29 U.S.C. Chapter 6, § 101 (1938)

The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, as amended (referred to as "the Act" or "FLSA"), is published in law in sections 201-219 of title 29, United States Code.

“The Act provides for minimum standards for both wages and overtime entitlement, and spells out administrative procedures by which covered work time must be compensated. Included in the Act are provisions related to child labor, equal pay, and portal-to-portal activities. In addition, the Act exempts specified employees or groups of employees from the application of certain of its provisions.”

Retrieved August 28, 2005 from <http://www.opm.gov/flsa/overview.asp>

Labor Management Relations Act, 29 U.S.C., Chapter 7, Section 1. §§ 141 (1947)

(a) This Act [chapter] may be cited as the “Labor Management Relations Act, 1947.” [Also known as the “Taft-Hartley Act.”]

(b) Industrial strife which interferes with the normal flow of commerce and with the full production of articles and commodities for commerce, can be avoided or substantially minimized if employers, employees, and labor organizations each recognize under law one another’s legitimate rights in their relations with each other, and above all recognize under law that neither party has any right in its relations with any other to engage in acts or practices which jeopardize the public health, safety, or interest.

It is the purpose and policy of this Act [chapter], in order to promote the full flow of commerce, to prescribe the legitimate rights of both employees and employers in their relations affecting commerce, to provide orderly and peaceful procedures for preventing the interference by either with the legitimate rights of the other, to protect the rights of individual employees in their relations with labor organizations whose activities affect commerce, to define and proscribe practices on the part of labor and management which affect commerce and are inimical to the general welfare, and to protect the rights of the public in connection with labor disputes affecting commerce.

TITLE I, Amendments to
NATIONAL LABOR RELATIONS ACT
29 U.S.C. §§ 151–169 (printed above)

TITLE II
[Title 29, Chapter 7, Subchapter III, United States Code]
CONCILIATION OF LABOR DISPUTES IN INDUSTRIES AFFECTING COMMERCE;
NATIONAL EMERGENCIES

Sec. 201. [§ 171. Declaration of purpose and policy] It is the policy of the United States that—

(a) sound and stable industrial peace and the advancement of the general welfare, health, and safety of the Nation and of the best interest of employers and employees can most satisfactorily be secured by the settlement of issues between employers and employees through the processes of conference and collective bargaining between employers and the representatives of their employees;

(b) the settlement of issues between employers and employees through collective bargaining may be advanced by making available full and adequate governmental facilities for conciliation, mediation, and voluntary arbitration to aid and encourage employers and the representatives of their employees to reach and maintain agreements concerning rates of pay, hours, and working conditions, and to make all reasonable efforts to settle their differences by mutual agreement reached through conferences and collective bargaining or by such methods as may be provided for in any applicable agreement for the settlement of disputes; and

(c) certain controversies which arise between parties to collective bargaining agreements may be avoided or minimized by making available full and adequate governmental facilities for furnishing assistance to employers and the representatives of their employees in formulating for inclusion within such agreements provision for adequate notice of any proposed changes in the terms of such agreements, for the final adjustment of grievances or questions regarding the application or interpretation of such agreements, and other provisions designed to prevent the subsequent arising of such controversies.

(Retrieved August 25, 2005 from
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Labor_Relations_Act).

APPENDIX B

CHARTS

CHART 1

CHRONOLOGY OF LABOR UNIONS AND KEY LABOR FEDERATIONS

Year of Inception	National Federation or Union	Founder(s) and/or 1st President	Termination Date
1792	Society of Philadelphia shoemakers, replaced in 1794 by the Federal Society of Journeymen Cordwainers (shoemakers); first union ever organized and first to collectively bargain.		1806 by court injunction
1827	Mechanics' Union of Trade Associations formed by 15 local unions to survive the recession and secure a 10-hour work day. In 1828 it was transformed into the Republican Political Association of the Workingmen of Philadelphia, which was labor's first political party.		1830
1831	New England Association of Farmers, Mechanics and Other Workingmen	Providence, Rhode Island	1831
1834	National Trades' Union; instrumental in getting the work day reduced to ten hours for mechanics in the Philadelphia Navy Yard		1837
1835	National Typographical Society; other societies for shoemakers, comb makers, carpenters, and hand-loom weavers all created national societies only to see them disappear because of the depression of 1837	Washington, D.C.	1837
1850 – 1852	In 1850 typographical groups from 6 cities held a convention in NY, and a second one in Baltimore in 1851. By 1852 the International Typographers Union was officially formed on a national basis.		
1855 – 1859	Iron Molders Union formed in Philadelphia. Iron Molders International formed on a national basis, with wage scale based on fluctuation of raw material costs.	William Sylvis, President until 1866.	1872
1866	National Labor Union, first national federation that used power and affiliation of individual national unions to establish an 8 hour work day. Later became primarily a political party and lasted only 6 years.	William Sylvis was President until his death in 1869	1872

