THE STUDY OF THE ORIGINS, EDUCATION AND OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITION OF HOTEL MANAGERS AS RELATED TO CAREER PATTERNS OF SECURITY AND SUCCESS

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This is to certify that the

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THE STUDY OF THE ORIGINS, EDUCATION AND OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITION OF HOTEL MANAGERS AS RELATED TO CAREER PATTERNS OF SECURITY AND SUCCESS

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ABSTRACT

THE STUDY OF THE ORIGINS, EDUCATION AND OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITION OF HOTEL MANAGERS AS RELATED TO CAREER PATTERNS OF SECURITY AND SUCCESS

by Wesley I. Schmidt

There is need in current social science for studies of mobility within the life spans and occupational histories, not only of the typical, but of the more and less successful worker. Most previous investigations of managers and executives have studied them as a broad class without regard to the particular nature of their industries. Moreover, these studies have viewed success as the achievement of a certain level of management, rather than by differential criteria of success within that occupational level.

The present study is a search for formal and informal factors in the career patterns of hotel managers. This longitudinal study is focused on such variables as social origin, education, sponsorship, occupational definition, and mobility patterns as they relate to several criteria of success.

A random sample, stratified by number of hotel rooms, was selected from four midwestern states. Sixty operating managers, representing hotels of all sizes from the membership of the American Hotel Association, were interviewed. Twenty interviews were conducted within each size classification--small, medium and large hotels.

The method chosen for studying the subjects was the anonymous, retrospective, personal interview. The interview schedules were developed and standardized in a pilot study.

The criteria of success are identified according to the number of years required to reach the first top management position, personal income, occupational security, size of hotel, hotel quality ranking, and the business activity index.

The major findings and conclusions are as follows:

1. The socio-economic origin of this sample of hotel managers is superior to that of managers in general, even as contrasted with the executive elite. Those of the proprietary heritage were less likely to achieve the essential attributes leading to success; namely, sponsorship and an "executive" occupational definition.
2. There is a significant relationship between years of formal education and a rapid rise to the operating managers position.
3. Formal education and "sponsorship" were found to be significantly related.
4. The search for an executive versus a lower level self-image in the definition of occupation uncovered three differentials: the executive, fitting the accepted administrative role; the operator, having a production, facility, and guest orientation; the greeter, assuming the classic "grand host" stereotype.

5. The proportion of managers who defined themselves as "executive" managers and who possessed a collegiate background was not significantly different from the non-graduates. Neither did college graduates distinguish themselves to a significant degree as leaders in civic or hotel organizations.

6. The use of continuing education is related to evidences of a positive attitude toward learning, personal growth, new ideas and the future of the hotel business. Those managers pursuing continuing education adopt the "executive" view of hotel management to a significantly greater degree than others. Continuing education is not significantly related to formal education, the proprietary heritage or sponsorship.

7. Two factors were identified as deterrents to participation in continuing education programs and to a greater development of the "executive" definition--the apprenticeship philosophy toward the management trainee and the low level of management security which pervades the industry.

8. Sponsorship, the initial and/or career-long association of a key hotel manager and his protege, is identified as one of two keys to success in hotel management. Sponsored managers tend to develope an "executive" definition, rise more rapidly and

"consistently" to the top, and are found in better hotels doing an above average business.

9. "Executive" hotelmen are associated with larger hotels, with higher quality hotels (regardless of size), with hotel chains, with more secure careers, with higher personal incomes, and with positions of leadership in civic, fraternal, and hotel related organizations.

10. Hotel managers' careers are found to be less secure than those of managers in general industry. The percentage of managers found in the less stable career categories approximates the general industry pattern of the semi-skilled and operatives.

11. Hotel management is apparently closed to managerial migration from unrelated industries.

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By

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Christian, in the classic story of Pilgrim's Progress, was guided by Faith amid the distractions of this world to the Eternal City. The trek of the researcher to find essential facts, data, and truth amid the siren songs of our economic society is not unlike the travail of Christian.

The achievement of this research work was largely due to the genuine cooperation and guidance given by each of the following: Dr. Walter F. Johnson, College of Education, Michigan State University; Dr. William H. Form, Sociology and Anthropology, Michigan State University; Dr. Donald M. Johnson, Psychology, Michigan State University; The Schlitz Academic Achievement Fund; The Board of Trustees of the American Hotel Association Educational Institute; and sixty midwestern hotel managers.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. The Problem in Historical Perspective

The occupational title "hotel manager" denotes a position which has not only had a variety of meanings historically, but also is one eluding definition currently. Historians believe that the innkeeper was among the first vestiges of civilization, closely following the advent of trade and transportation. Maschal believes that the innkeeper was a resourceful person responding to the traveler's desire for survival.

> "At first, the traveler stopped wherever darkness overtook him, seeking bed and board by the wayside. Its hospitality was sometimes of a dubious nature for the wayfarer might find himself with a slit purse the next morning and, if he were really unlucky, he might have a slit throat as well. Alert and enterprising souls soon recognized a new, easy and constant source of income. They went into the hotel business--in a small way, to be sure, for the first inns were crude affairs."[1]

Thus, the earliest hotel managers were "enterprising souls," offering minimum lodging facilities and, in rare circumstances, food service.

> The Romans had an extensive and well-kept system of roads which included post houses for traveling officials. They also had hotels for the traveling public. Innkeepers were frequently women. Syrian

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[1] Henry T. Maschal, "Opportunities in Your Chosen Field," Mid-West Hotel Reporter, Kansas City, January 1958, p. 3.

> women were well known as innkeepers and promoted their establishments with impromptu and oftentimes lewd dancing. . . .
>
> The ancient inns were often located close by the Temples, and for practical reason. The official sacrificer in the Temple would direct the devotee with his freshly sacrificed animal to the nearby inn where the worshipper would find the sacrificer's wife ready to serve him the newly killed animal. . . .
>
> During the Middle Ages, the Monasteries and Convents took over many of the functions of the inn, the porters of these establishments acting as host to the weary traveler. . . .
>
> During the 1700's large and elaborate mansions were built in France by the nobility, some especially fine ones near the Kings' Court at Versailles. These were the first hotels. . . .
>
> In Colonial America, wayside taverns and inns were the town meeting places and centers of conviviality . . . providing food and shelter for the traveler and his beast. . . .
>
> In 1829, the Tremont House of Boston opened its doors to become the first modern hotel with 170 rooms, a room clerk who also served as bartender, porter, and helped carve the meat; and with 10 public rooms it was the wonder of the age . . . The 1920's saw thousands of communities and private companies building hotels. . . .[2]

These brief excerpts suffice to show that the historical role of "hotel manager" has ranged from a sensual dancer to bartender, from an Abbot to a castle keeper, and from liveryman to the manager of a modern, transient facility.

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[2]Donald E. Lundberg and C. Vernon Kane, Business Management--Hotels, Motels and Restaurants (Tallahassee, Florida: University Bookstore, Florida State University), pp. 1-3.

The complex, multi-story hotel, offering a score of food, beverage, and other personal services to the transient, is essentially a late Nineteenth Century phenomenon. During this period, nearly every major city in America built multi-story, down-town hotels and vied to boast the finest "grand hotel."[3]

During the early Twentieth Century, another great hotel building boom took place. During the 1920's the greater proportion of contemporary down-town hotel properties were built. The first of the great hotel systems or chains were also developed during this period by Ellsworth M. Statler, Eugene Eppley and Ralph Hitz.[4]

Along with the rise of the multi-service, multi-story, complex hotel came a demand for a new kind of manager. No longer were the skills of the portly and convivial grand host sufficient to cope with the multi-departmental and business management problems of the new era.[5] A way of developing hotel managers and their assistants, who were especially trained in the methods, knowledge and techniques of modern business management, had to be found.

In 1924, Cornell University opened its doors to the first class of hotel management students, as a result of the

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[3]Elsie L. Lathrop, Early American Inns and Taverns, (New York: Tudor Publishing Co., 1936), p. 365.

[4]Gerald W. Lattin, Modern Hotel Management (San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Company, 1958), pp. 8, 152.

[5]Conrad Hilton, Be My Guest (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957), p. 198.

personal interest and the financial endowment of E. M. Statler and Eugene Eppley.[6] Cornell became the first and dominant school in the professional hotel management field.

In the late 1920's William H. Klare, Vice-President of Statler Hotels and General Manager of the Detroit Statler, and John K. Wiley, Publisher of the Hotel Monthly, generated interest in beginning a similar program in the midwest, preferably Michigan. In 1928, the second major program in hotel management became a reality at the Michigan State College in East Lansing, now Michigan State University.[7] In recent years, eight other university level programs, leading to a Bachelor's degree in Hotel Management, have begun on campuses across the nation.[8]

So it is that the profession of hotel management has had a long, diverse, and slowly evolving history. As a result, it is imbued with a unique tradition and an occupational ethic that is quite highly institutionalized. Little attention has been given to fundamental research into the differential functions, the career patterns, or educational backgrounds which give rise to success in the hotel management occupation. It has, rather, evolved.

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[6]Gerald W. Lattin, Factors Associated with Success in Hotel Administration. A doctoral dissertation, Cornell University, 1949, p. 13.

[7]Michigan State College Catalog (East Lansing: 1928), p. 38.

[8]National Council on Hotel and Restaurant Education. Directory of Schools and Colleges Offering Courses for the Training of Managers, Supervisors and Workers in hotels, restaurants and institutions (Washington 5, D.C.: 1960), p. 36.

B. Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to describe the career patterns of selected hotel managers and to discern the educational, social-personal influences to achieving vocational success.

Since this study seeks to discover a set of broad unknowns (the significant educational and personal-social forces), its general objectives are:

1. To obtain from managers their current definition of occupation.

2. To determine the socio-economic and educational backgrounds of hotel managers.

3. To determine whether a definable educational and occupational career pattern leading to top-level management exists; and if it exists, its nature and differentials.

Some of the sub-questions which arise about this sample of hotel managers are:

1. What are their socio-economic origins?

2. What are their educational backgrounds?

3. What is the nature of their career patterns as especially related to mobility and stability?

4. What are their occupational definitions and aspirations?

5. What are their success differentials?

From the framing of the controlling statement, the general questions and the specific questions of this study, it becomes increasingly apparent that such an analysis of the careers of these hotelmen should not only contribute to the scope of literature available in the sociology of occupation, but should also have considerable guidance value for:

1. Young people entering the field.

2. The administrators and faculty of hotel management programs at the various levels of sophistication.

3. The total educational efforts of the state and national hotel associations in their continuing education programs.

C. Need

A study of hotel management careers, the role of education, and the occupational expectancies within those careers is of especial contemporary significance. Hotels represent the seventh largest service industry in the United States in total sales volume, now grossing approximately $2,550,000,000 a year.[9] The sale of hotel rooms and public

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[9] Selling to Restaurants and Hotels (New York: Ahrens Publishing Co., Inc., 1946), Fifth Revised Edition, 1957, p. 3.

space accounts for approximately one-half of the gross sales volume, while food and beverage sales and store rentals account for the greater part of the remaining portion.[10]

The hotel industry, exclusive of proprietors, employs approximately one-half million people with two per cent of that number, 11,000 paid executives, in managerial or sales management roles.[11]

The hotel business and its employees find themselves in an acute economic position. The 27th Annual Study by Horwath and Horwath, Hotel Accountants and Consultants, reveals that:

> 1. Average rooms occupancy decreased for the second consecutive year. The figures recorded for 1958 were the lowest since before World War II with small hotels suffering the greatest decline.
>
> 2. Profits from operations not only dropped once again below the level of the preceding year but were the lowest in hotels generally since 1941. Decreases were sharpest in the small, transient hotels but were evident in all three groups.
>
> 3. The drop in room occupancy effected a decrease in room sales from 1957 despite the fact that average room rates were the highest ever recorded. Total sales were also lower than the preceding year.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> 9. The ratio of payroll to total sales was the highest ever recorded for the smaller transient hotels. The payroll also increased in the

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[10] Ibid., p. 4.

[11] U.S. Bureau of Census, Census of Hotels, 1930. (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1931), pp. 76-83.

> residential hotels but decreased slightly in transient hotels with over 500 rooms. Reduction in the payroll of the larger transients was due to the greater ability of these hotels to adjust payroll to variations in the flow of business.[12]

The plight of the small or rural transient hotel with its competitive disadvantages in style and location may be readily inferred from the Horwath and Horwath summary above.

Coupled with these facts confronting hotels in their economic struggle is the relatively static economic position of the total commercial hotel industry. Since 1939 total hotel sales have increased little more than sufficient to keep pace with dollar value changes through inflation.[13]

The hotel industry is expressing grave concern with regard to the role of education in meeting the need for improved employees and managers to enhance its competitive position in the economic and personnel market. The present concern of hotelmen as to the educational opportunities of their industry at both the skilled and managerial level are well summarized in a statement by Weems in March, 1960.

> Present efforts on behalf of hotel education are the most serious ever undertaken. They promise within a short while an overall program designed to provide educational opportunities and facilities on every level and in practically every skill.[14]

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[12] Hotel Operations in 1958, 27th Annual Study by Horwath and Horwath, Hotel Accountants and Consultants (New York: 41 E. 42nd Street, 1959), p. 2.

[13] Selling to Restaurants and Hotels, op. cit., p. 5.

[14] Robert C. Weems, Jr., The American Hotel Institute, Its Role in Hotel Education. A special report prepared for the American Hotel Institute, unpublished document, 1960, p. 5.

The American Hotel Association has long displayed an interest in the education and training of industry personnel, including managers. Its first effort dates back to December 20, 1920, when it asked Layton S. Hawkins, then Assistant Director of the Federal Board of Vocational Education, to make an analysis of the need for and possibilities of establishing a system for hotel and restaurant training.[15]

He foresaw and proposed the creation of a hotel with a school attached for the practical training of hotel personnel at all levels. He felt that the young persons interested in hotel management should probably complete a four-year college program, but gather practical experience in the hotel school while enrolled in college. It is highly probable that his proposal is the basis of the approach used by contemporary university level programs in hotel management and their requirement of an apprenticeship or in-service training period for students as a part of their academic curricula.[16]

The second of the great "needs" studies was conducted by John B. Pope, United States Office of Education. In preparing his report of 1948, Pope used a detailed set of questionnaires, interviews and business research data. In his

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[15]Layton S. Hawkins, Vocational Education in the Hotel Business. (A Report to the American Hotel Association of the United States and Canada.) p. 6.

[16]Michigan State University Catalog (East Lansing: 1960), p. 111.

School of Hotel Administration 1960-1961, Cornell University Announcements. (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, July 15, 1960), Vol. 52, No. 2, p. 48.

opinion, hotel education and training, except at the college or university level, was "pitifully inadequate," due to a lack of support from management.[17]

At the annual convention and meeting of the Board of Directors of the American Hotel Association in 1958, a resolution was adopted calling for "a thorough study of the hotel industry's employment needs, pre-employment training and total training needs."[18] The study was conducted by the Industrial Counselors Service, Inc., J. W. Tower, Consultant.

His report is a re-emphasis of the Pope report with regard to the apparent lethargy of hotelmen to be concerned with on-the-job training for lower skilled people and for management development of his middle level executives and department heads. His report expresses concern with the vocational accent being given to college and university management preparation programs and the extended apprenticeship philosophy prevailing among hotelmen in the complete rounding of the experience background of the college graduate.

It is an understatement to say that the American taxpayer is today scrutinizing the expenditure of the educational tax dollar very carefully. Each of the major management training programs at the collegiate level is conducting careful and thorough-going appraisals of their respective programs.

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[17]John B. Pope, The Report and Recommendations on Hotel Education and Training. (A report to the Joint Educational Planning Committee of the American Hotel Association and the Hotel Greeters of America, October, 1948), p. 27.

[18]Weems, op. cit., p. 16.

However, as in the days of the establishment of the Cornell and Michigan State University programs, heavy reliance is made on the judgments of management, educators and hotel industry leaders as to the nature of the experiences requisite to becoming a hotel manager.

Hotel management curricula, both at the collegiate and vocational levels, today are a marriage of and borrowing from many disciplines of formal learning, with a curious mixture of the operating procedures and manuals of the early, successful business operations. Valid research data as to the nature of the hotel management career is currently unavailable.