1869	Noble and Holy Order of the Knights of Labor; began as a secret society of garment cutters but shortly opened membership to all trades, minorities & women.	Uriah Stephens, Master Workman 1869-1878, Grand Master Workman 1878-1881	1901
1869 - 1881	See Note Below		
1881	Federation of Organized Trades and Labor Unions; Formed by dissatisfied KoL members from various trade unions.	Pittsburgh, PA.	1886 dissolved into the AFL
1886	American Federation of Labor (AFL) opened to craftsman only, thus exponents of craft unionism; Gompers & McGuire were former union heads as members of the Knights of Labor.	Samuel Gompers, President until 1924 and co-founder with Peter C. McGuire	Still Active in 2005

Note: It should be noted that several attempts were made by secret and non-secret organizations to charter an association or federation, such as the Workingmen's Benevolent Association, Knights of St. Crispin, and others. Ultimate failure, either because of their attempt to remain secret in order to keep unskilled laborers from joining and getting jobs or because of poor leadership and strike maneuvers befell many of these organizations ending their term within a year to 10 years.

CHART 2

The Evolution of Human Resource Management

DATE	INDUSTRY AND WORKER FOCUS
1870's	The industrial revolution and the economic depression were instrumental in management testing human resource welfare programs that examined working conditions, training of non-skilled craftsmen, and wages policies.
1900's	Company secretaries were required to handle what was then referred to as personnel management (PM) problems such as grievances, worker transfers, infirmity calls and sick leave, and oversee recreation/break rooms.
1910	Educators conduct studies that brought to light and forced companies to examine such issues as worker fatigue, job dissatisfaction, time and motion problems, and wage administration.
1917-1918	The first formal personnel/HR departments were created just prior to World War I to deal with: tight labor market; high turnover; waste and inefficiency; widespread strikes; union growth; government intervention/takeover
1920's	Companies begin to centralize employment practices utilizing a staff to conduct hiring, discipline actions, firing, and to maintain personnel and performance records. To gain worker cooperation and loyalty, employers implemented positive PM practices such as: above-market pay, job security, employee benefits, promotion from within, and employee participation plans.
1930's	With the advent of the New Deal and then President Roosevelt's support of unions, PM departments followed the regulations and listened to the request of unions by introducing complaint systems and due process disciplinary procedures.
1929-1939 The Great Depression	The depression resulted in many corporate bankruptcies forcing companies to dramatically reduce labor costs through wage cuts and layoffs. This gave the employer power via the threat of a layoff, since steady employment was now more important to the worker than a higher wage or fair treatment. Such actions are what lead to the "New Deal" and the passing of the Wagner Act.
1940's World War II	Companies either on their own through their PM departments, or via collective bargaining agreements with unions, established worker job security, retirements plans, health insurance (included families), and training and educational programs. WWII brought about the expansion of personnel management departments to deal with the changes in the work force, along with the development of job classifications and standards, implementation of government required wage-price controls, and other related PM/worker procedures.

The Evolution of Human Resource Management

1950's	After decades of research and study, the report known as the "Hawthorne experiments," led human resource managers to understand the accept the premises that workers would respond to economic inducements as well as psychological and social influences. This resulted in a more systematic approach to recruiting, testing, hiring, and assigning job duties.
1960's	The population of workers and management become the focus of personnel department. It is discovered that small groups and the design of the work motivates workers by promoting self-actualization, and making the work and environment more interesting and fulfilling.
1970's	Quality of work is an issue to workers and managers. Workers show their dissatisfaction with unchallenging jobs, and some heavy-handed management actions. This also prompted managers to look at their jobs as long-term careers and not just a job, and thus examine their relationship with the workers.
1980's	Global competition forces HR departments to rethink their policies as some corporations restructure with worker layoffs, job outplacement, and other factors in light of stronger foreign competition. Economic recessions, and the lower cost for equal quality of foreign made goods brought considerable pressure on American corporations. As jobs are sent overseas, union membership begins to decline. Government deregulation, has resulted in declining unionization and wages in such industries as telecommunications and trucking Workers were given more training whereby self-managed work teams were initiated, and workers began to realize their value and so did management. It was during this period that the term "personnel management" was changed to "human resource management (HRM)."
1990's	The duties of the HRM begin to changes both internally and externally as the departments now provide cohesiveness within the corporations as well as with customers. HRM depts. offer improvements, and facilitate organizational change, along with learning initiatives for both workers and managers. With cross-border company mergers, HR managers begin to focus on "human capital" which leads to a focus on "social capital" that eventually underlines innovation and knowledge management.
2000's	HRM looks for people who can produce and adapt to changes so the company can generate more shareholder value. Thus, management looks to the HR dept. to look long-term and toward a profit oriented perspective when recruiting and hiring of individuals. For the company, an emphasis on staying ahead of the competition and comprehensive knowledge of global management are imperative in a rapidly growing market such as hospitality and tourism. This is a main reason by social architecture will be a focus and challenge for HRM in the 21 st century.