Each year, approximately 420 young people graduate from service industry management training programs at colleges or universities, with nearly two-thirds of that group specializing in hotel management (as distinguished from restaurant and institutional management).[19] These graduates are primarily oriented toward the upper echelons of management. The career information available to these young people is indeed sparse and is limited to booklets describing the various departmental positions within the typical and larger hotels.[20]

Although acceptance has greatly improved from the founding era, graduates of university programs in hotel

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[19]National Council on Hotel and Restaurant Education, op. cit.

[20]Will Hotel Work Be Your Career? American Hotel Association, New York, 1959, p. 21.

administration continue to encounter difficulty in becoming assimilated by the industry, with a corresponding reluctance and unwillingness on the part of many graduates to remain in it.[21] The nature of the occupational blocks and impediments for the collegiate management trainee bear investigation and description.

Valid information regarding the actual routes to top management, the nature of the apprenticeship period for the management trainee, the mobility patterns of the successful and less successful managers--this critical type of information regarding careers in the hotel field has not been gathered.[22]

In addition, it has been the experience of the American Hotel Association Educational Institute,[23] many university conference programs, and many hotel association efforts, that training and educational programs find slow and reluctant acceptance among hotel men.[24]

The underlying reasons for the general apathy to the industry's continuing education efforts for hotel managers and their employees have not been researched.

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[21]J. W. Tower, Educational and Recruitment Needs of the Hotel Industry, A Pilot Study for the American Hotel Association (New York: Industrial Relations Counselors Service, Inc., April 30, 1959), p. 1.

[22]Lucius Boomer, Hotel Management Principles and Practice (New York and London: Harper & Brothers Publishers, 1938), p. 168.

[23]This Institute has been the American Hotel Association's official home-study and classroom extension program since 1953. The writer is its director.

[24]Weems, op. cit., pp. 1-17.

This study, then, seeks to research a previously unexplored field, searching for clues as to the nature of the hotel management occupation and the impact of education on the total career of the modern hotelman. Its implications are vital to the creation of formal education programs, to the design of association-sponsored educational programs, as a guidance tool for those interested in pursuing a hotel management career, and as an extension of the data available in the sociology of occupations.

D. Assumptions

Implicit in this study are two apparently conflicting sets of rationale. However, examination will reveal them to be correlaries, if confirmed by evidence.

The first assumption is that hotel managers do comprise a unique occupational group and that this uniqueness will form a sustained vein of evidence throughout the study. A uniqueness, or lack of it, will emerge from the variables explored in the chapters describing the hotel managers' socio-economic origins, their education, their career patterns, their mobility, their occupational definitions, and success differential.

The second assumption is that this sample of hotel managers' careers and socio-economic histories are sufficiently akin to those of general business management so as to be amenable to similar research techniques, methods, and lines of occupational inquiry, socio-economic backgrounds,

career histories, educational antecedents, and occupational definitions--all these have been found to be among the more discriminating features of other managerial-occupational roles. It is assumed, therefore, that a parallel approach to the occupation of hotelmen will prove to be equally fruitful.

E. Definition of Terms

1. Socio-economic origin. This ascribed characteristic is inferred primarily from father's primary occupation. It is described along the modified Edwards scale of seven occupational levels and fitted to the occupational classifications used in the hotel industry.

A description and defense of the Edwards scale for this purpose is well stated by Davidson and Anderson.

> Yet since a better classification is lacking, this scale will have to serve the purposes of the present study. It has the merit of having been arranged by an authority of the Census Office and has been used in classifying the gainfully employed in the country-at-large in 1930 (and also in 1940 and 1950). . .ideally, the data of the present study should have been analyzed with respect to both occupational and socio-economic status. As a matter of expediency, a scale of level has been used which is ostensibly socio-economic but really occupational; or, rather it is both to an unknown degree. This is the Edwards scale, the main headings of which are:
>
> 1. Professional persons.
>
> 2. Proprietors, managers, and officials
>   a. Farmers (owners and tenants)
>   b. Wholesale and retail dealers
>   c. Other proprietors, managers and officials
>
> 3. Clerks and kindred workers

4. Skilled workers and foremen

5. Semi-skilled workers
   a. Semi-skilled workers in manufacturing
   b. Other semi-skilled workers

6. Unskilled workers
   a. Farm laborers
   b. Factory and building-construction laborers
   c. Other laborers
   d. Servant classes[25]

The socio-economic origin of each manager was analyzed from the point of view of the father's primary lifetime occupation and years of schooling.

2. Educational background. This variable was drawn primarily from the respondent's highest year of formal education. Secondary sources were his on-the-job training experiences, organized experiences of a continuing education nature, and number of hours spent reading for hotel and general business information.

3. Hotel. Historically, the word "hotel" has been variously defined according to the traveling needs of the public in a given era. As the emphasis of the mode of travel has changed from foot to beast, from railroad to automobile, from waterways to airways, so has the definition of "hotel."[26]

Courts of law are not agreed as to a common definition of "hotel," especially with the recent emergence

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[25]Percy E. Davidson and Dewey H. Anderson, Occupational Mobility in an American Community (California: Stanford University Press, 1937), pp. 7-9.

[26]William Zelermyer, Legal Reasoning (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1960), p. 29.

of a new kind of transient facility--the motel and motor hotel.[27]

State laws also vary as to the definition of "hotel" for licensing purposes. The U.S. Bureau of Census included any facility having six or more transient rooms in its enumeration of hotels.[28]

As an alternative to the legal and quantitative definitions, an operational definition was decided upon. This study deals only with managers whose hotels have been investigated and approved by a group of their peers. These hotels are listed in the membership roster of the American Hotel Association Red Book, indicating that the hotel has been accepted by hotelmen themselves as offering "transient hotel facilities," a basic criterion of acceptance. In addition, each selected hotel (and the manager interviewed) was verified to the writer by the respective state hotel association executive as meeting these conditions.

The membership of the American Hotel Association represents the businesses accounting for 75 per cent of the total available hotel rooms in America.[29] It is

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[27]Hendrik Zwarensteyn, Hotel Law (East Lansing: Michigan State University, unpublished work, 1959), pp. 1-18.

[28]U.S. Bureau of Census, op. cit., p. 76.

[29]American Hotel Association Directory Corporation, Hotel Red Book (New York: American Hotel Association Directory Corporation, 1960--annually), p. 11.

reasonable to assume that the hotels of sufficient size, complexity, diversity of services, and tradition to develop an evolving managerial occupation are well represented in the American Hotel Association membership.

For the purpose of this study, the concept of "hotel" has been confined to that type of institution having (1) two department heads or more, (2) year around services, and (3) membership in the American Hotel Association.

4. Managers. In each hotel, the study was directed to the individual who was the top operating executive. Non-operating owners were not considered. Their counterparts, operating-owners, were interviewed. In most cases, the individual whose name appears in the Red Book, the annual listing of the American Hotel Association members, was interviewed.

5. Occupational definition. The manager's definition of his role and responsibility in the present situation was analyzed according to the general framework developed by Coates and Pellegrin[30] in studying industrial supervisors and executives and adapted to the hotel context. The categories of "greeter,"

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[30]Charles H. Coates and Roland J. Pellegrin, "Executives and Supervisors: Contrasting Self Conceptions and Conceptions of Each Other," American Sociological Review, Vol. 22, No. 2, April, 1957, pp. 506-517.

"operator" and "executive" used in this study are defined fully in Chapter VI.

6. Sponsorship. Career sponsorship refers to the personal interest and long-term assistance of a key hotelman during the management apprentice period and/or the lifelong friendship of an outstanding hotelman who materially abetted his protege's career.

7. Security. The relative security of hotel managers will be measured along four continua of occupational permanence:

a. The relative stability of the total career pattern of occupational security as measured by Miller and Form's criteria[31] and modified to fit the unique mobility pattern of the hotel systems.

b. The number of years in present position.

c. The number of different employees.

d. The ratio of years spent in "trial" positions to years spent in "stable" positions in the total career.

8. Success. The success of careers will be measured against two major criteria:

a. The number of years required to reach the top management position.

b. The relative business activity of the manager's hotel as measured by the occupancy and food-beverage percentages.

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[31]Delbert C. Miller and William H. Form, Measuring Patterns of Occupational Security (New York: Beacon House, Inc., 1947), pp. 362-375.

The genuinely unsuccessful careers, men who aspired to hotel management but did not achieve it, are not considered in this study. This study includes only those who are now hotel managers and seeks to distinguish between managers achieving greater versus lesser degrees of success.

F. Scope and Limitations

1. The geographical sample. The geographical base of this study was four midwestern states: Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and Ohio.

This region contains hotels which are generally representative of the kinds, sizes, and services found throughout America's primary commercial hotel market.

2. The numerical sample. Numerically, the sample was extended to 60 inquiries of operating managers to allow a base of 20 interviews within each of three strata by hotel size. Twenty cases were considered desirable so as to achieve the numerical minimum necessary for statistical applications seeking significant likenesses and differences.[32]

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[32] G. Milton Smith, A Simplified Guide to Statistics, For Psychology and Education (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., Revised and Enlarged Edition, October, 1946), p. 78.

3. Limitations in Interpretation and Applicability. Because of the geographic, membership, multi-departmental, and managerial level restrictions which were imposed in the definition and sample of hotel managers studied, great caution should be exercised to refrain from attempting to interpret and apply the results of this study to all hotel managers.

G. Organization of the Thesis

This study is organized around its introductory concepts and rationale, followed by the five significant questions it asks.

Chapter II reveals the scarcity of literature available concerning hotel managers and their careers. It also surveys the outstanding career and occupational mobility studies in general management which focus attention upon managers' origins, educational backgrounds, career patterns, and aspirations.

Chapter III describes the procedure and methodology used in the design of this study, the design of the interview schedule, the selection of the sample, and the conduct of the study.

Chapter IV relates this sample of hotelmen meaningfully to their socio-economic origins.

Chapter V shows the impact of formal and continuing education on the careers of these hotelmen.

Chapter VI discusses the hotelman's occupational definitions and its relationship to other career variables.

Chapter VII presents an analysis of hotel careers according to various measures of security.

Chapter VIII discusses the career patterns of the more successful managers as measured by the number of years to top management and the hotel's gross business volume.

Chapter IX reviews the major results of this study and meaningfully relates the dominant themes sustained by the significant variables. Suggestions for continuing research of the hotel management occupation are also presented.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. Related Studies in Hotel Management

Studies available in hotel management are sparse, especially when reference is narrowed to occupational and/or personal data about the manager. The researcher's primary reference to the field of hotel management is "Hotel Management and Related Subjects," published by Cornell University. It is an annual, annotated bibliography of publications and source materials in the broad field of tourist, resort, hospital, hotel, and restaurant management.[1] Perusal of the bibliography reveals that the preponderance of studies done in hotel management are concerned either with trends of business activity or with operating problems.

Two major studies of business activity in the industry are prepared annually. One is published by Horwath and Horwath, Hotel Operations. . .[2] and the other by Harris, Kerr, Forster, Trends in the Hotel Business.[3] These companies are

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[1] Hotel Management and Related Subjects, No. 18. (Ithaca, New York: Cornell University, June, 1959), pp. 6-9.

[2] Hotel Operations in 1958, 27th Annual Study by Horwath and Horwath, Hotel Accountants and Consultants. (New York: 41 E. 42nd Street, 1959), p. 65.

[3] Trends in the Hotel Business, 23rd Annual Review, prepared by Harris, Kerr, Forster & Co. (Chicago: 1958), p. 45.

the principal accounting and management consulting firms in the hotel, restaurant, and club management field. The significant questions used to identify the various sizes and kinds of hotels in this study follows their general pattern of information gathering.

Two studies have been conducted of students and graduates of four-year hotel curricula--one at Michigan State University, and the other at Cornell University. The Michigan State study[4] was concerned primarily with the present occupations of alumni, the number of positions held, and years spent in various hotel and restaurant positions. However, these data do not lend themselves to comparison here since the distributions are presented as aggregate data and are not amenable to further statistical analysis.

The Cornell study[5] concerned itself with two sets of factors: those which relate to success in the hotel curriculum and those which are related to success in the hotel business. Lattin's definition of business success departs from the usual economic criteria and is solely occupational--that of remaining in the hotel business (successful) versus not remaining in the hotel business (unsuccessful).

The factors which are related to success in hotel management training as measured by college grades are: high school

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[4] Careers in Hotel and Restaurant Management. (A Survey of Michigan State College Alumni), Research Report No. 9. (East Lansing: Michigan State College, February, 1954), p. 22.

[5] Lattin, op. cit., p. 183.

rank, mother's education and mother's hotel employment, a preference for history and English studies, a dislike for mathematics, science and the languages, a high principal's rating, psychological test scores, and attendance in public school versus private school. The factors which were not significantly related are: age on entrance to the program, father's occupation, father's education, geographical residence and number of siblings.

The factors which relate to success in hotel management (success meaning continued employment in hotel work) have more meaning for this study of educational and career patterns. Lattin found the strongest relationship between "hotel success" (occupational tenure) to Egbert's scale of choices.[6] Egbert's value scale strongly suggested that those that leave the hotel field are discontented with it as a way of life rather than lacking any inherent ability to perform well in the field and to conduct its business. The unsuccessful hotelman tended to desire personal and family comfort, regular hours, leisure time, intellectual pursuits, and evidenced a tendency toward introversion.

Successful hotelmen, however, seemed to be strongly extroverted, show a desire for power, control and recognition, and have a strong interest in high society life.

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[6]R. L. Egbert, The Effect of Some Childhood and Adolescent Experiences on the Development of Values, School of Education, Cornell University, Doctoral Thesis, 1949, p. 218.

From a review of the literature in the field of hotel management, it is evident that the present study is being conducted in a relatively uncharted field. Conducting a thoroughgoing study in this area of management with few landmarks for research guidance has a number of hazards.

The first difficulty is that of gaining a research and directional foothold so as to attack the problem at productive and fruitful points.

The second hazard to be encountered in a study of the individual hotelman or any other position possessing a similar degree of tradition and custom, is the very nature of its occupational-professional ethic. The role of the hotel manager is steeped in the tradition of the small businessman, of the independent entrepreneur and of the individual as a purveyor of direct and personalized service. The role of the innkeeper has become idealized and is, in most cases, a pervading and all-embracing way of life.[7] Therefore, for many incumbents, the role is shrouded with a halo of tradition and a number of sacred axioms about which, if discreet, the researcher does not attempt to probe its logic and rationale. This may well be the primary reason that studies of the manager himself have been skirted previously.

Suffice it to say that this study of hotel managers must be viewed as exploratory in nature--seeking significant variables as an opening wedge to a battery of studies which may

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[7]C. Wright Mills, White Collar (New York: Oxford University Press, 1956) pp. 44-54.

more adequately answer "why" the results and relationships of the present study are true.[8] This study is a sociological case study in hotel management careers and will search for educational implications. These may well serve as beginning points for continuing research in hotel management careers.

As has been true of hotel management curriculum building, perhaps the best approach to an inquiry into hotel management career patterns is to borrow the pertinent techniques and knowledge available from other fields of learning. The social sciences, especially sociology and its studies in the occupational and professional structures, may well prove to be the most beneficial.

B. Related Studies in General Business Management

Of prime importance are the career studies in general business management which have focused on management, business leaders and executives. They provide the researcher with a source of tested suggestions concerning the kinds of items which provide the information needed to complete an occupational-educational case history. The studies selected for review here are representative of a host of those concerned with success variables at the management level, with especial emphasis here on longitudinal studies which trace the influence of significant career variables upon the total management career. A

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[8]For a complete statement and rationale of "fact-finding" research, see Robert K. Merton, et al, Sociology Today; Problems and Prospects (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1959) p. xiv, as opposed to theory-testing research.

comprehensive survey of management career studies is not intended nor appropriate to this context.

1. Significant variables. An early study searching for antecedents and career variables which correlate highly with managerial and professional attainment is that of J. F. Thaden, in 1930.[9] Among the significants that he found highly related to success were:

    1. College education
    2. Specialized education
    3. Diversified organizational affiliations and memberships
    4. Membership in some religious denomination

In exhaustive studies of over 1,000 business executives holding responsible positions in business firms in the years 1870, 1900, and 1950, Suzanne Keller concluded that business leaders constitute a highly select group according to parents' occupations, religious backgrounds, academic preparation, constancy within an industry and company, and in obtaining a non-manual position on entry into the job market.[10]

In The Big Business Executive, Mabel Newcomer studied the key officer (president or board chairman)

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[9]John F. Thaden, Leaders, As Recorded in "Who's Who in America," and in "R.U.S." and Their Group and Inter-Group Relationships (A Doctoral Dissertation). (East Lansing: Michigan State College, 1930), p. 185.

[10]Suzanne Keller, The Social Origins and Career Lines of Three Generations of American Business Leaders (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). (New York: Columbia University, 1953) p. 206.

of 860 major American businesses. The key items of inquiry in her study were: religion, father's occupation, father's education, personal education, education related to size of corporation and the kind of business, educational institutions, professional training, education related to family status, education as a short cut to promotion, education related to the way in which the top position was obtained, education related to corporate growth and size, family assistance in getting started, the entire work history, tenure in various positions, principal factors in obtaining the executive office.[11]

The foregoing studies were especially helpful in the initial drawing of items and the design of the interview schedule upon which this study is based. The occupations and general total objectives of the studies cited approximated those of this study and contributed substantially to this researcher's confidence that an investigation of hotelmen concerning their origins, education, careers, and goals would prove fruitful and worthwhile.

2. Socio-economic origins of managers. The influence of socio-economic factors as measured by father's occupation upon the occupational status of sons has been

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[11]Mable Newcomer, The Big Business Executive, 1900 to 1950 (New York: Columbia University Press, 1955) pp. 21-46.

analyzed repeatedly since the 1927 study of Pitirim Sorokin.[12] The theme of his study, as well as those by Centers,[13] Taussig and Joslyn,[14] and Davidson and Anderson,[15] is well summarized in the study of Natalie Rogoff.

Her studies of occupational mobility over a thirty-year period analyzed variables such as: age, education and nativity, and their influence on mobility. Rogoff concludes that:

> "1. From 60 per cent to 75 per cent of the population are engaged in occupations other than those followed by their fathers. Thus, occupational mobility is more prevalent than occupational immobility or inheritance.
>
> 2. All sons are more likely to engage in their father's occupation than in any other single occupation. This is true no matter what the son's occupational origin may be.
>
> 3. Mobility is more likely to take place between 'adjacent' occupations than occupations of great 'distance' from one another. The terms 'adjacent' and 'distance' are loosely defined in terms of broad social or economic classes.
>
> 4. There is somewhat more upward mobility than downward mobility in the population as a whole."[16]

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[12]Pitirim Sorokin, Social Mobility (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1927), pp. 428-480.

[13]Richard Centers, The Psychology of Social Classes (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1949), pp. 76-101.

[14]F. W. Taussig and C. S. Joslyn, American Business Leaders, 1932, p. 319.

[15]Percy E. Davidson and H. Dewey Anderson, Occupational Mobility in an American Community (California: Stanford University Press, 1937), p. 192.

[16]Natalie Rogoff, Recent Trends in Occupational Mobility (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1953), p. 131.

These conclusions are focused directly on the managerial and professional levels of occupational activity by Taussig and Joslyn. They conclude that:

> "It does not seem too much to say that whether the field of endeavor be business, the professions, the arts and sciences, or letters, about 70 per cent of the persons of superior talent in the United States have been drawn from classes constituting hardly more than 10 per cent of the population. The manual laboring classes, on the other hand, constitute nearly half of the total gainfully employed population, and have contributed no more than 10 per cent."[17]

Centers further validated and specified this finding in his 1945 study of a representative cross section of adult, white, American males.[18] He showed that for all occupational strata, except the unskilled, approximately 70 per cent of sons move into an occupational strata relatively similar to their fathers'.

In a replication of the Taussig and Joslyn study of 1928, Warner and Abbegglen discovered in 1952 that certain similarities and differences had transpired.[19] They concluded that significantly more vertical mobility was taking place, with decreased occupational succession. More sons from the lower ranks were achieving business leadership, while smaller proportions of higher ranked sons were achieving distinction.

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[17]Taussig and Joslyn, op. cit., p. 242.

[18]Centers, op. cit., p. 198.

[19]W. Lloyd Warner and James C. Abbegglen, Occupational Mobility in American Business and Industry, 1928-1952 (Minneapolis: Minnesota University Press, 1955), pp. 4-35.

James David[20] found a significant statistical relationship between the parents' social position and the amount and type of education their children received in a New England city. His research is a strong link in the chain of evidence showing that education has become an added hurdle to occupational mobility since children's interests, opportunities, and their academic abilities[21] are strongly related to their socio-economic origin.[22]

3. Educational background of the managers. A number of investigations have been cited giving evidence of the strong relationship of socio-economic origin to the socio-economic status and education of the succeeding generation. Studies were accented which related these factors primarily to proprietors, managers, and officials, as a separate occupational class.

Among the studies defining the role of education in career mobility, is that of Lipset and Bendix.

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[20]James Stewart David, A Study of the Amount and Type of Education of Children as Related to the Social Position of Their Parents in a Southern New England Community (A Doctoral Dissertation, Yale University, 1951), p. 337.

[21]Anne Roe, The Psychology of Occupations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1956), p. 52; Gardner Murphy, Lois B. Murphy, and Theodore M. Newcomb, Experimental Social Psychology (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947), p. 43.

[22]Harlan Updegraff, Inventory of Youth in Pennsylvania, American Youth Commission, American Council on Education, 1936, p. 233; Helen B. Goetsch, Parental Income and College Opportunities, Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 795, Columbia University Press, 1949; p. 151; W. Lloyd Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, and Martin B. Loeb, Who Shall Be

> "The evidence indicates that educational attainment is a major determinant of career patterns, a fact which provides the strongest and most direct statistical link between family background and the assets and liabilities with which individuals enter the labor market. The nature of this link may be shown by a summary of the most relevant findings. . .
>
> "When we compare respondents whose educational attainments were the same, but whose family backgrounds differ, we find that the sons of manual workers most often enter the labor market in manual jobs, while sons of non-manual workers usually enter the labor in non-manual jobs. Only college education enables manual workers' sons to enter the labor market in a middle-class occupation."[23]

Lewis and Anderson studied the backgrounds of business executives in Lexington, Kentucky. Their study further sharpens the power and influence of education on the potential executive's career.

> "The most important single factor favoring business success was education. . .Its influence is asymmetrical in that men of high education rarely head small firms yet considerable proportions of those heading large enterprises had few years of schooling. The relation between vocational and business training and business success was in part an indirect reflection of total years of education. However, specialists' training typically prepared men for service industries in which most enterprises remain small. . .The sons of professional fathers had a decided advantage over all others. . .Family background appears to have been important largely through its implications with respect to schooling and to the degree of urbanization. . .

Educated?, Harper & Brothers, 1944, p. 72; Delbert C. Miller and William H. Form, Industrial Sociology (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951), pp. 727-736.

[23]Seymour Martin Lipset and Reinhard Bendix, Social Mobility in an Industrial Society (Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1959), p. 309.

> "In many respects the traits (educational) of men operating different sizes of enterprises form a continuum from the smallest enterprises up through the locally large establishments, to the executives in national corporations. There are, however, two distinct exceptions:
>
> a. Most of the smallest firms are in the service categories.
>
> b. While business remains exceptional in that unusual men with little schooling may be highly successful, this is primarily through independent business. In general, business success like success in public careers is coming to depend on education to a far greater extent than formerly."[24]

From the evidence of Lewis and Anderson, the hotel business may be expected to depart from the correlation between business size and extent of education, since the hotel business falls into the service industries category. It is made up of comparatively small business enterprises, except for the very largest of hotels, and is usually conceived as requiring special education and know-how.

Table I shows the median school years completed for several major occupational groups. The data for each group was drawn from the United States parameter. The proportion of proprietors, managers and officials in the population who have completed a college education stand second only to the professions. According to

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[24]Gordon F. Lewis, and C. Arnold Anderson, "Social Origins and Social Mobility of Businessmen in an American City," Transactions of the Third World Congress of Sociology, pp. 253-266.

TABLE I

PER CENT DISTRIBUTION BY MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP FOR EMPLOYED MALES 22 TO 74 YEARS OLD, BY YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED, FOR THE UNITED STATES, 1950[25]

Major Occupation Group	Number (Thousands)	College (4 years or more)	Median School Years Completed
Professional workers	2,774	55.0	16+
Managers and Proprietors	4,055	17.9	12.2
Clerical and Sales Workers	4,463	15.1	12.3
Craftsmen and Foremen	7,044	4.5	9.5
Service Workers	2,122	1.4	8.7

[25]Paul C. Glick, Educational Attainment and Occupational Advancement (U.S. Bureau of the Census), Transactions of the Second World Congress of Sociology. Computed from Table II of special report of 1950 Census entitled "Education," pp. 183-193.

Table I, 17.9 per cent of the managerial group had completed college in 1950.

Warner and Abbegglen report that "whereas in 1952 only 4 out of every 100 business leaders had less than a high school education, 27 did in the 1923 group; and only 32 per cent were college graduates in 1923, compared with 57 per cent in 1952."[26]

Little seems to be known about the extent of preparation of managers for their specific industrial field. Whether they should have some kind of specific or vocational preparation for managerial roles is a question for another study. Since specific vocational and "professional level" education is available in hotel management, it may well be important to discern how they compare with other managers as to the amount of specific preparation for their occupational endeavors.

Davidson and Anderson discovered in the San Jose study that:

> "Among all respondents, only 21 per cent reported having drawn upon vocational schooling for occupational competency. . .Proprietors, managers and officials depended little upon vocational schooling, only 12 per cent reporting such training. But 90 per cent of the professionals and one-fifth of the clerks had vocational training in preparation for their occupations."[27]

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[26]W. Lloyd Warner and James C. Abbegglen, Big Business Leaders in America (New York: Harper Brothers, 1955), p. 67.

[27]Davidson and Anderson, op. cit., p. 69.

An important distinction between managers and the established professionals is the extent of specific preparation at some level of education for the role they are performing.

With regard to the less formal means of education, Davidson and Anderson found that the "proprietors, managers and officials" category ranks among the lower percentages of those who have attended either night school or part-time day school.[28] Less than 20 per cent of persons in this occupational level have attended night school with an average attendance of 18.9 months. Those who have attended part-time day schools account for less than 5 per cent of the total group with an average attendance of 27.4 months. There is a tendency for occupations toward the lower end of the socio-economic ladder to make much greater use of night school and part-time day school opportunities.

Comparative data regarding the extent of continuing education activity by various industrial groups at the management level do not seem to be generally available.

4. Management definition. Based on his study of 50 highly successful and 50 moderately successful persons in similar executive environments, Coates concludes

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[28] Ibid., pp. 60-61.

that there are many variables to achievement of success at the managerial level.

"1. Although the two samples differed fundamentally in social origins, socio-economic backgrounds, educational attainments and occupational opportunities, these are not the sole determinants of differential occupational mobility and career success.

2. Differential and occupational mobility and career success result, not only from differential opportunities, personal attributes, abilities and capacities, but also from differential definitions of career situations and life goals, differential motivations and levels of aspiration and differential social and community participation patterns.

3. In addition to the technical skills associated with the ability to manipulate ideas and materials, social skills associated with ability to manipulate people are important determinants in career success."[29]

In addition to the established variables of origin and education, the present study seeks to examine the concept of "definition" of occupational and career positions with a view to differentiating the successful and unsuccessful, and for its meaning and interpretation to the education endeavors of the hotel industry.

Of particular interest is a later study of Coates in conjunction with Pellegrin.[30] After discussing both the social causation and equilibrium theories of career

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[29]Charles H. Coates, "The Achievement of Career Success in Executive Management: A Community Study of Comparative Occupational Mobility," reprinted from Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. XV, No. 11, 1955, pp. 174-175.

[30]Charles H. Coates and Roland J. Pellegrin, "Executives and Supervisors: A Situational Theory of Differential Occupational Mobility," reprinted from Social Forces, Vol. 35, No. 2, December, 1956, p. 1.

causation, he defines the situational theory of career causation as follows:

> ". . .The individual's career progress is greatly influenced by his 'definition of the situation,' which in turn is primarily determined by (1) his occupational experiences following initial occupational placement, and (2) the attitudes, values, and behavior patterns he acquires as a member of his occupational group."[31]

In describing the industrial supervisor versus the executive, Coates reports that the supervisor's career suffers from a self-imposed lowering of aspirations. In defining his occupational situation, he adopts the attitudes, values, and behavior patterns of his work group, constantly making himself less promotable in the eyes of his management. "Thus he suffered from self-imposed mobility blockage."[32]

5. Career patterns of managers and executives. Scores of studies have been conducted seeking the variables (e.g., origin, education, marriage, sponsorship, organizational affiliation, etc.) which influence occupational mobility and career patterns. The studies of Lipset and Bendix,[33] Reiss,[34] Martin and Strauss,[35] Warner and

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[31] Ibid.

[32] Ibid.

[33] Lipset and Bendix, op. cit., p. 309.

[34] Albert J. Reiss, "Occupational Mobility of Professional Workers," American Sociological Review, Vol. 20, December, 1955, p. 696.

[35] Norman H. Martin and Anselm L. Strauss, "Patterns of

Abbegglen,[36] Warner, Havighurst, and Loeb[37]--each have drawn certain distinctions.

Among the more definitive studies is that of Lipset and Malm relating the impact of father's education, subject's education, and subject's first job to current occupational status. Through the use of these three variables, they found the following statistical relationships to the present job:

> "Holding constant the other factors mentioned (father's occupation and son's education), the partial correlation coefficient between first job and present job is about +.5. The partial between present job and education while holding constant first job in father's occupation is +.15; and the partial between present job and father's occupation, while holding constant first job and education, is +.12. Combining the effect of the three factors mentioned as predicators of the present job gives a multiple correlation coefficient of +.63."[38]

Their results are based on careers at all occupational levels when studied longitudinally. There are no separate statistics given for the managerial level.

Davidson and Anderson in their study of the San Jose, California population, charted career patterns on the basis of "four elements":

Mobility Within Industrial Organizations," Journal of Business, Vol. 29, No. 2, April 1956, pp. 101-110.

[36]Warner and Abbegglen, op. cit., p. 176.

[37]Warner, Havighurst and Loeb, op. cit., p. 72.

[38]S. M. Lipset and F. Theodore Malm, "First Jobs and Career Patterns," American Journal of Economics and Sociology, Vol. 14 (1955), p. 258.

"1. Regular occupations of fathers, which indicates roughly the environment in which sons are reared.

2. The amount of schooling obtained by sons.

3. The level of first permanent occupation of sons.

4. The ultimate or regular occupational level on which sons are employed."[39]

Through the use of a gross lumping method, they plotted these variables along an Edwards vertical scale. Their configuration of the managerial classification represents the central theme of the careers and only includes 27 per cent of the management sample.

Few studies have been conducted, however, tracing the entire individual career so as to discern other than normative trends and data. Career resistances and idiosyncracies are not always adequately reflected in cross sectional studies of careers at various points in time.

Therefore, the classification device developed by Miller and Form is of especial interest.[40] Their technique makes possible the classifying of complete careers along a longitudinal time scale (horizontal axis) as well as an occupational scale (vertical axis). Each career is drawn on this scale so as to show initial, trial, and stable work periods. Figure 3 shows the

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[39]Davidson and Anderson, op. cit., p. 121.

[40]Delbert C. Miller and William H. Form, op. cit., pp. 705-714.

career patterns of two large hotel managers. Through this method, they have been able to present a composite and graphic picture of careers and to draw meaningful generalizations about the various occupation classes.