This table is composed of excerpts from "The Challenges of International Human Resource Management," and from "The Evolution of HRM" by Dr. Yonatan Reshef.

APPENDIX C

TABLES

TABLE 17

2004 Nevada State Occupational Employment and Wage Estimates					
Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations					
Occupation Title	Employment (1)	Wage Estimates			
		Median Hourly	Mean Hourly	Mean Annual (2)	Mean RSE (3)
Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations	136,670	\$8.47	\$9.24	\$19,220	1.1 %
Chefs and Head Cooks	2,460	\$17.11	\$18.96	\$39,430	1.4 %
First-Line Supervisors/Managers of Food Preparation and Serving Workers	8,000	\$12.90	\$13.71	\$28,520	2.0 %
Cooks, Fast Food	11,220	\$6.48	\$7.06	\$14,690	2.5 %
Cooks, Institution and Cafeteria	1,280	\$11.00	\$11.49	\$23,890	2.0 %
Cooks, Restaurant	11,530	\$11.02	\$11.58	\$24,100	2.0 %
Cooks, Short Order	2,740	\$9.42	\$9.81	\$20,390	3.5 %
Cooks, All Other	700	\$11.28	\$11.84	\$24,620	3.1 %
Food Preparation Workers	7,920	\$9.98	\$10.01	\$20,820	1.9 %
Bartenders	10,870	\$8.29	\$9.53	\$19,830	2.8 %
Combined Food Preparation and Serving Workers, Including Fast Food	12,550	\$7.50	\$7.76	\$16,130	1.8 %
Counter Attendants, Cafeteria, Food Concession, and Coffee Shop	3,330	\$8.46	\$8.85	\$18,400	2.0 %
Waiters and Waitresses	33,910	\$7.14	\$7.83	\$16,280	1.6 %
Food Servers, Non-restaurant	1,430	\$7.77	\$8.42	\$17,510	3.2 %
Dining Room and Cafeteria Attendants and Bartender Helpers	13,020	\$8.14	\$8.26	\$17,180	1.3 %
Dishwashers	8,510	\$8.79	\$9.33	\$19,410	1.7 %
Hosts and Hostesses, Restaurant, Lounge, and Coffee Shop	4,550	\$8.99	\$9.51	\$19,790	1.4 %
Food Preparation and Serving Related Workers, All Other	2,680	\$9.69	\$9.86	\$20,520	0.9 %

(1) Estimates for detailed occupations do not sum to the totals because the totals include occupations not shown separately. Estimates do not include self-employed workers.

(2) Annual wages have been calculated by multiplying the hourly mean wage by a "year-round, full-time" hours figure of 2,080 hours; for those occupations where there is not an hourly mean wage published, the annual wage has been directly calculated from the reported survey data.

(3) The relative standard error (RSE) is a measure of the reliability of a survey statistic. The smaller the relative standard error, the more precise the estimate.

NOTE: This table was copied from the web site of the U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, retrieved at <http://www.bls.gov/oes/current/oes350000.htm>

TABLE 18

Occupational Employment and Wages, May 2004

35-0000 Food Preparation and Serving Related Occupations (Major Group)

This major group comprises the following occupations: [Chefs and Head Cooks](#) ; [First-Line Supervisors/Managers of Food Preparation and Serving Workers](#) ; [Cooks, Fast Food](#) ; [Cooks, Institution and Cafeteria](#) ; [Cooks, Private Household](#) ; [Cooks, Restaurant](#) ; [Cooks, Short Order](#) ; [Cooks, All Other](#) ; [Food Preparation Workers](#) ; [Bartenders](#) ; [Combined Food Preparation and Serving Workers, Including Fast Food](#) ; [Counter Attendants, Cafeteria, Food Concession, and Coffee Shop](#) ; [Waiters and Waitresses](#) ; [Food Servers, Nonrestaurant](#) ; [Dining Room and Cafeteria Attendants and Bartender Helpers](#) ; [Dishwashers](#) ; [Hosts and Hostesses, Restaurant, Lounge, and Coffee Shop](#) ; [Food Preparation and Serving Related Workers, All Other](#)