Regarding the managerial level, they believe that these careers:

> ". . .show histories of much vertical mobility in the initial and trial periods, but show surprising stability in the stable period of their work lives. Here the time period is defined as temporary or exploratory work of less than 3 years while stable work has over a 3 year tenure and is characterized by a feeling of permanency and long term expectancy in the position. . ."[41]

From the career significants defined and established by the graphic method, Miller and Form developed a scale for measuring occupational security. Six career families were defined according to relative security and ordered along a continuum of degrees of security as follows:

Career Family	Job Sequence Associated	Major Defining Characteristics
Stable	Stable Initial-Stable-Trial-Stable Stable-Trial-Stable Initial-Stable	Early entrance into stable job
Conventional	Initial-Trial-Stable Initial-Trial-Stable-Trial-Stable Trial-Stable	The "normal" and "socially expected" job progression to a stable job

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[41] Ibid., p. 708.

Unstable	Trial-Stable-Trial Initial-Trial-Stable-Trial	Return to a trial job after attaining stability through the conventional pattern
Single Trial	Initial-Trial Trial	Beginning of trial work period--mostly younger workers
Dis-established	Stable-Trial Initial-Stable-Trial	Return to a trial job after quick attainment of a stable job
Multiple Trial	Trial-Trial-Trial	Consecutive trial jobs with no stable job as yet attained[42]

Through this method of measurement, Miller and Form were able to associate varying degrees of security with specific occupational levels.

> "The professional workers are the most secure with 88 per cent in the stable families, while the unskilled workers are the most insecure with only 24 per cent in the stable categories. Almost a linear relationship is noted, the higher the occupational level, the greater the security patterns, and vice versa."[43]

As for owners, managers and officials, they found 78 per cent falling into the patterns of the stable and conventional career families.

Since the career families derived by this method of analysis are differentiated by qualitative criteria, statistical comparison is limited to proportions of workers found in the respective career families.

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[42] Ibid., p. 712.

[43] Delbert C. Miller and William H. Form, "Measuring Patterns of Occupational Security," Sociometry, Vol. X (New York: Beacon House, Inc., 1947), p. 371.

6. Summary. The field of occupational sociology is replete with studies showing the importance of certain career variables and themes in the occupational histories of men in the broad managerial classification. The highlights of the literature reviewed are as follows:

1. A few well selected items of parental and personal information may serve as the indices for a broad range of generalizations concerning socio-economic status, expected values, and general occupational orientation.

2. Socio-economic status as measured by father's occupation is closely related to an individual's occupational level at maturity. Sixty to 75 per cent of managers have origins in or bordering the managerial classification.

3. Socio-economic origin is the strongest single determinant of educational availability and use.

4. Regardless of origin, education is the most important, single factor leading to business success.

5. For the most part, there is a correlation between size of business and amount of education.

This appears to be true for all except the service industries.

6. Managers and proprietors as a group utilize continuing and adult education opportunities less than do occupations at the lower end of the scale, while the unskilled and operatives tend to use continuing education most of all groups except professionals.

7. An individual's present definition of his occupation (work position) serves as an overriding mobility determinant.

8. As measured by an index of occupational security, managers are second only to professionals and distinctly more secure than those of all other white collar and/or manual positions.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH PROCEDURE AND METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted according to a pattern of stratified sampling and by means of a structured interview technique.

A. The Sample

The problem of achieving an adequate sampling of the various sized hotels was immediately evident. Table II indicates that a direct random sample of Midwestern hotels would result in approximately one-half of the interviews being conducted in hotels of 100 rooms or less. Conversely, only one-fifth of the interviews would be drawn from managers in hotels having 300 rooms or more. These hotels account for more than 65 per cent of the hotel business.[1] Furthermore, the larger hotels can probably be considered on face validity to have more management career opportunities within each given unit than the smaller hotels.

Therefore, it was necessary to devise a method of stratifying the total population of hotels so that the various hotel sizes would be more nearly represented equally in the study.

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[1] Selling to Restaurants and Hotels (New York: Ahrens Publishing Company, Inc., 1946), Fifth Revised Edition, 1957, p. 109.

It was also desirable to stratify hotels according to somewhat similar degrees of managerial complexity and to study each strata sufficiently to appraise the uniqueness, if any, of the respective career patterns within that strata.

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF AMERICAN HOTEL ASSOCIATION MEMBERS IN FOUR MIDWESTERN STATES ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF ROOMS*

Number of Rooms	0-99	100-199	200-299	300-399	400-499	500-599
Illinois	67	47	21	14	16	9
Indiana	32	24	13	6	3	2
Michigan	96	32	12	5	1	4
Ohio	79	33	12	12	11	5
Total	274	136	58	37	31	20
Per cent of Total	46.2	22.9	9.7	6.2	5.2	3.3

Number of Rooms	600-699	700-799	800-899	900-999	1000	Total
Illinois	4	1			9	188
Indiana	2					82
Michigan	3	1	3	1	2	160
Ohio	3	1	1		5	162
Total	12	3	4	1	16	592
Per cent of Total	2	.5	.6	.2	2.7	

*Extracted by tabulation from the Hotel Red Book 1959-60 (New York: American Hotel Association Directory Corp., 1959), p. 1056.

Accordingly, all Midwestern hotels were divided into categories by hundreds (Table II). After study and consultation with hotel-industry specialists, a three-level

stratification was adopted, as shown in Table III, illustrated below.

TABLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF MIDWESTERN HOTELS IN GROSS CATEGORIES BY NUMBER OF ROOMS

Classification	Number of Rooms	Number of Hotels	Per cent of Total
Small Hotels	000-199	410	69.2
Medium Hotels	200-599	146	24.7
Large Hotels	600 or more	36	6.1

Table III is a compromise between the natural, numerical clustering of hotels (as shown in Table II) and the similarity of management complexity and service orientation within each of the following groupings:

Small hotels. Hotels having 0-199 rooms usually attract a transient and resort business, may or may not have food service, and represent a relatively simple organizational structure.

Medium hotels. Hotels having 200-599 rooms tend to attract some group and convention business, along with a large transient business. They have a relatively complex organizational structure and nearly always have a food and beverage service.

Large hotels. Hotels having 600 rooms and over are found to have relatively similar multi-departmental characteristics and attract large groups and conventions as a major

segment of their business. Their organizational structures are usually complex, with a score or more of personal services available.

The validity of the assumption that the relative amount of convention business increases with hotel size is shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGE OF GROSS INCOME ATTRIBUTED TO CONVENTIONS ACCORDING TO HOTEL SIZE

Hotel Size in Number of Rooms	Average Percentage of Convention Business	N
0-199	12	20
200-599	27	20
600-above	46	20

Mean per cent = 28 per cent
Pearson r = +.56

This distinction and division of hotels by size is not discrete, but its application to the majority of hotels of each group is apparent. Whether or not career and educational differentials would appear according to size of hotel managed was problematical. However, such a device was necessary to obtain a reasonable sampling of other than the small hotel career pattern.

Within each strata of hotels by size, twenty interviews were held with top operating managers. Thus, a total of sixty interviews, twenty in each strata, were conducted. The

managers interviewed were selected by random sample, randomness being achieved by use of a table of random numbers.

For example, the 410 hotels in the Midwest (see Table II) in the smaller hotel strata were listed and serially numbered. Hotels were drawn from that group by use of Kendall and Smith's Table of Random Numbers[2] until twenty hotels (plus alternates), fitting the criteria of the study, were found.

The opinion of the executive secretary of the state hotel association was followed as to whether each hotel fit the criteria of "two or more department heads." Approximately half of the hotels in the "small" classification were thus rejected, and one from among the "medium" hotels.

Random selection, as described for the small hotels, was applied to the other strata of hotels as well. In six cases, alternate hotels were used where the hotel manager by first choice was not available (vacations, conflicting appointments, out-of-town business engagements, etc.). Only on two occasions, not included in the previous six, did the manager appear unwilling to be interviewed. Here again, alternates were used.

B. The Interview Schedule[3]

On the basis of the defined purposes of the study, a list of topic areas for inquiry was drawn as follows:

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[2]M. G. Kendall and B. B. Smith, Tables of Random Sampling Numbers, Tracts for Computers XXIV (London: Cambridge University Press, 1939), pp. 2-5.

[3]See Appendix A.

1. The hotel, identifying data
2. The manager, personal-social data
3. The manager, socio-economic background
4. The manager, educational-work history
5. The manager, occupational definition and aspirations
6. The manager, educational practices and views
7. Topics of concern to hotelmen

These areas of inquiry were broken into a number of specific questions and items, each designed to elicit an aspect of the information required.

1. The hotel, its identifying data. Here, sufficient information was desired to ensure that the hotel fit the study criteria, to identify its ownership, and to ascertain its relative business status, as follows:
   a. Size
   b. Kind of ownership
   c. Level of business activity
   d. Rooms department income versus food and beverage department income
   e. Size of supervisory staff
   f. Residential versus transient rooms available
   g. Ratio of convention business to total business
   h. Population of city
   i. Interviewers estimate of hotel quality
2. The manager and his personal-social data.
   a. Age
   b. Marital status

c. Number of children

d. Income range and non-cash benefits

e. Church affiliation

f. Location of residence

g. Social-fraternal memberships

3. Socio-economic background. What are the origins of hotelmen? From what strata of our society do they spring?

a. Home town, location and size of community

b. Father's primary occupation

c. Father's and mother's formal education

4. Educational-work history. What is the complete pattern of formal education, informal training, and work experience comprising these managers' careers?

a. Number of years of formal (degree or diploma oriented) training; if collegiate, where and what curriculum

b. Length and kind of less formal training--short courses, correspondence, night school, etc.

c. Informal training, on-the-job

d. The complete work history according to:

(1) Job title

(2) Work tenure

e. Occupational goals at end of formal schooling

5. Educational practices and views. What importance do hotel managers attach to the various kinds of training opportunities?

a. Continuing education pursued since entering the hotel business

b. Number and kinds of business and professional magazines read, as well as average time spent in that reading

c. Requirements for a good hotel manager

d. Advice to a young man aspiring to hotel management

e. Opinions as to the critical influences or factors to success in hotel management careers

6. Topics of concern to hotel managers.[4] When not placed in an educational context, what fields of hotel keeping are of primary concern to hotel managers? This information was obtained by means of a forced choice series of items on three cards as follows:

a. Problems of departmental skills and know-how[5]

(1) Accounting

(2) Food and beverage

(3) Sales

(4) Maintenance and engineering

(5) Housekeeping

(6) Front office

b. Problems of management[6]

(1) Sales and public relations

(2) Human relations and personnel management

(3) Management controls and policy

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[4]See Appendix B.

[5]Peter Dukas, Hotel Front Office Management and Operation (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company), p. 181.

[6]S. E. Thompson and Wesley I. Schmidt, "What do Hotel Managers Do?" Hotel Monthly, December 1958, pp. 91-94.

(4) Long-range planning and market analysis

(5) Real departmental level know-how

(6) Financing and capitalization

c. Problems of an external and industry-wide impact[7]

(1) Governmental regulations and restrictions

(2) Motel and other competition

(3) Labor and unionism

(4) Hotel public relations and hotel prestige

These major questions and their sub-questions were restructured for subtlety and oblique inquiry on the basis of the experience and counsel of researchers at Michigan State University, the sociological studies cited in the Review of the Literature, and the writing of Merton.[8]

The interview schedule[9] was adopted for use after a pilot study of six hotelmen, not included in this study.

The interview schedule was in nowise followed according to its numerical and item sequence; but was, rather, used as a guide to conversation and an orderly framework of recording. In most cases the interview began with the interviewer making a general request for

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[7]Delbert C. Miller and William H. Form, Industrial Sociology (New York: Harper & Bros., 1951), pp. 829-857.

[8]Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1949), p. 5.

[9]See Appendix A.

a recounting of the subject's early family life, formal training, and the events leading to his entry into the hotel career. The remainder of the information followed with relatively few specific questions necessary.

C. The Interview Contact

The interview sample and interview schedule having been drawn, the investigator developed a travel itinerary of the selected hotels by geographical areas. A letter was sent to each hotel manager from the Director of the School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Management, Michigan State University,[10] announcing a research project to study successful career patterns, emphasizing the study's worthwhileness, and introducing the interviewer. It solicited the interviewee's cooperation when the interviewer called for a specific appointment. Each interviewee was then contacted by telephone and specific appointments made.

The interviews began in August, 1959, and concluded in March, 1960.

Throughout the process of contacting the manager interviewed, in presenting the purpose of the study, and in conducting the interview, questions and discussion of education and training concepts were carefully avoided. The phrase, "management career and success patterns" was adhered to carefully. The researcher prepared an approved opening[11] for each

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[10]See Appendix C.

[11]See Appendix D.

interview--not only to avoid slanting for or against educational emphasis, but also to standardize the interview approach and increase its reliability.

From this point forward in the interview, the thinking of the interviewee and the trend of conversation guided the order of discussion on the schedule topics. Direct questions were kept to a minimum to extend the range of responses and information.[12]

Great care was also taken during the interview not to infer, suggest, or imply the educational process. The interview items were drawn so as to allow the individual to respond with educational or other influences as key career factors, success factors, or personal aspiration factors. For this reason, the interviewer elected to begin each interview with the subject's early life history and work history so as to further shift the frame of reference away from the interviewer's own educational identification.

The typical interview lasted from an hour to one hour and a half, with the longest about three and one-half hours. In the majority of cases, genuine rapport was achieved on identification of the interviewer as a faculty member of the School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Management, Michigan State University, as well as Director of the American Hotel Institute. Only in a very few cases was a reluctant spirit or lack of genuine cooperation felt.

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[12]Robert K. Merton, Marjorie Fiske, and Patricia L. Kendall, The Focused Interview (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1956), p. 5.

D. Data Processing

From the interview schedule, 149 separate variables were analyzed, coded, and recorded on IBM cards.[13] Of the 149 variables, 63 variables were metric or ranked data, 86 variables were attributes or qualities.

All numerical and rank--ordered--variables were correlated simultaneously through the use of MISTIC, Michigan State University's computer. Thus, 1953 separate correlations were obtained to aid in the search for significant relationships.

Qualitative variables were tabulated and cross-tabulated through IBM tabulating machines and contingency tables were formed as necessary. Appropriate statistical techniques were employed to determine association and significance of variables related in these tables.

All interviewing, coding, statistical computation (except the correlations, means, and standard deviations provided by MISTIC), and interpretations were made by the writer so as to ensure maximum reliability for the study.

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[13] A complete list of the 149 variables analyzed in this study are presented in Appendix E.

CHAPTER IV

THE ORIGINS AND CONTEMPORARY POSITION OF MIDWESTERN HOTELMEN

A. Origins

Evidence has been reviewed showing the impact of origin, especially as related to socio-economic status, upon the expectancies education and occupational determination of children in our society. These relationships, as well as the relationship of origin to "sponsorship" and "occupational definition," will be examined for their effects in the careers of this sample of hotelmen.

1. Place of origin. This variable will be discussed in two dimensions--that of size of community and geographic region. From Table V, it is evident that the majority of hotelmen come from relatively small communities with a fairly even distribution of hotelmen over the remainder of the population size range. The size of home community is apparently related to the size of community of present employment. There is a Pearson correlation of +.33 between these two variables.[1]

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[1] For H_o ($\hat{r} = o$) when $r > .33$, then $P < .01$. See Helen Walker, Elementary Statistical Methods (New York: Henry Holt and Company, Inc., 1947), p. 248.

TABLE V

WHERE BORN AND RAISED, BY CITY, POPULATION SIZE

Population	Number	Per cent
0-24,999	24	40.0
25,000-49,999	7	11.7
50,000-99,999	7	11.7
100,000-499,999	8	13.4
500,000-999,999	6	10.0
1,000,000-2,499,999	2	3.3
2,500,000-5,999,999	4	6.7
6,000,000 or more	2	3.3
	60	100.1

The evidence regarding the geographic region of origin indicates that the majority of hotelmen have found employment in the region of their birth, the midwest. Migration from the south and east accounts for most of the immigration to midwest hotelkeeping, with very little mobility from the west.

The success of the foreign-born in hotel management does not seem to differ appreciably from that of general business management. As in this study, Warner and Martin report about 5 per cent of executives were found to be foreign born.

> "While it is true that immigrants do not often achieve the highest status positions in American business, their disadvantage is less than might be assumed, for 5 per cent of the business elite were foreign-born, while about 10 per cent of the U.S. population were born abroad."[2]

In further discussions, Warner and Martin contend that territorial mobility is correlated with occupational mobility.

> "The relationship between these two forms of social movement is an intimate one: those men who are mobile through social space are also mobile through geographic space. . .The physical mobility of Americans is a pre-condition to the changes in social position that have been found to be taking place increasingly in America."[3]

The majority (six) of the eleven managers whose origins were below the managerial level were from other than midwestern stock. (See Table VIII).

2. Socio-economic origin. Socio-economic status is usually measured by sociologists and will be associated here with father's occupation. Rogoff believes that:

> "Occupation of father is widely accepted as the most usable single index of the social and economic status of all members of the family."[4]

The hotel managers and proprietors of the sample are a well born group, with approximately 82 per cent of them having fathers in the professional, proprietary or managerial level occupations (see Table VI-A). Similar

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[2]W. Lloyd Warner and Norman H. Martin, op. cit., p. 103.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Natalie Rogoff, Recent Trends in Occupational Mobility (Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1953), p. 9.

studies of managers, in general, report 60-73 per cent of managers' fathers from the managerial occupational level or adjacent to it.[5] These hotelmen may be considered as coming from a socio-economic heritage which is above that of managers in general.

On the basis of origin alone, hotelmen's aspirations, education, and opportunities might be expected to be superior to their general management peers.

TABLE VI-A

PER CENT ASPIRATIONS OF RESPONDENTS ON ENTERING THE JOB MARKET AS COMPARED TO THE DISTRIBUTION OF FATHERS' OCCUPATIONS

Occupational Levels	Occupational Aspirations by Occupational Level		Fathers' Occupational Level	
Professional (including teaching)	35.0	35.0	6.7	6.7
Proprietors--				
Business and Farm	3.3		31.7	
Hotel	11.7	15.0	21.7	53.3
Managers--				
General Business	6.7		15.0	
Hotel	11.7	18.3	6.7	21.7
Not Managerial--				
Just to make money	26.7		18.3	
No plans	1.7			
Not ascertained	3.3			
		31.7		18.3
		100.0 (N=60)		100.0 (N=60)

[5]Delbert C. Miller and William H. Form, Industrial Sociology (New York: Harper & Bros., 1951), p. 720.

3. Origin compared to occupational aspiration and realization. Table VI-A reflects some generational shift upward from the occupation of fathers to the occupational aspirations of sons as they entered college or the job market, whichever was earlier.

Thirty-five per cent aspired to the professions, with 15 per cent aspiring to business proprietorship. It is of prime importance that at this stage only 18 per cent of the hotelmen foresaw their future in the management ranks. Most of the remaining 30 per cent were undecided as to a specific area and level of endeavor, but were certain that they "wanted to make as much money as possible." This response may well be considered to be largely a depression reaction. In general, the son's generation reflects some upward occupational shift in aspirations.

An era of occupational awakening and economic reality occurred for many hotelmen some time after entering the job market or the period of "working my way through college," and is reflected in Table VI-B.

Whereas Table VI-A shows hotelmen's early job aspirations were similar to or above their fathers' level collectively, their reported aspirations after entering and deciding upon the hotel field, shown in Table VI-B. denote a decided shift of interest from professional and proprietorship attainments to that of employment

as a hotel manager. Their aspirations were much closer to the level of reality and ultimate employment.[6]

TABLE VI-B

PER CENT RESPONDENTS' ASPIRATIONS AFTER ENTERING HOTEL FIELD AS COMPARED TO FATHERS' OCCUPATIONAL LEVELS

Occupational Level	Aspirations by Occupational Level	Fathers' Occupational Level
Proprietorship	20.0	53.3
Professional		6.7
Management	68.3	21.7
Other	11.7	18.3
Total (N=60)	100.0	100.0

The 35 per cent who had initial aspirations in the professions shifted to hotel business interests.

A total of 50 per cent of the hotelmen were born into the professional or proprietary families and 50 per cent of all sons had initially aspired to these levels themselves; however, only 20 per cent sought to achieve a proprietary interest after they had entered the hotel business and observed its realities. Whereas only 18 per cent initially aspired to an employed management position (Table VI-A), nearly 70 per cent did so after being in the business for some time (Table VI-B).

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[6]The writer is aware of the psychological research showing the distortion and accommodation processes of memory, especially when dealing with information as closely related to the individual's self concept as occupational choice. (Anne Roe, The Psychology of Occupations. New York: John Wiley and

Table VII shows the relationship between father's occupation and the current level of son's ownership in complete tabular form. The extent of proprietary disenfranchisement during the last generation is clear.

TABLE VII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S OCCUPATION AND EXTENT OF SON'S OWNERSHIP[7]

Part A	Son's Ownership				
Father's Occupation	Owner	Lessee	Minority Stockholder	None	Total
Professional	1			3	4
General Proprietor		1	3	11	15
Farm Proprietor			2	2	4
Hotel Proprietor	3	2	3	5	13
General Manager				9	9
Hotel Manager			1	3	4
Non-managerial	—	1	1	9	11
Total	4	4	10	42	60

Part B	Sons		
Fathers	Some Ownership	None	Total
Proprietary & Professional	15	21	36
Non-Proprietary	3	21	24
Total	18	42	60

$X^2 = 4.6$ $\quad .05 > P > .01$

Sons, Inc., 1956, pp. 143-248). This interpretation of occupational "awakening" and the reality of objectives is, therefore, carefully limited and reported.

[7]The complete set of data presented in Part A, and combined to form Part B, illustrates the manner in which succeeding tables in this study were reduced so as to make the data amenable to chi-square computation. (See J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education, New York and London: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1942), p. 167.

Of 32 fathers, who were proprietors, only 14 of their sons are new proprietors. Of the 13 fathers who were "hotel" proprietors, only eight of their sons are proprietors to some degree.

Three hotelmen achieved a limited proprietary interest (lessee or minority stockholder in a privately owned hotel) without proprietary heritage. The one proprietor whose father is shown in Table VII, Part A, as a professional, is also a multiple property hotel owner. The data in Table VII, Part B, substantiates a statistically significant relationship between father's and son's proprietorships.[8] Sons having fathers who are proprietors, regardless of field, are much more likely to achieve some proprietary interest in the hotel business than sons from a non-proprietary heritage. This conclusion is sustained by a chi-square value which is significant at the $.05>P>.01$ level of confidence.

Table VIII compares the distribution of occupational levels achieved by both father's and son's generations. Whereas 53 per cent of all fathers were proprietors, only 13 per cent of sons (hotelmen) have achieved or are striving to achieve sole proprietorship

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[8]The 5 per cent level of confidence will be accepted as "significant" in this study. The 1 per cent of confidence will be referred to as "highly," or very significant. For all other probabilities, the null hypothesis will be accepted.

through options or increased ownership of company stock.[9]

TABLE VIII

THE CONTEMPORARY GENERATION OF HOTEL MANAGERS AND PROPRIETORS AS COMPARED WITH THEIR FATHERS' PRIMARY OCCUPATIONS

Father's Occupation	Per cent		Status of Sons	Per cent
Professional		6.7		
Proprietors--			Proprietors--	
General	25.		Sole owner	6.7
Hotel	21.6		Lessee	6.7
Farm	6.7		Minority stock	16.6
Total		53.3	Total	30.
Managers & Officials--				
General	15.0			
Hotel	6.7		Hotel Managers	70.
Total		21.7		
Total		81.7		
Non-managerial		18.3		
Total (N=60)		100.0	Total	100.0

Among fathers, about 22 per cent were employed managers and officials; among contemporary hotelmen, approximately 70 per cent are employed managers. Looking at the hotel proprietorship factor specifically, 13 of the 17 fathers engaged in the hotel business (76 per cent)

[9]This category does not include managers having some ownership of chain corporation stock. It has reference only to managers who hold stock in a private or independent hotel corporation and who have aspirations of increasing their stock holdings to a majority level.

were majority proprietors. In this sample of sons, less than 7 per cent are primary owners. Although the initial professional proprietary and aspiration ratios were high, occupational realization among these hotelmen shows a marked inter-generational decline.

4. Origin and son's education. In contrast with studies in general management cited earlier, this study did not reveal a significant statistical relationship between father's occupation and son's education. When comparing proprietary and non-proprietary fathers to college versus non-college trained sons, the chi-square test in Table IX yields $.40 > P > .30$. This association may be spuriously low because of the relative homogeneity in the occupational distribution of the fathers, and the method of combining categories.

Similarly, the Pearson coefficient of correlation between father's years of schooling and son's years of schooling was found to be +.22. The data and their derived statistics are inconclusive as to the relationship between origin and son's education.

Table X shows the formal, educational achievement of the sample of hotel managers, as compared with the managers in the Glick study, reported in Chapter II, Table I. This group of hotelmen has a higher than average education--13.9 years of education versus 12.3 years for managers in general. Their superior education and

TABLE IX

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FATHER'S OCCUPATION AND EXTENT OF SON'S FORMAL EDUCATION

Father's Occupation	Son's Education		
	Not College Graduates	College Graduates	Total
Proprietary	18	18	36
Non-proprietary	15	9	24
	33	27	60
X^2 = .91 .40>P>.30			

TABLE X

PER CENT OF MANAGERS ACCORDING TO YEARS OF EDUCATION

Years of Education	Number	Per cent
Less than 12 years	8	13.3
12 years	11	18.3
13 to 15 years	14	23.3
16 years	24	40.0
17 or more years	3	5.0
Total	60	100.0
Mean years of education = 13.9		

their superior socio-economic origin reflects the general and established relationship between a high socio-economic heritage and educational advantage.

The proportion of college graduates in this sample is considerably higher than the general population of managers. Glick's census data for 1950 reported 17.9 per cent of managers in the United States as having four years or more of higher education, well below the 45 per cent college graduates obtained in this study.

It is commonly assumed in the hotel industry that hotelmen's sons attend hotel school in greater proportions than do the sons of other occupational classes. There is an apparent lack of relationship, however, between hotel origin and attendance at hotel school versus non-hotel school, illustrated in Table XI. The likelihood of the chi-square value from the data in Table XI is $.80 > P > .90$.

TABLE XI

HOTEL BACKGROUND COMPARED TO COLLEGE PREPARATION

Father's Occupation	Son's Education		
	Hotel School	No Hotel School	Total
Hotel	4	13	17
Non-hotel	9	34	43
Total	13	47	60
$X^2 = .09$	$.80 > P > .70$		

5. Origin and sponsorship. It is part of the expectancy of the hotel management occupation that its candidates and recruits will spend a period of years

at the working and supervisory level in the various departments.[10] It will be developed in succeeding chapters that those who enter the apprenticeship period with the "right" kind of start or "sponsorship," experience a career pattern having distinct advantages over those who are "unsponsored."[11]

Sponsorship in this context is defined somewhat differently from Orvis Collins in his study of "Ethnic Sponsorship in a New England Factory."[12] It is, rather, as described by Martin and Strauss,[13] as well as by Jennings.[14] As used here, it emphasizes the long-term assistance of a key hotelman during the intial training period and the life-long friendship of an outstanding

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[10]Gerald W. Lattin, Modern Hotel Management (San Francisco: W. H. Freeman and Co., 1958), p. 174.

[11]Sponsorship was an unanticipated career variable both from the viewpoint of the research design and anticipated career variables. Unplanned and fortuitous discoveries are integral part of social science research and have been described by Merton: "The serendipity pattern, then, involves the unanticipated anomaleus and strategic datus which experts pressure upon the investigator for a new direction of inquiry which extends theory." Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Ill: The Free Press, 1949), pp. 98-101.

[12]Orvis Collins, "Ethnic Behavior in Industry: Sponsorship and Rejection in a New England Factory," The American Journal of Sociology (Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, January 1946), pp. 293-298.

[13]W. Lloyd Warner and Norman H. Martin, Eds., Industrial Man, Businessmen and Business and Business Organizations (New York: Harper & Bros., 1959), pp. 94-96.

[14]Eugene E. Jennings, An Anatomy of Leadership: Princes, Heroes, and Supermen (New York: Harper & Bros., 1960), p. 256.

hotelman who materially abetted his protege's career. Sponsorship here is epitomized by "the manager who made something of me and has helped me find the breaks through the years."

Table XII illustrates the extent of relationship between the father's occupation and hotel career sponsorship. Table XII, Part A, indicates that those who have come from a professional-proprietary background show significantly less reliance on making the right contacts and securing a more advantageous apprenticeship than the more mobile sons from the managerial and below-managerial (non-proprietary) classes. This finding is the more striking since, by definition, many hotel proprietor's sons enjoyed the benefits of family sponsorship. Table XII, Part B, gives evidence that hotelmen's sons evidently do not enjoy a significantly greater advantage in securing sponsorship during the apprenticeship period than those of the general group. The overriding importance of sponsorship as a career variable will be developed in Chapter VIII.

Origin displayed the greatest impact on the eight sons whose families were able to transmit their proprietorship to their sons to some extent. For these sons, having the advantage of "hotel-family sponsorship" the mobility rate is markedly different. Whereas their peers will spend an average (mean) of 9.1 per cent years in reaching their first managerial

positions, those for whom proprietorship is inherited will spend an average of two years in work experience before becoming the hotel manager.

TABLE XII

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCCUPATIONAL ORIGIN AND SPONSORSHIP DURING THE APPRENTICESHIP PERIOD

A. Proprietary Origin Differential			
Occupational Origin	Sponsorship		
	Experience Only	Sponsored and Formal	Total
Proprietary	20	16	36
Non-proprietary	7	17	24
Total	27	33	60
$X^2 = 4.4$ $.05 > P > .02$			

B. Hotel Origin Differential			
Occupational Origin	Sponsorship		
	Experience Only	Sponsored and Formal	Total
Hotel	6	11	18
Non-hotel	21	22	42
Total	27	33	60
$X^2 = .864$ $.40 > P > .30$			

These sons had the initial advantage of being born and reared in the hotel occupational ethic and technology. For the most part, their training was inherent in and a part of their early life. It seemed to limit their mobility, opportunities and to establish a pattern

of work and thought that inhibited their adaptation to a changing technology and economy.

These proprietors now find themselves in smaller properties doing an average to below-average business in seven out of the eight cases, seeing their lifetime of hotel management experience being slowly negated by recent changes in transportation routes, modes of travel, changes in public taste, and the encroachment of competition.

5. Origin and Management Definition. One of the critical variables in this study is the manner in which a hotelman views his position and defines his role. It was found that hotelmen view themselves as "greeters," "operators," or "executives" (see Chapter VI). From Table XIII, Part A, it is evident that there is an apparent lack of relationship between a hotel versus non-hotel background and an executive definition of the management position. Table XIII, Part B, indicates that those with a proprietary heritage may tend toward a non-executive (greeter and operator) definition of their position, but not at a statistically significant level. However, seven of the eight proprietors who inherited their properties directly, see themselves as an "operater" or "greeter" and lack an administrative orientation.

As measured by occupational level of origin, hotelmen of this sample are above their general management

contemporaries. Proportionally, more men have stepped down the occupational ladder from their father's generation than have stepped up, especially with regard to

TABLE XIII

ORIGIN COMPARED TO HOTELMEN'S OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Part A

Father's Occupation	Management Definition of Hotelmen		
	Non-executive	Executive	Total
Hotel	9	8	17
Non-hotel	23	20	43
Total	32	28	60

$X^2 = .00015$ $P > .99$

Part B

Father's Occupation	Management Definition of Hotelmen		
	Non-executive	Executive	Total
Proprietary	22	14	36
Non-proprietary	10	14	24
Total	32	28	60

$X^2 = 2.16$ $.20 > P > .10$

proprietorship. Having described the social genesis of these hotelmen, attention is now turned to their contemporary setting.

B. Contemporary Status

The typical hotelman in this sample is a mature businessman with work history averaging 29.1 per cent years of experience in the hotel field. Except for the sons of hotel

proprietors and the family financed, he has worked himself up through the ranks, through a series of highly competitive and rather unstable job classifications. He is now 50 to 51 years of age and has been in his present place of employment from six to eight years. However, one-fourth of these hotelmen have moved within the last year.