National estimates for this occupation: [Top](#)

Employment estimate and mean wage estimates for this major group:

Employment (1)	Employment RSE (3)	Mean hourly wage	Mean annual wage (2)	Wage RSE (3)
10,507,390	0.2 %	\$8.43	\$17,530	0.2 %

Percentile wage estimates for this major group:

Percentile	10%	25%	50% (Median)	75%	90%
Hourly Wage	\$5.75	\$6.41	\$7.58	\$9.51	\$12.51
Annual Wage (2)	\$11,960	\$13,330	\$15,770	\$19,780	\$26,020

[About May 2004 National, State, and Metropolitan Area Occupational Employment and Wage Estimates](#)

These estimates are calculated with data collected from employers in all industry sectors in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas in every State and the District of Columbia. The top five employment and wage figures are provided above. The complete list is available in the [downloadable Excel files\(XLS\)](#).

Percentile wage estimates show the percentage of workers in an occupation that earn less than a given wage and the percentage that earn more. The median wage is the 50th percentile wage estimate--50 percent of workers earn less than the median and 50 percent of workers earn more than the median. [More about percentile wages.](#)

(1) Estimates for detailed occupations do not sum to the totals because the totals include occupations not shown separately. Estimates do not include self-employed workers.

(2) Annual wages have been calculated by multiplying the hourly mean wage by a "year-round, full-time" hours figure of 2,080 hours; for those occupations where there is not an hourly mean wage published, the annual wage has been directly calculated from the reported survey data.

(3) The relative standard error (RSE) is a measure of the reliability of a survey statistic. The smaller the relative standard error, the more precise the estimate.

NOTE: This table was copied from the web site of the U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, retrieved at <http://www.bls.gov/oes/current/oes350000.htm>

APPENDIX D

COVER LETTERS, INSTRUMENTS, and APPROVAL FORM FOR RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

COVER LETTER FOR WEB-BASED SURVEY METHOD

July 22, 2005

Dear Union Member,

We are asking you to participate in a study entitled “**An Examination of Hotel Employees’ Concerns and Needs and How They are Perceived by Hotel Management and the Hotel and Restaurant Unions.**” I am asking that you please take 5-10 minutes of your time and complete the survey questionnaire by August 4, 2005. Your answers are very important to the outcome of this study. This study is being conducted by Oklahoma State University graduate student Peter DiMicelli, Jr. as he pursues his Ph.D. Degree in the School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration. Your response is completely **anonymous, voluntary**, and will be kept strictly **confidential**. There is a submit button at the bottom of the survey, which when you complete the questionnaire just click on the button and your responses will be reported as an accumulated total.

The results of this study will be published in Mr. DiMicelli’s dissertation, and in hospitality journals. The results will also be shared with hotel managers and union officials, so this will be a way for you to inform these individuals and organizations what are your concerns, needs, likes and dislikes within the working environment.

If you have any questions regarding this survey or the questionnaire, or would like to receive a copy of the results, please feel free to contact Peter DiMicelli, Jr. at peter.dimicelli@okstate.edu with your name and e-mail address, and please reference your request of a copy of the hotel employees’ survey, or you may call him at (405) 880-4295.

Thank you for participating in this study. We look forward to receiving your response.

Sincerely,

Patrick J. Moreo, Ed.D., CHA
Professor and Director
School of Hotel and Restaurant Admin.
College of Human Environmental Science
Oklahoma State University
E-mail: patrick.moreo@okstate.edu

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COVER LETTER FOR WEB-BASED SURVEY METHOD

July 22, 2005

Dear Business Executive,

We are asking you to participate in a study entitled “**An Examination of Hotel Employees’ Concerns and Needs and How They are Perceived by Hotel Management and the Hotel and Restaurant Unions.**” We are asking that you please take a few minutes of your time and complete the survey questionnaire by August 18, 2005. Your answers are very important to the outcome of this study. This study is being conducted by Oklahoma State University graduate student Peter DiMicelli, Jr. as he pursues his Ph.D. Degree in the School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration. Your response is completely **anonymous, voluntary**, and will be kept strictly **confidential**. There is a submit button at the bottom of the survey, which when you complete the questionnaire just click on the button and your responses will be reported as an accumulated total.

Like any working environment, there must be a balance between efficiency, equity, and voice. Management wants to maintain a strong voice and control over employees in order to get maximum efficiency, and employees want a voice and equity in order to share in the success of the business and obtain a better working and community life for themselves and their family. This research project is attempting to examine and understand the concerns and needs of both management and employees. Your assistance and cooperation in completing the attached survey questionnaire is greatly needed and appreciated. The results of this study will be published in Mr. DiMicelli’s dissertation, and in hospitality journals. The copy of the results will also be shared with hotel managers, human resource directors, and union officials upon their request.