Most hotelmen have spent the majority of their working lives living in hotels. Five out of six have held no other top management positions other than hotelkeeping. The remaining one-sixth were in either food management or property management, closely allied occupations.

Two-thirds of these hotelmen reside in the hotel itself and have business expenses as well as their meals provided by the hotel. Of the remaining one-third (20 hotelmen), who do not live in the hotel, only three do not have both their meals and business expenses fully covered.

Of the 40 hotelmen who reside in the hotel, two-thirds of them are managing larger properties on a non-proprietary basis. One-third of the "live-ins" are in the individually owned or smaller hotel groups.

Cash salaries for these managers were determined and kept distinct from the foregoing benefits. The majority of hotel managers are in the income bracket of $15,000 per year or above. Those receiving incomes of $10,000 or below are in smaller hotels and/or in hotels of marginal quality. No hotel manager with an income below $10,000 a year was found in a

hotel over 600 rooms, or with a third class hotel evaluation or lower.[15]

Table XIV illustrates clearly that a manager's income is directly related to his ability to perform. Once on the job and having arrived at the management level, socio-economic factors and education become relatively less important and measureable results become the criterion. The manager's income is related to: (1) the quality of the hotel, (2) the business activity of the hotel, (3) leadership exhibited by the manager, and (4) length of management experience.

Among these hotel managers, education is not significantly related to income. Neither is education significantly related to any of the other variables listed in Table XIV.

Hotelmen are not known for being family and domestically oriented, especially in the larger properties. The average number of children for a hotelman in this sample is 1.4 per cent, with an inverse correlation of -.29 prevailing between

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[15]All hotels visited in this study were given a subjective evaluation on a rank order scale, 1--5. This rating was based on the writer's general impression of the hotel's physical condition, cleanliness and location. The criteria established for the ratings were: (1) All excellent to luxurious hotels; (2) All hotels having essential facilities in reasonable and clean condition; (3) All hotels having the minimum in facilities and cleanliness which the writer would consider for his family; (4) All hotels below acceptability for family use but which the writer might consider if necessary; and (5) All hotels found personally unacceptable. This rating and codification has no absolute values, but does afford a means of ranking for comparative purposes.

Hotels of lower rank tend to be found among the smaller hotels, and vice versa. The Pearson correlation coefficient between the factors of size and quality rank was -.36.

size of hotel and size of family. Only the smaller hotel managers and proprietors appear to have large families. Those who manage large hotels and usually live in them do not attempt to raise large families. Sixty per cent of those living in large hotels have one or no children per family.

TABLE XIV

CORRELATIONS OF SELECTED BUSINESS AND PERSONAL VARIABLES TO INCOME

Variable	Correlation to Income
Quality--	
Interviewer's hotel evaluation	+.69*
Business Activity Factors--	
Number of department heads	+.46
Per cent convention business to total gross revenue	+.46
Per cent of food sales to total revenue	+.44
Leadership factors--	
Number of American Hotel Association offices held	+.34
Civic and fraternal membership	+.41
Civic and fraternal offices held	+.33
Experience--	
Number of years in top management	+.23
Education--	
Number of years of formal schooling	.0072

*For H_o ($\hat{r} = o$), when $r > .32$, then $P < .01$. (See Helen Walker, op. cit., p. 248).

Hotelmen frequently expressed themselves as feeling they had sacrificed family life for their business, but also felt young men worthy of management positions should be willing to postpone family life and privileges.

It is an occupational expectancy for the hotel manager to adjust his private and family life to the vicissitudes of the business. Lattin's study corroborates that those having strong domestic values do not remain in the hotel business.[16] However, wives who are deeply interested in the hotel business may be a great asset to a manager, not only in informal, social contacts but in hotel operations as well. Several small proprietors and managers have wives who direct housekeeping functions, assist in room decorating, or in menu-making and banquet planning. With the increased organization and rationalization of hotel units, the demand for wives to participate in hotel operation is decreasing, but it is found to be recurring in the independently-owned motor hotel business.

As churchmen, hotelmen reported a 76.7 per cent membership. Over two-thirds of the hotelmen are Protestant; over one-sixth are Catholic. Four hotelmen (one-fifteenth) are Jewish, and four had no affiliation or were not ascertained (see Table XV).

The gamma association of +.62 between hotel size and religious affiliation (the Protestant-Catholic dichotomy) indicates that smaller hotel managers and owner-managers tend to be Protestant, whereas larger hotels, primarily metropolitan, tend to have a larger proportion of Catholic managers.

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[16]Gerald W. Lattin, Factors Associated With Success in Hotel Administration. A Doctoral dissertation (Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell University, 1949), p. 183.

TABLE XV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HOTEL MANAGER'S RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION AND HOTEL SIZE

Religion	Number of Managers by Size of Hotel				
	Small	Medium	Large	Total	Per cent
Protestant*	15	17	9	41	68.3
Catholic*	2	1	8	11	18.3
Jewish	1	2	1	4	6.7
None	2	0	2	4	6.7

*For these two categories, Gamma = +.62.[17]

Jewish managers were all found in either personally owned or family owned properties. There were no employed Jewish managers. Two Jewish managers expressed their awareness of the resentment on the part of employees and local communities to their presence and expressed interest in employing a "gentile" manager as a "front man."

C. Summary

This sample of midwestern hotelmen is an especially well born and highly educated group as compared with the general managerial and proprietorship classification. They entered the world of work with high expectancies of success in proprietary or professional endeavors. The vast majority, however, have accommodated themselves to the role of "professional" or employed managers.

[17]Morris Zelditch, Jr., A Basic Course in Sociological Statistics (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1959), p. 181.

They came primarily from smaller communities and were born and reared in the midwest of Protestant, upper-class families. With this heritage, these midwestern hotelmen entered the job market imbued to a great extent with the conviction of the Protestant business ethic[18] and believers in the "rhetoric of personal competition."[19] For the careers of many hotelmen, this very set of professional and proprietary ideals served as an initial barrier to career accommodation in a rapidly rationalizing and bureaucratizing industry.

The sons of proprietors and professionals appear to have been less able and perceptive than their peers in learning the importance of "significant others" in their initial career orientation and in later development. In launching their career, they struck out on their own, less willing to bend their wills and to acclimate to the needs and demands of superiors who could be of material assistance to them in their search for success. In addition, the sons of proprietors were apparently somewhat less able to shift from the small businessman's "operator" point of view to the administrative orientation demanded by the successively larger units of business enterprise. This latter hypothesis was not sustained by a significant statistic.

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[18]William H. Whyte, Jr., The Organization Man (Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1957), pp. 6-24.

[19]C. Wright Mills, White Collar (New York: Oxford University Press, 1956), pp. 35-54.

Those of the proprietary heritage who did "succeed" in achieving a degree of hotel proprietorship today stand disillusioned and dismayed by the growth of large hotel organizations all about them and are seeing their lifetime dreams depreciate in both psychic and economic value.

On the contemporary scene, these midwestern hotel managers live primarily at their place of business and enjoy a large variety of fringe benefits in prestige, authority, personal comfort and advantage. These are the benefits which the manager has grown to idealize and admire in his apprenticeship years. For these, he must sacrifice much in the way of family life, regularity of hours, and normal social intercourse.[20] The demands of business, its irregular hours, the whirl of conventions--all these pressures must be cared for immediately, cannot be postponed or filed, and are seen as requiring the manager's immediate attention.

Many hotel managers expressed apprehension with the influx of Jewish ownership of hotels. This concern was expressed primarily by the less secure managers of hotels held by property management companies, real estate development companies, or investment companies. They have experienced the vicissitudes of rapid property turnover, frequent job changes, varying philosophies of financial management and property care. They also expressed apprehension over the alleged trend toward speculative ownership for capital appreciation or

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[20]As do other occupations; e.g., the railroad conductor. See William Fredrick Cottrell, The Railroader (California: Stanford University Press, 1940), pp. 12-59.

taxation purposes rather than profitable operation in a long-term, patron-use market.

Of the eleven Catolic managers, all except one were employed managers, and in metropolitan centers. Larger hotels, primarily chain owned, tend to have a greater proportion of Catholic managers than do smaller hotels.

This is the setting and background for an array of evidence in a career study which presents both a challenge and anomaly to the comprehension of an occupational pattern.

CHAPTER V

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS OF HOTELMEN

Although hotelmen come from backgrounds of nearly every socio-economic level, the data have shown that four-fifths of them came from non-manual occupational origins. Stemming from a superior socio-economic plane it might be expected that hotelmen will possess superior formal educational backgrounds and secure more informal learning opportunities than their managerial counterparts.

Formal and continuing education are the two variables analyzed in this chapter.

A. Formal Education

It has been established in Chapter I, Review of Literature, that managers possess educational histories which are superior to all other occupational levels except professionals. In this context, educational status was measured by mean years of formal training, or the percentage of college graduates in the occupational class.

The ratio of college trained hotel managers in this sample (45 per cent) compares favorably with that of the business elite, studied by Warner and Abbegglen in which 57 per cent of their sample were college graduates.[1] These are in

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[1] W. Lloyd Warner and James C. Abbegglen, Big Business Leaders in America (New York: Harper Bros., 1955), pp. 65-74.

contrast with the national average for the managerial classification, as previously cited, which places the percentage of college graduates at approximately 20 per cent in 1950.[2]

In most businesses there is a relationship between the size of business and the proportion of better educated managers.[3] There is little or no apparent tendency for hotel managers' years of education to correlate with the size of unit managed (r = +.0009).

Neither is education significantly related to type of hotel ownership--corporate, independent, and dependent ownership (defined fully in Part B of this chapter). The chi-square for this relationship is .639, which is significant at the $.80 > P > .70$ level.

1. Curriculum. The question well may be asked as to whether or not the college curriculum of prospective hotelmen was a differential factor in their occupational careers. Table XVI, Part A, depicts the percentage distribution of subject matter pursued by hotel managers according to hotel size. About one-fourth studied general business administration, and one-fifth hotel administration. The nine managers (15 per cent) who came into hotel management after pursuing a law degree represent a rising and increasingly important trend in

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[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

hotel management, since lawyer-managers were seldom noted prior to the World War II era.[4]

TABLE XVI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HOTEL SIZE AND COLLEGE CURRICULUM

Part A College Curriculum	Size of Hotel				
	Small	Medium	Large	Total	Per cent
Hotel Administration	4	7	2	13	21.3
University, Business Administration	0	2	6	8	13.3
Non-University, Business Administration	2	4	1	7	11.7
Law	3	2	4	9	15.0
College Preparation	3	1	0	4	6.7
No College	8	4	7	19	31.7
Total	20	20	20	60	100.0

Part B College Curriculum	Size of Hotel		
	Small and Medium	Large	Total
Hotel Administration	11	2	13
Business Administration	2	13	15
Total	13	15	28

$X^2 = 14.4$ $P < .01$

$r_\phi = +.62$[5]

There is a highly significant tendency for managers trained in hotel administration to manage medium and

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[4]From an interview September 10, 1960, with Bernard L. Proulx, Professor, Hotel Administration, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan.

[5]The notation r_ϕ is to be read "the Pearson r estimate bared on phi." The translation is by the formula $r_\phi = \frac{\phi}{.798}$ when a dichotomous variable is correlated with a continuous variable that is artificially reduced (see Guilford, op. cit., p. 242).

smaller houses, while those trained in general business administration at the collegiate level tend to become managers of large hotels, as shown by the data in Table XVI, Part B. The chi-square test of independence between the variables of college curriculum and hotel size yields a value such that $P < .01$.

Those who attend hotel schools apparently aspired to early management opportunities which are more prevalent in the smaller hotels and motor hotels. Those who attend general business administration programs evidently aspire to become members of larger organizational units and are willing to spend the necessary time in the departmental and middle-management goals. The correlation between hotel size and time in the middle management ranks is +.34.

Of the nine notelmen who pursued a law curriculum, only one foresaw, while a trainee, an increasing necessity for legal knowledge and ability in both property and labor negotiations. The remainder of this group were divided between those who became disillusioned with a law career and those who came into hotel management via real estate management.

2. Years to the top. Apparently the most meaningful impact of formal education upon the hotelman's career is its influence upon the length of time required to reach a top management position. Table XVII shows the inverse relationship between the number of years

required to reach top management and the years of formal schooling. It required the average hotelman in this sample 9.1 years to reach the top with an inverse correlation of -.49 prevailing between years of education and years to the first top management position.

TABLE XVII

HOTELMEN'S YEARS OF FORMAL SCHOOLING RELATED TO THE NUMBER OF YEARS REQUIRED TO REACH TOP MANAGEMENT

Years of Schooling	Mean Years to Top	Number of Hotelmen
Less than 12 years	15.8	8
12 years	11.9	11
13-15 years	7.9	14
16 or more years	6.5	27

When high school graduates and those with less than high school education were combined (to increase the class n), a mean education of 13.75 years was obtained. The mean years to the first top management position for college graduates is 6.5 years. The significance of the difference, using Fisher's "t" ratio, between these means yielded a value such that $P < .01$. The remaining difference between educational categories did not prove significant, primarily due to the small numbers involved.

3. Apprenticeship period. College education does not, however, obviate spending a period of years of apprenticeship in the various departments. It merely tends to

shorten the apprenticeship period and assure that the management candidate will spend some time in a greater variety of departments to achieve a better rounded working experience.

Years of schooling correlates to the number of years in middle-management positions -.45. This statistic confirms hoteldom's point of view regarding education--that college training is profitable but not necessary. Its primary function is to abbreviate the apprenticeship period and make it more valuable but to in nowise replace it.

When considering years spent in each of the departments, years of schooling correlates with them as shown in Table XVIII.

TABLE XVIII

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF YEARS SPENT IN EACH OF THE HOTEL DEPARTMENTS AND YEARS OF SCHOOLING[6]

Correlation		Area of Work
-.38	to number of years	front-office work
-.187	to number of years	food and beverage work
-.11	to number of years	accounting
-.325	to number of years	engineering
+.19	to number of years	sales work[7]

[6]The housekeeping and personnel departments were not mentioned by any of the interviewees as a part of their apprenticeship.

[7]The correlation of +.19 between years of education and number of years in the sales department is probably spuriously low, since only 20 of the sample of 60 hotelmen have

Education reduces the number of years spent in each of the departments except sales. The better educated hotelman tends to spend more time in the sales department than his less educated colleagues. This is one of several indications in this study that sales work is becoming the new, primary training route to top management, as opposed to the long apprenticeship period in the rooms division and food and beverage department.

4. Reading habits. The more education a hotel manager has, the more time he tends to spend in business and professional reading. The correlation between these two variables is +.38. In addition, the better educated manager tends to have a preference toward the prestige business journals such as Forbes, Fortune, and the Wall Street Journal; whereas those of the less formal education tend to rely more on the local newspaper and general business magazines such as Time, Newsweek, and U.S. News and World Report.

5. Job definition. Managers having a college education or above tend to define themselves as executives rather than operators, and in no case as greeters. Table XIX shows the extent of relationship between the definition of management and college education.

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spent any time in the sales department. The numerical contribution of these 20 is seriously offset by the remaining two-thirds who had no experience in this department at all.

TABLE XIX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGEMENT DEFINITION AND EDUCATION

Education	Greeter[8]	Operator	Executive	Total
Not graduates	7	14	12	33
College graduates	0	11	16	27
Total	7	25	28	60

$X^2 = 3.37$ $.10 > P > .05$

$r_o = +.37$[9]

The low correlation and lack of statistical significance in this regard may be attributed to two factors. A surprising portion of college graduates defined themselves as operators. Conversely, a number of "sponsored and chain" careerists who had less than collegiate training, defined themselves as executives.

6. Low relationship variables. Of special interest is the low statistical relationship between formal education and the variables shown in Table XX. There is little or no apparent relationship evident between education and the trial-stable ratio,[10] income,

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[8]To perform the chi-square test and obtain phi, it was necessary to combine the "greeter and operator" categories so as to observe the rule of minimum cell theoreticals. See J. P. Guilford, Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education (New York and London: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1942), p.173.

[9]The computation of a Pearson equivalent based on the phi coefficient assumes two continuous distributions and uses the formula $r_\phi = .637\phi$. See Guilford, Ibid., p. 247.

[10]The trial-stable ratio is quotient produced by dividing the number of years in trial periods of employment by the

continuing education activity, gross business activity, and leadership variables.

TABLE XX

YEARS OF FORMAL EDUCATION AS RELATED TO SELECTED LOW ORDER VARIABLES

Variable	Measure of Independence to Education
Trial and stable ratio	$r = +.0041$
Trial and stable ration under 20 years of work experience	$r = -.0013$
Income	$+.007$
Continuing education	X^2 value = $.98 > P > .95$
Business activity index	X^2 value = $P > .98$
Number of offices in professional hotel associations	$r = -.0014$
Number of offices in trade associations	$r = -.0094$
Number of civic and fraternal offices	$r = .0000$

The lack of relationship between education and continuing education is of vital interest. The well-trained individual appears to be no better prospect for participation in continuing education (short courses, seminars, and other management development activities) than the less well trained.

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years in stable periods of employment, and provides a useful numerical index of job stability. See Delbert C. Miller and William H. Form, "Measuring Patterns of Occupational Security," Sociometry, Vol. X (New York: Beacon House, Inc., 1947), pp. 362-375.

The better educated hotelmen fail to evidence more leadership roles in the various kinds of organizational activity related to their work. Collegiate training, it is commonly assumed in the hotel industry, is designed to produce the individuals capable of leadership in the industry and its organizations. On the basis of this evidence, the well educated are failing to provide leadership to any greater extent than their less educated colleagues.

7. Sponsorship. Education has been established in the related sociological literature as probably the most important single factor to upward mobility. It appears to be a necessary bridge to the achievement of socio-economic goals of a higher order. How education serves as a mobility vehicle, is frequently obscure. However, in this study, a closer relationship was found between education and the achievement of "sponsorship" than with any other probable causative variable. The data in Table XXI indicates a significant relationship between formal schooling and the achieving of sponsorship by a key individual.

It will be shown in succeeding chapters that the "sponsored" individuals achieve a smoother climb to the top, arrive more quickly, and locate themselves in better hotels doing more business than their colleagues who obtained their apprenticeship experiences in the "school of hard knocks" only. Hence, special importance

is attached to this finding at this juncture. A measure of formal training seems to open the doors to sponsorship.

TABLE XXI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN YEARS OF EDUCATION AND THE ACHIEVEMENT OF CAREER SPONSORSHIP

Training	Years of Education			
	12 and under	13-15	16+	Total
Experience only	13	6	8	27
Sponsored	6	8	19	33
Total	19	14	27	60

$X^2 = 6.66$ $.05 > P > .01$

$r_\phi = +.40$

B. Continuing Education

An attempt was made to analyze the use of continuing education by hotelmen. Because of the limited number of courses pursued, beyond the initial formal schooling, useful subject matter breakdowns for comparative analysis were not feasible.

It is possible to say, however, that approximately one-fifth of the hotelmen had participated at some time or other in hotel or food management short courses, varying from one week to one semester in length. An overlapping one-sixth of the sample reported continuing education activities in executive development programs, general business programs, real estate programs, and personal development.

In all, 52 per cent of the hotelmen sampled had utilized continuing education programs at some time. The remainder had not.

1. Ownership. The use of continuing education programs by managers appears to be related to hotel ownership. Ownership was identified in two ways:

   a. According to the individual manager's financial interest in the hotel.

   b. According to the kind of corporate ownership.

Table XXII indicates the relationship between use of continuing education and the investment of the hotel manager.

TABLE XXII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGER'S FINANCIAL INTEREST IN THE HOTEL AND HIS USE OF CONTINUING EDUCATION

Continuing Education	Financial Interest			
	Sole and Lessee	Minority Stock	None	Total
None	7*	4	18	29
Some	1*	6	24	31
Total	8	10	42	60

Gamma = +.41

*A chi-square test on this table was not possible because of the rule of minimum (five) cell theoreticals.

Continuing education is apparently utilized to a greater degree by those having little or no financial investment in the hotel. Those who are sole owners

and lessees tend not to participate in continuing education activities.

Table XXIII reflects the relationship between the kind of hotel ownership and continuing education. The kinds of hotel ownership are identified as follows:

a. Independent hotels are those owned by an individual, a partnership, or a single hotel company.

b. Dependent hotels are those which are part of the larger business enterprise, such as a real estate development corporation, an investment company, an industrial empire, or any other corporate structure that is not a hotel system or chain.

c. A system is identified as a hotel corporation operating three or more hotel properties.

TABLE XXIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN KIND OF HOTEL OWNERSHIP AND THE MANAGER'S USE OF CONTINUING EDUCATION

Continuing Education	Independent	Dependent	System	Total
No continuing education	11	8	10	29
Some continuing education	6	9	16	31
Total	17	17	26	60

$X^2 = 3.03$ $.20 > P > .10$

Gamma = +.60

Data in Table XXIII reveal a tendency for managers affiliated with hotel systems to utilize continuing education to a greater degree than those associated with the smaller, independent companies.

Continuing education is not significantly related to the size of hotel managed. A test of independence between these two variables produced the X^2 value of .097, $.98 > P > .95$.

2. Initial goals. The pattern of occupational aspirations after entering the hotel field was discussed in Chapter IV and related to occupational origin. When those having proprietary interests at the time of entering the hotel field were removed from the total distribution, the result was Table XXIV. Those hotelmen who early established their goals as a top hotel management post were more likely to engage in continuing educational activities. Those who had a less well-defined occupational goal (in other than the proprietary interests) tended to engage in less continuing education activities. It has been shown earlier in this section that proprietors tend not to utilize continuing education activities.

TABLE XXIV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONTINUING EDUCATION AND GOALS IN HOTEL MANAGEMENT[11]

Continuing Education	Top Management	As far as Possible	Total
None	7	10	17
Some	16	5	21
Total	23	15	38

$X^2 = 6.15$ $.05 > P > .01$

$r_\phi = +.49$

[11]The total n for this study was 60. However, for this table, those hotelmen having proprietary interests were removed.

3. Occupational definition. The manner in which a hotel manager defines his role is significantly related to the extent of his continuing education activity. Table XXV indicates that those who define themselves as executives have participated in continuing education activities to a greater degree than those who have a non-executive orientation.

TABLE XXV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARTICIPATION IN CONTINUING EDUCATION ACTIVITIES AND MANAGEMENT DEFINITION

Continuing Education	Non-executive	Executive	Total
None	21	8	29
Some	11	20	31
Total	32	28	60

$X^2 = 8.186$ $P < .01$
$r_\phi = +.57$

Occupational definition is one of the critical career variables uncovered in this study. It will be shown to have a stronger relationship to both stability and business success than any other factor. Continuing education appears to be more closely related to the "executive" definition ($r_\phi = +.57$) than non-proprietary origin ($r_\phi = +.30$) or years of schooling ($r_\phi = +.37$).

4. Hotel business activity and quality. The two measures used here have discretely differentiating criteria but are statistically related. The business activity index is a three-way categorization of each hotel as above average, average, or below average, according to the total business volume of the hotel. Business volume was determined by room occupancy and the food-beverage to rooms percentage ratio. This ratio was compared to the percentages shown by the statistical reports of the major accounting firms for that city or area so as to compare each hotel and its business ratio with competitive hotels.[12] Each hotel was thereby evaluated and ranked ordinally as to its business activity index.

Table XXVI indicates the relationship between the managers who pursued a continuing education tend to be associated with above-average hotels; those who have not pursued continuing education tend to be associated with average and below hotels.

The business activity index correlates +.53 with the interviewer's ranking of the physical appearance and quality of the hotel itself. However, when continuing education was compared to quality rank, a

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[12] Trends in the Hotel Business, 23rd Annual Review, prepared by Harris, Kerr, Forster & Company, Chicago, 1958, p. 3.

Hotel Operations in 1958, 27th Annual Study by Horwath and Horwath, Hotel Accountants and Consultants (New York: 41 E. 42nd Street, 1959), p. 6.

reasonable level of association was not established, $X^2 = .52$, $.95 < P < .90$.

TABLE XXVI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARTICIPATION IN CONTINUING EDUCATION ACTIVITIES AND ASSOCIATION WITH ABOVE-AVERAGE, AVERAGE, AND BELOW-AVERAGE HOTELS

Continuing Education	Above Average	Average or Below	Total
No continuing education	5	24	29
Some continuing education	11	20	31
Total	16	44	60

$X^2 = 2.48$ $\quad .20 > P > .10$

$r_\phi = +.31$

Continuing education is apparently not related to the size of hotel managed, since independence tests between these two variables produced $X^2 = .097$, $.98 < P < .95$.

5. Leadership activity. It was shown earlier in the chapter that a significant lack of association prevails between education and the various measures of leadership (offices in the various membership and trade associations). Those who had engaged in continuing education, however, tend to exhibit more participation in the primary association available to hotelmen, the American Hotel Association. Table XXVII shows the extent of relationship between the number of association offices held and whether or not the manager had participated in continuing education activities over the years.

TABLE XXVII

CONTINUING EDUCATION PARTICIPATION AS COMPARED WITH THE NUMBER OF AMERICAN HOTEL ASSOCIATION OFFICES HELD BY MANAGERS

Continuing Education	Number of AHA Offices Held*		
	None	One or More	Total
None	20	9	29
Some	14	17	31
Total	34	26	60

$X^2 = 3.46$ .10 P .05

$r_o = +.38$

*The table has been collapsed in this manner in order to observe the rule of minimum cell theoreticals for the chi-square test of significance.

6. Career plans. When hotel managers were asked to define their future goals and to describe the ways in which they expected to achieve those goals, the responses shown in Table XXVIII, Part A, were obtained. This table shows the specific kinds of personal advancement plans hotel managers have made in order to reach their career objectives. Table XXVIII, Part B, was derived when managers' plans were dichotomized according to whether or not they had participated in continuing education activities at some time during their careers. The data provides reasonable evidence that managers who have some continuing education background tend to have done more thinking and definite planning about their future.

TABLE XXVIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONTINUING EDUCATION AND CAREER PLANS

Part A--Relationship Between Continuing Education and Advancement Plans		
Kinds of Advancement Plans	N	Per cent
No plans--		
None other than retain present position	15	25.0
No plans at all	7	11.7
Sell out	3	5.0
Total	25	41.7
Definite advancement plans--		
Increased stock ownership	11	18.3
Lease other or larger properties	5	8.3
Work harder	7	11.7
Advance in the hotel system	12	20.0
Total	35	58.3

Part B--Relationship Between Continuing Education and Current Career Plans			
Continuing Education	No Plans	Definite Plans	Total
None	16	13	29
Some	9	22	31
Total	25	35	60

$X^2 = 4.2$ $\quad .05 > P > .01$

$r_\phi = +.42$

7. Evaluated expectations. Following each interview, the investigator evaluated each subject on a three point scale. The subject's feelings about the hotel business and his level of satisfaction regarding his career in it, were rated as: pessimism, satisfaction, or optimism.

Table XXIX shows this scale, as compared with the continuing education history of the hotel manager and reveals a highly significant relationship between these two variables. Managers who are satisfied and optimistic about the hotel business, tend also to be those who have engaged in some continuing education activity to fortify their ability in meeting the demands of competition and of operating problems.

TABLE XXIX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONTINUING EDUCATION AND EVALUATED EXPECTATIONS

Continuing Education	Pessimism	Satisfaction	Optimism	Total
None	12	3	14	29
Some	4	8	19	31
Total	16	11	33	60

$X^2 = 13.2$[13] $P = < .01$

$r_\phi = +.51$

[13] In order to conform to the rule of minimum cell theoreticals, optimism and satisfaction categories were combined in the computation of chi squares (see Guilford, op. cit.), p.247.

8. Reading habits. In order to study and obtain a measure of the daily continuing education effort of hotel managers, their reading habits were noted. Their reading for business information is primarily of two types--the hotel and restaurant trade journals and the general business and news magazines.

Sixty per cent of the managers reported their reading in the industry trade journals to be among the lighter magazines which emphasize personal and hotel news. Another 30 per cent favored the trade journals carrying a more substantial reading content, devoted to articles and analyses of operations and management problems. The remaining 10 per cent reported no interest or gave the cursory response, "I skim them all." For general business news, nearly 36 per cent of the hotelmen regularly read one or more of the prestige magazines or papers, such as Harvard Review, Barrons, Forbes, Wall Street Journal, Wisdom, Fortune, MSU Business Topics, or the New York Times. Nearly two-thirds of the hotelmen relied to some extent on the general business and news magazines, such as Nation's Business, Time, Newsweek, and U.S. News and World Report. Less than 10 per cent relied on the local newspapers only.

The number of hours devoted to reading for business information by hotelmen is comparatively low. According to the Management Review, general business

executives appear to spend considerably more than the average (mean) of 5.9 hours per week which hotelmen reported as devoted to business information reading. The Management Review reports:

> On the average, executives spend just over four hours a day on business reading. Two and three-quarter hours go into "must" reading: reports, correspondence, and essential reading in magazines, newsletters and the like. Over an hour and a quarter a day goes into optional reading: books, magazines, and other material that the executive reads voluntarily to improve his general ability and competence.
>
> On the average, company presidents and other top officers spend more time reading than other top executives: about four and a quarter hours a day. Middle managers average half an hour less reading time.[14]

Apparently the type of business is the greatest determinant of the amount of reading done. The Harvard Business Review reported that executives in "finance, trade and service" read approximately 20 per cent fewer magazines than those in manufacturing, construction. . .[15]

Among hotelmen, the number of hours per week spent in general business and trade related reading matter correlates +.39 with the number of professional memberships in the hotel field. The amount of reading done is also associated with the volume of business done by

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[14]Lydia Strong, "How Much Is Too Much?", The Management Review (New York: American Management Association, January, 1957), p. 60.

[15]Edward C. Bursk, "New Dimensions in Top Executive Reading," Harvard Business Review, pp. 93-112.

the hotel as well as the quality ranking of the hotel, correlating +.26 with each of these measures independently.

Hotelmen are not a studiously oriented group. They appear to spend significantly less time in reading than do managers and executives of other industries. The nature of their business is such that public demands on their time, the day to day building and personnel problems, as well as the demands for a currently good profit picture, do not allow for a more thoughtful, pensive and reflective activity such as the reading.

9. Continuing education summary. Continuing education activity on the part of the hotel manager stand out as a continuous and significant career variable. Participation in additional educational endeavors following his formal training seems to be an indicator of an individual possessing superior motivation and attitudes. Continuing education activity seems to point out the individuals who have early defined their goals, who have adopted an executive definition of their role in management, who see themselves as providing leadership within the industry and who have defined their goals for the future in a positive and optimistic vein. The continuing education variable identifies the kind of individual who has a definite, persistent, and positive career orientation. Neither continuing education

activity nor these related attributes were found to be characteristic of proprietors.

Such activity seems to be an index to a more open and searching mind. It may not only be an indicator of drive and initiative, but also of judgment as to how to channel and utilize his drives so as to maximize his efforts toward specified goals.

The continuing education activity of most of these hotelmen is certainly too limited to be interpreted as a causative factor in the adoption of the attitudes, skills, and techniques which gave rise to their differential degree of success. It rather seems to be an index to the kind of person who is less rigid and sterotyped in his pursuit of goals. He is the kind of individual who is more flexible and adaptable in selecting means, who revises his techniques constantly to meet the needs of the current situation, and who defines his own role positively and realistically in terms of the goals he has established.

Continuing education takes on added importance since it is one of two probable causative or antecedent variables (the other will be shown to be sponsorship) to the executive "occupational definition," yielding a highly significant relationship. It also bore the highest correlation factor among those amenable to the Pearson value or its equivalent. The relationship of

the "occupational definition" to stability and career success is established in succeeding chapters.

The hotelmen in this sample do not evidence any great degree of continuing education interest as measured by specific courses or in the time spent in daily reading. Those who do evidence the greater interest, however, have developed differently in their chosen fields from their less interested colleagues.

CHAPTER VI

THE OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF HOTELMEN

In preceding chapters, the origins, education and careers of midwestern hotelmen were traced and interpreted in the light of a number of socio-economic and career variables. There is considerable body of psycho-sociological literature supporting the concept that the individual behaves and reacts less in accord with antecedent conditions such as social background, career opportunities, and specific training, but more in accord with his current definition and interpretation of his role.