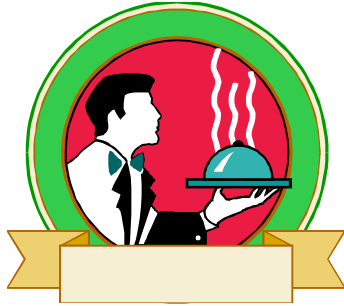
If you have any questions regarding this survey or the questionnaire, or would like to receive a copy of the results, please contact Peter DiMicelli, Jr. at (405) 880-4295 or at peter.dimicelli@okstate.edu with your name and e-mail address, and please reference your request for a copy of the hotel employees’ survey, or hotel management survey. Thank you for participating in this study. We look forward to receiving your response.

Sincerely,

Patrick J. Moreo, Ed.D., CHA
Professor and Director
School of Hotel and Restaurant Admin.
College of Human Environmental Science
Oklahoma State University
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Survey of Hotel and Restaurant Employees



My name is Peter DiMicelli, Jr, and I am a doctoral candidate working on my dissertation regarding labor relations issues in the hospitality industry. The dissertation is entitled “**An Examination of Hotel Employees’ Concerns and Needs and How They are Perceived by Hotel Management and the Hotel and Restaurant Unions.**” The study focuses on the relationship between management and employees (both union and non-union employees), and between the employees and their union.

Your responses to the following questions will be used as reported findings of a general nature. There is no risk to you the respondent and participation is completely **anonymous, voluntary**, and will be kept strictly **confidential**. When you complete the questionnaire, the information will be added to that of others and thus your responses will be reported as an accumulated total.

Like any working environment, there must be a balance between efficiency, equity, and voice. Management wants to maintain a strong voice and control over employees in order to get maximum efficiency, and employees want a voice and equity in order to share in the success of the business and obtain a better working and community life for themselves and their family. This research project is attempting to examine and understand the concerns and needs of both management and employees. Your assistance and cooperation in completing the attached survey questionnaire is greatly needed and appreciated.

*** Thank you for your cooperation ***



Oklahoma State University

Your assistance and cooperation is greatly needed and appreciated in helping to examine the concerns and needs of hospitality employees in the work environment. Please circle or click on the response that best describes your agreement with the following statements based on:

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

	SD	D	N	A	SA
1. Management is willing to invest in the my development and training (education) as an employee.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Management tries to understand the problems employees encounter on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Union membership is important for finding or changing jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Through an open door policy, my human resource department listens to my concerns and complaints.	1	2	3	4	5
5. It is important to have contracts end at the same time in other cities.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Having a shop steward represent me in the workplace is important.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Management gives me the freedom I need to do what is best for the customer.	1	2	3	4	5
8. My human resource department fairly represents my concerns and issues to management.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My employer empowers me to make minor work related management decisions in order to please the customer.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Being empowered to make some work related decisions gives me a feeling of belonging and self-worth.	1	2	3	4	5
11. With the number of federal and state laws and regulations protecting employees and their rights, unions are not needed.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Considering everything, I am satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Unions play an important role in securing better wages and benefits for employees.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Receiving annual increases to my pay rate is more important than any other benefits.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Because of the company's efforts toward training, education, development, empowerment for decision making, and its endeavor to understand my concerns, I am satisfied with the current management.	1	2	3	4	5

How would you rate the importance of the following issues/questions?

1 = Not Important, 2 = Least Important, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Important, 5 = Very Important

	NI	LI	N	I	VI
16. Have a adequate time to complete my job.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Health Insurance (medical, dental, vision and eyewear).	1	2	3	4	5
18. Being allowed to use sick leave for family matters.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Getting two 15-minute breaks each day during work.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Length of time to qualify for full health benefits.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Having employer supply & pay for uniforms laundering.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Having a pension plan that will support me upon retiring.	1	2	3	4	5

Please answer the following by circling Y for Yes and N for No.

23. Are you currently a UNITE-HERE union member where you work?	Y	N
24. Does your property conduct an employee concern and needs assessment survey?	Y	N

If you are a union member, please answer the following by ranking from 1 to 5, with 1 = least important and 5 = most important reason why you chose to join the union. Use the number 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 only once each.

25. I joined the union because:	
___ my family members are or have been union members.	
___ I disliked my supervisor.	
___ it provides camaraderie and a social activity with similar people.	
___ it was the only way to get a job in a hotel.	
___ I believed it was important for job security.	

Please tell us about yourself by placing an X in the appropriate spaces below.

Gender: ___ Male ___ Female Marital Status: ___ Single ___ Married

Age: ___ 18-25 years, ___ 26-35 years, ___ 36-45 years, ___ 46-55 years, ___ Over 55 years

Education: ___ Some Grade School, ___ Grade School Graduate, ___ Some High School ___ High School Graduate, ___ Some College, ___ 4 yr. College Graduate, ___ Vo Tech Grad.

Department: ___ Housekeeping/Porter, ___ Front Desk, ___ Bell Person, ___ Beverage Service, ___ Restaurant Service, ___ Kitchen, ___ Banquet Service, ___ Laundry, ___ Valet, ___ Other

Work History: How long have you worked at this hotel? ___ less than 6 months, ___ 6 months to 1 year, ___ 1 to 2 years, ___ 3 - 5 years, ___ more than 5 years.

Your assistance and cooperation is greatly needed and appreciated in helping to examine how a balance between management and the workforce can best be accomplished and maintained. Please circle or click on the response that best describes your agreement with the following statements based on:

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree,
SD D N A SA

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. One way to raise standards for employees in the hotel industry is through unionization of employees. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. An open door policy to address employee concerns is critical if management wants to keep them happy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. The purpose for an open door policy is so employees can have a voice within the workplace environment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. A primary responsibility for a human resource director is to be a representative for employees to management. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Management needs to communicate more with employees in order to better understand employees concerns and needs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Non-union employees seem to be more committed to their job and the customers than union member employees. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Hotel properties should recognize employees' right to collectively bargaining on their own behalf without union interference. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Since some hotel properties are seasonal, it is important for management to control the hiring, laying off and termination of employees without union control. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Empowering employees to make minor work related management decisions is important to fulfill the employees' need to have a voice in making decisions. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Showing genuine care and concern to employees will strengthen the relationship between management and labor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. With the number of federal and state laws and regulations protecting employees and their rights, unions are not needed. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Unions play an important role in securing better wages and benefits for employees. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Non-management employees view a human resource director as their representative, similar to a union shop steward. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

- | | SD | D | N | A | SA |
|---|----|---|---|---|----|
| 14. Effective management empowers the work force. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. With management's open door policy to address employee concerns, there is no need for a union thus allowing the employee to save money on union dues. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. The issue of an employee's immigration status will be a major concern for management in the future. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Having the union represent employees creates an adversarial relationship between employees and management. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Please answer the following by circling Y for Yes and N for No.

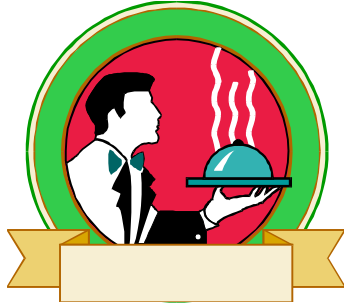
- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 18. Does your property follow an open door policy to address employees concerns and needs? | Y | N |
| 19. Do you believe it is important to conduct a wage survey annually? | Y | N |
| 20. Have you ever been a member of a hospitality union? | Y | N |
| 21. Are all of your non-management employees union members? | Y | N |
| 22. Does your hotel company conduct a wage survey annually? | Y | N |
| 23. Employee empowerment is a part of our participative management style of leadership. | Y | N |
| 24. Does your property conduct an employee concern and needs assessment survey? | Y | N |
| 25. Briefly state any consideration or issue that we may have overlooked or you have encountered in dealing with a union. | | |

Please tell us about yourself by placing an X in the appropriate spaces below.

- Gender: ___ Male ___ Female Marital Status: ___ Single ___ Married
 Age: ___ 18-25 years ___ 26-35 years ___ 36-45 years ___ 46-55 years ___ Over 55 years
 Education: ___ AA degree ___ BA/BS degree ___ Masters degree ___ Doctoral degree
 Title: ___ General Manager ___ Asst. Manager ___ HR director ___ Asst. HR director ___ Other
 Work History: How long have you worked at this hotel? ___ less than 6 months,
 ___ 6 months to 1 year, ___ 1 to 2 years, ___ 3 - 5 years, ___ more than 5 years.

*** Thank you for your cooperation ***

Encuesta de los empleados de Hotel y Restaurante



Mi nombre es Peter DiMicelli, Hijo, Yo estoy trabajando en la tesis para mi doctorado acerca de los asuntos de relaciones laborales en la industria hotelera. La tesis se titula **“Evaluación de las necesidades y dudas de los empleados de hotel y de como ellos son percibidos por los supervisores de los Hoteles y los oficiales de la Unión”** el estudio se enfoca en la relación entre los supervisores y los empleados (ambos empleados de unión y no unión) y entre los empleados y su unión o sindicato.

Sus respuestas a las siguientes preguntas serán usadas como un reporte general. Usted no corre ningún riesgo al responder esta encuesta. Su participación será voluntaria, anónima y se mantendrá estrictamente confidencial. La información de los cuestionarios será reportada como un acumulado total.

En cualquier lugar de trabajo, debe de haber un balance entre eficiencia, equidad y voz. Los supervisores o directivas quieren mantener una voz fuerte y controlar a los empleados para que estos sean mas eficientes; y los empleados quieren tener voz y equidad para compartir el éxito de la compañía y obtener mejores condiciones de trabajo y un mejor estilo de vida en su comunidad, para ellos(as) y sus familias. Esta investigación es un proyecto que trata de evaluar y entender las preocupaciones y necesidades de ambas partes; los empleados y los supervisores o directivas. Su ayuda y cooperación al responder la encuesta adjunta es muy necesaria y le estaremos muy agradecidos.

*** Muchas Gracias por su cooperación ***



Oklahoma State University

Por favor encierre en un círculo o en su computadora haga clic en la respuesta que mejor describe su opinión acerca de las siguientes frases basado en:

1 = En desacuerdo completamente, 2 = Desacuerdo, 3 = Neutral, 4 = De acuerdo, 5 = De acuerdo completamente

	DC	D	N	DA	DAC
1. La compañía esta dispuesta ha invertir en mi progreso en el trabajo y entrenamiento (educación) como empleado.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Los supervisores tratan de entender los problemas que los empleados enfrentan en el trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5
3. La membresía de la Unión es importante para encontrar trabajo o para cambiar de trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5
4. A través de una póliza de puertas abiertas, mi departamento de relaciones laborales escucha mis dudas y quejas.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Es importante que los contratos de otras ciudades terminen al mismo tiempo que el nuestro.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Es importante tener un Delegado de la Unión para que me represente en el trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Los Supervisores o directivas me dan la libertad que Necesito para hacer lo mejor por los clientes.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Mi departamento de recursos humanos representa justamente mis problemas a las directivas.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Mi empleador me da el poder de tomar decisiones menores relacionadas con el trabajo para complacer los clientes.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Tener el poder de tomar algunas decisiones relacionadas con el trabajo me hace sentir valioso(a).	1	2	3	4	5
11. Con las leyes y regulaciones estatales y federales que protegen a los empleados, las uniones no son necesarias.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Estoy satisfecho(a) con mi trabajo considerándolo todo.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Las Uniones o sindicatos desempeñan un papel importante En asegurar mejores beneficios y sueldos para los empleados.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Para mi es mas importante recibir aumentos de sueldo que cualquier otro beneficio.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Debido a los esfuerzos de la compañía en facilitar educación, entrenamiento, desarrollo, dame el poder de tomar decisiones y tratar de entender mis preocupaciones, estoy satisfecho con los supervisores actuales.	1	2	3	4	5

Que grado de importancia le da usted a los siguientes asuntos y/o preguntas?
1 = No es Importante, 2 = Menos Importante, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Es Importante
5 = Es Muy Importante

	NEI	MI	N	EI	EMI
16. Tener suficiente tiempo para teminar mi trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Seguro de Salud (medico, dental, vista y lentes).	1	2	3	4	5
18. Poder ausentarme por enfermedad por problemas familiares.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Tener 2 descansos de 15 minutos cada uno durante mi turno.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Tiempo que se toma para cualificar por beneficios de salud.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Que el empleador pague por los uniformes y lavandería.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Tener un plan de pension que me mantendra al jubilame.	1	2	3	4	5

Por favor responda SI ó NO.

23. Actualmente es usted un miembro de UNITE HERE en su trabajo?	SI	NO
24. La compañía donde trabaja realiza una encuesta para evaluar los problemas y necesidades de los empleados?	SI	NO

Si usted es un miembro de la unión, por favor responda clasificando de 1 a 5, Siendo el 1= Menos importante y 5= La razón mas importante por la que usted eligió afiliarse a la unión. Use cada numero solamente una vez. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

25. Yo me afile a la unión porque:	
___ Los miembros de mi familia son ó han sido miembros de la unión.	
___ No me gusta mi supervisor.	
___ La unión me provee con camaradería y actividad social.	
___ Fue la única forma de conseguir trabajo en un hotel.	
___ Yo creo que es importante para tener seguridad en el trabajo.	

Por favor hables de su persona al escribir una X en el espacio correspondiente.

Genero: ___ Masculino ___ Femenino Estado Marital: ___ Soltero(a) ___ casado(a)

Edad: ___ 18-25 años ___ 26-35 años ___ 36-45 años ___ 46-55 años ___ Mas de 55 años

Educación: ___ Parte de la Primaria ___ Toda la Primaria ___ Parte de Secundaria ___ Graduado del Secundaria ___ Algo de Universidad ___ Graduado Universidad ___ Escuela Tec.

Departamento: ___ Limpieza de cuartos, ___ Recepcionista, ___ Portero, ___ Servicio de Bebidas, ___ Servicio Restaurante, ___ Cocina, ___ Servicio Banquete, ___ Lavandería, ___ Parqueo, ___ Otro

Historial de trabajo: Cuanto tiempo a trabajado en este hotel? ___ Menos de 6 meses, ___ 6 meses a 1 año, ___ 1 a 2 años, ___ 3 a 5 años, ___ mas de 5 años.

Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date: Friday, July 15, 2005
IRB Application No HE061
Proposal Title: An Examination of Hotel Employees Concerns and Needs and How They are Perceived by Hotel Management and the Hotel and Restaurant Union

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved Protocol Expires: 7/14/2006

Principal Investigator(s)

Peter DiMicelli, Jr. Patrick J. Moreo
1524 S. August St. 210 HES
Stillwater, OK 74074 Stillwater, OK 74078

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

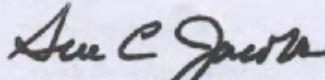
The final versions of any printed recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are attached to this letter. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Beth McTernan in 415 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, beth.mcternan@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,



Sue C. Jacobs, Chair
Institutional Review Board

VITA

Peter DiMicelli, Jr.

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: HOTEL EMPLOYEES' CONCERNS AND NEEDS: HOW THEY ARE PERCEIVED BY MANAGEMENT AND THE HOTEL AND RESTAURANT UNION

Major Field: Human Environmental Sciences

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Hackensack, New Jersey, July 16, 1951, the son of Peter DiMicelli, Sr. and Sarah LaForte DiMicelli

Education: Graduate of Garfield High School, Garfield, New Jersey in June 1969; received Bachelor of Science degree in Accounting from Saint Francis College, Loretto, Pennsylvania in 1973; received Doctor of Juris Prudence degree from University Of West Los Angeles School Of Law, Culver City, California in 1981; received credential as Certified Foodservice Executive in 1991 from the International Foodservice Executive Association; received credential as Certified Food Service Management Professional in 1992 from the National Restaurant Association; received credential as Certified Executive Chef from American Culinary Federation in 1993; completed the requirements for a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Human Environmental Science with a major in Hotel and Restaurant Administration at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in December, 2005.

Experience: Graduate Teaching and Research Assistant at Oklahoma State University; Director Culinary & Hospitality Education for U. S. Marine Corps, Okinawa, Japan; Assistant Professor of Hotel and Restaurant Management at Plattsburgh State College, State University of NY.

Professional Memberships: American Culinary Federation, Oklahoma Chefs and Cooks Association, International Foodservice Executives Association, Council of Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education, OSU Hotel and Restaurant Administration Graduate Student Association, Eta Sigma Delta.

Name: Peter DiMicelli, Jr.

Date of Degree: December, 2005

Institution: Oklahoma State University

Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: HOTEL EMPLOYEES' CONCERNS AND NEEDS: HOW THEY ARE PERCEIVED BY MANAGEMENT AND THE HOTEL AND RESTAURANT UNION

Pages in Study: 213

Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Major Field: Human Environmental Sciences

Scope and Method of Study: Descriptive cross-sectional survey questionnaires were designed, pilot tested and formulated for interviewing hospitality workers and managers from different culture, levels of education, and work related experiences. The collected research data and subsequent analysis focused on the priorities, i.e. concerns and needs of hospitality employees and their view of management. The sample population consisted of active members of the Culinary Workers Union Local 226 of Las Vegas, Nevada, a chapter of the UNITE-HERE International Union, and 32 human resource directors at major hotel properties within Las Vegas, Nevada.

Findings and Conclusions: Hypothesis 1 was proven thus accepting the supposition that unions were still needed to protect employee interests in spite of existing federal and state laws and regulations. Hypothesis 2 could not be proven or disproved due to the lack of data, because no human resource director completed the survey.

Most employees are dedicated to their job and take pride in what they do, and therefore management should give employees a voice in matters that concern and affect their working environment. Management and labor must strive to be able to negotiate a shared balance of *efficiency, equity, and voice*

Unions should follow the theory of *Business Unionism* and seek a fair and equitable balance in collective bargaining agreements. Local unions must negotiate in good faith according to the needs and concerns of the local employee-member and must consider the affect the negotiations will have on the local community, industry, and economic environment.

ADVISER'S APPROVAL: Patrick J. Moreo, Ed.D., CHA