This hypothesis is similar to those proposed by Coates and Pellegrin in their "Situational Theory,"[1] by William I. Thomas in his "Definition of the Situation,"[2] and by Robert K. Merton in his concept of "The Self-fulfilling Prophecy."[3] The student of psychology will recognize this hypothesis in accord with Roe's extension of the "self image" concept to

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[1]Charles H. Coates and Roland J. Pellegrin, "Executives and Supervisors: A Situational Theory of Differential Occupational Mobility," Social Forces, Vol. 35, No. 2, December, 1956, pp. 121-126.

[2]William I. Thomas, The Unadjusted Girl (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1923), p. 42.

[3]Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1949), pp. 179-195.

occupations, with Maslow's theory of drive and motivation,[4] and to Krech and Crutchfield's "perceptual field."[5]

It is not the purpose here to test this hypothesis, but rather, to use this conceptual framework in an attempt to understand the occupation of hotel management and to extend the limited body of information about it.

Accordingly, each hotel manager interviewed was asked in several different ways to define his duties and responsibilities as a hotel manager.

Their responses were analyzed according to the following criteria:

1. Personal relationship to the public (and guests)
2. Personal relationship to the employer
3. Scope of responsibility
4. Techniques for discharging responsibility

A. Occupational Definitions

The literature establishes a differential between supervisors and executives and between successful and unsuccessful executives.[6] It became evident early in this study that among hotel managers more than a dichotomy was present. A third category in characterization was needed to cover the variety and range of responses.

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[4]Anne Roe, The Psychology of Occupations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1956), p. VI.

[5]David Krech and Richard S. Crutchfield, Theory and Problems of Social Psychology (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948), p. 639.

[6]Coates and Pellegrin, op. cit., p. 125.

After an analysis of the interviews and data, the following management definitions and their criteria were determined:

1. Greeter

   a. Public relations. The greeter identifies strongly with the individual guest and his view of the hotel. The greeter also sees himself playing a personal role in serving the guests.

   b. Employer relations. The greeter sees himself as working for, not with, his employer. He feels that he is in a service role carrying out the dictates and decisions of the employer, but seldom participating actively in them.

   c. Breadth of responsibility. The greeter defines his responsibility primarily in terms of the guest and the projection of his own personality to the guest. Operating problems are handled personally as they come along, neither planned nor administered.

   d. Techniques of discharging responsibility. The greeter sees himself as the vital key and link to getting all work done well.

2. Operator

   a. Public relations. The operator believes that individual guest relations are important, but that most contacts can be handled by the front office staff. Rather than emphasizing public relations

and external contacts, the operator identifies closely with the hotel itself. He is the captain and is proud of running a taut ship.

b. Employer relations. The operator feels his employers have selected him because of his personal, superior know-how in hotel "operations" and that he should be unhampered in internal operations and methods. He seldom participates vitally in the financial decisions, nor does he think in larger, economic terms.

c. Breadth of responsibility. The operator feels his responsibilities are primarily within the hotel and limited to short term problems. Financing, rehabilitation, and public relations are verbalized problems only; seldom actual concerns of the operator.

d. Techniques for discharging responsibility. The operator makes all operating and day to day decisions himself. Although he may have department heads, they will do little or no hiring and firing, purchasing, nor does he allow them to participate actively in making decisions. Department head's meetings as such are seldom necessary. Employee development is left to personal initiative of those who have the extra ambition.

3. The executive manager

a. Public relations. The executive manager sees guest relations in a much larger and broader context and does not identify with this responsibility in terms of the individual alone. He sees himself playing a major part in community activities and convention sales, but point of purchase sales are the responsibility of the front office staff.

b. Employer relations. The executive believes that it is his prerogative to propose changes and to participate fully in the major decisions of the hotel ownership. Where he is not currently allowed to participate, he expresses strong frustration and displeasure.

c. Breadth of responsibility. According to the executive, the work of the hotel is divided into a number of broad areas such as human relations, public relations, rehabilitation planning and business management. He sees himself working out programs and projects in these areas with department heads and providing leadership and coordination only.

d. Techniques for discharging responsibility. The executive views himself as working with and preparing others to work. He tends not to see himself as possessing superior know-how, but rather, as able to control, coordinate and plan with those

who do have the departmental knowledge and technical information required.

B. Generalized Attitudes of Executives and Non-executives

The non-executives (operators and greeters) whether they are proprietors to some degree or not, attempt to retain a feeling of proprietorship in their positions. They seek to retain some of the prerogatives of the proprietor in certain areas of activity and disregard his responsibilities in others. The non-executive seeks to be the sole determiner of the manner in which day to day operations are conducted; for example, he feels that any procedures, routines, and policies set forth by "home office" are an encroachment on his ability as a hotelman.

Although he may have little or no voice in making major decisions for his hotel, he strives to maintain a semblance of independence by obtaining positions which leave all matters of local personnel management and day to day operations entirely to his discretion. He is not concerned by the fact that he has little or no voice in the future of his hotel in regard to financing, capital re-investment, or market planning and analysis.

He is content to say, "I am the hotel manager and I run this property as I see fit. If they (the system or owners) don't like the way I run this hotel, they can always find someone else to try to do it better."

The "greeter-operator" tends to resent the "executive type" manager as being something less than a real hotelman. He believes the executive "runs the hotel from a desk." He thinks of the executive as having lost the touch of the common people who work for him and the guest who visits his hotel. In fact, he feels that it is the executive that is hurting his own business and giving him a poor occupancy as compared with the executive's somewhat better "house count." The non-executive thinks it is because the executive treats the guests so poorly that the public is not using hotels more. Out of this frustration of prorietary ideas, the non-executive develops rationalizations to defend his increasingly insecure and less profitable hotel position.

The "executive" does not fight false windmills. In general, he expresses no concern or animosity toward the non-executive and his philosophy, but rather, uses the "proprietary" philosophy of the operator to rationalize his own education and training methods with his employees who have direct contact with the public. To these employees he instills the "grand host" and "home-away-from-home" service attitudes and habits of guest treatment. To them he stresses the importance of the individual guest, his comfort and satisfaction, and minimizes business management goals.

The executive tends to define his competitive position within the hotel industry and the total economy much more realistically than the non-executive. He is interested in attracting large markets to the community area, tends to be

much more interested in cooperative endeavors to attract business to the area, feeling that he will profit from cooperation with, rather than opposition to, other service industries in the community.

The essential difference, then, between the executive and non-executive is inherent in the title of the occupational definition. The operator wishes to be responsible for and to participate in the internal operations of the hotel only; the greeter, having a major emphasis on the greeting of guests. The executive wishes to participate fully in the entire business management function, administering his responsibilities by delegating authority for specific responsibilities in an executive fashion.

C. Significant Variables Related to Occupational Definition

1. Origin and education. It will be recalled that the preceding chapters stated that both occupational origin and formal education apparently had some association with the development of the executive definition of occupation, but neither at a significant level. Continuing education was found to bear a strong correlation (r_ϕ = +.57) to occupational definition. Continuing education was found to be the developmental factor which related most strongly with the executive occupational definition.

2. Hotel size. Table XXX shows the relationship between occupational definition and hotel size. The margin shows

the distribution of greeters, operators, executives with the total sample fairly evenly distributed between the executive and non-executive dichotomy (28 versus 32).

TABLE XXX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE MANAGER'S OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITION AND HOTEL SIZE

Occupational Definition	Size of Hotel			
	Small	Medium	Large	Total
Greeter	5	2	0	7
Operator	11	7	7	25
Executive	4	11	13	28
Total	20	20	20	60

$X^{2'} = 8.98^*$ $.05 > P > .01$

*To compute chi-square, the operator-greeter category was combined so as to conform to the rule of minimum cell theoreticals.

There is a strong, significant relationship between size of hotel and management definition. To achieve the managership of a larger hotel, a manager probably will not have a greeter definition, may have an operator definition, but will probably have an executive definition in order to accommodate to the demands and complexities of the position. It is equally important to note that size does not prescribe the definition of position, in that several small (and very successful) hotel managers define themselves as executives.

3. Evaluated expectations. The executive views the industry and his future in it with a much greater degree of confidence and hopefulness than does the non-executive. Table XXXI illustrates a highly significant relationship between occupational definition and evaluated expectation. As has been indicated by the evidence of the preceding paragraphs, the executive believes in his business and his role within it, is taking positive steps to develop it, and is confident of its future.

TABLE XXXI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITION AND EVALUATED EXPECTATION

Classification	Pessimism	Satisfaction	Optimism	Total
Non-executives	15	7	10	32
Executives	1	4	23	28
Total	16	11	33	60

$X^2 = 18.08$ $P < .01$

4. Hotel quality and other success criteria. The hotels in this study were ranked from 1 (best) to 5 (poorest) according to the general physical state and attractiveness of the hotel property. Table XXXII shows data having a highly significant relationship between management definition and hotel quality. Management definition and continuing education are the only two continuous

career variables which relate directly to hotel quality. This should be contrasted with the facts that neither manager's years of education (r = -.22) nor his years required to achieve top management (r = +.07) evidence reasonable correlations to hotel quality ranking.

The relationship between management definition and other criteria of success, such as stability and business activity, are discussed in Chapters VII and VIII. Suffice it to say here that management definition is highly related to the career family of stability as reflected by the total career pattern (Chapter VII) and to the business activity ratio of the hotel he is now managing (Chapter VIII).

TABLE XXXII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGER'S OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITION AND THE HOTEL'S QUALITY RANKING (1 = BEST, 5 = POOREST)

Occupational Definition	Hotel's Quality Ranking			
	1	2	3-5	Total
Greeter-operator	11	6	15	32
Executive	18	7	3	28
Total	29	13	18	60

$X^2 = 9.57$ $P < .01$

5. Hotel ownership. Table XXXIII shows the relationship of managers according to occupational definition and type of hotel ownership. Chain hotels tend to

hire or develop "executive" managers, whereas non-chain hotels tend to employ non-executive managers.

TABLE XXXIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGER'S OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITION AND THE TYPE OF HOTEL OWNERSHIP

Occupational Definition	Dependent and Independent*	Chain	Total
Operators-greeters	22	10	32
Executives	12	16	28
Total	34	26	60

$X^2 = 4.09$ $.05 > P > .02$

$r_\rho = +.41$

*Independent and dependent hotels were combined so as to conform to the rule of minimum cell theoreticals.

To the casual observer, the relationship between system ownership and executive definition may be surprisingly low. However, not all hotels in systems are large properties, neither are they all highly rationalized and organized companies. Many hotel systems exercise little more control over the operation of their properties than to hire a manager and to require weekly financial and accounting reports. Hotel systems vary widely as to the extent of their rationalization, bureaucratization, and centralization of authority. Hence, systems managers vary markedly in their definitions of position.

6. "Contacts" and "Pull." When describing the essential attributes and characteristics of a good manager, "executives" tend to emphasize the importance of "contacts" and "pull." This factor is, for all intents and purposes, equivalent to the variable called "sponsorship" in this study.

Table XXXIV shows the relationship between the occupational definition dichotomy and the mention of the importance of "contacts" and "pull" during the interview. Executives tended to refer to the importance of the "right connections" more frequently and to a significant degree than did the non-executive.

TABLE XXXIV

HOTEL MANAGER'S OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITION AND THE MENTION OF "CONTACTS" AND "PULL" IN ACHIEVING SUCCESS

Occupational Definition	Sponsorship		
	Not Mentioned	Mentioned	Total
Non-executives	23	9	32
Executives	12	16	28
Total	35	25	60

$X^2 = 5.04$ $.05 > P > .02$

$r_\phi = +.46$

It will be shown later in this chapter that "executive" definition and the fact of having had a personal career sponsor are strongly related. However, they are

far from coterminous. Those managers who had sponsored careers, but did not define themselves as "executive managers," tended to ignore the importance of sponsorship in relating their careers, while the executive would mention it frequently. This reflects a specific in the cluster of attitudes regarding the importance of people and "significant others" in their day to day operations as well as in their total career pattern.

7. Number of periodicals read. From the data gathered in this study, executives and non-executives are significantly different in their breadth of reading. The non-executives reported a mean of 2.25 magazines and read regularly, whereas the executives reported 4.43 magazines (t-ratio = 2.09, $.05 > P > .01$). Executives in this study did not spend significantly more time in reading than non-executives, but their breadth and number of magazines read was considerably greater.

8. Leadership. "Executives" are much more active in leadership roles than "non-executives" as measured by both the number of civic and fraternal organization offices held and the number of American Hotel Association offices held.

The mean number of civic and fraternal offices held by "executives" is 2.6, whereas the non-executive mean is .9 (t-ratio = 3.69, $P < .01$). This fact confirms the basic definition of the "executive" in that

he views a part of his role to be a public relations symbol to the community in and through its larger and prestigeful organizations.

The "executive" tends to believe in and to be concerned with overall industry problems and the coordinated endeavors undertaken toward their solution. The mean number of offices held by the "executives" in the American Hotel Association, or its state affiliate, is 1.1, whereas the "operator and greeter" combined held a mean of .22 offices (t-ratio = 8.5, $P < .01$).

9. Sponsorship. Table XXXV shows the significant relationship between sponsorship and the "executive" occupational definition. Clearly there is a strong association, though far short of a complete overlap, between these two major career variables.

TABLE XXXV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGEMENT DEFINITION AND SPONSORSHIP

Occupational Definition	Experience Only	Sponsored	Total
Operators and greeters	19	13	32
Executives	8	20	28
Total	27	33	60

$X^2 = 5.7$ $.05 > P > .01$

$r_\phi = +.49$

Sponsorship was associated earlier with formal education; the "executive" occupational definition with

continuing education. These career variables will be seen in succeeding chapters to be related to some common and some dissimilar success criteria.

Both of these variables appear to be factors resulting from differentials in personality and learning. It is evident that these variables are not wholly comprised of identical elements for they associate with different possible antecedents and resultants. That sponsorship and "executive" definition are significantly related, however, is clearly indicated by the chi-square test presented in Table XXXV.

D. Summary

A number of studies, primarily those of Coates and Pellegrin[7] have uncovered differential definitions of the work position among the successful and unsuccessful executives. This study analyzes the definition of position given by hotel managers. These definitions fell into classifications which were descriptively labeled as "greeter," "operator," and "executive." The criteria for these classifications were defined in detail as well as the associated generalized attitudes noted by the investigator during the interviews.

In earlier chapters both non-proprietary origin and higher levels of education were found to be somewhat related to the development of the "executive" definition of education,

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[7] Ibid.

but not at a significant level. Continuing education was found, however, to have a strong association to the executive definition significant level of confidence.

Hotelmen who view their roles as "executives" tend to find themselves in the larger hotels and in hotels having a higher quality ranking than non-executives to a statistically significant degree. Executives tend also to be found in chain or system operated hotels though they may be found in dependent and independent hotels where the opportunity to participate vitally in the decision-making process and the economic future of the hotel is afforded them.

An added evidence that the "executive" relates himself to other individuals differently than the non-executive is found in the fact that executives exhibit significantly greater leadership in civic affairs, fraternal organizations, and in the American Hotel Association. "Executives" believe that a good manager is one who realizes the importance of contacts throughout the industry, was sponsored in his own career, possesses wide acquaintance, and is able to exert effective personal influences.

The "executive" hotel manager engages in a much wider range of reading and reports a significantly greater number of magazines read or skimmed than does the non-executive.

Not only does the "executive" definition of position lead to positions in the bigger and better hotels as noted in this chapter, but it will be established in succeeding chapters that the occupational definition as an executive

is strongly related to positions in hotels doing a high volume of business and to career patterns having a higher degree of security.

In brief, the hotel "executive" is probably not of a proprietary origin, has engaged in continuing education activity, has enjoyed a relatively secure career, is a leader in the hotel fraternity and the community, and has found a position in a finer and larger hotel. He views his industry positively and looks forward to its continuing business and managerial challenge.

CHAPTER VII

CAREER PATTERNS--SECURITY

Studies have been reviewed and cited in earlier chapters showing the relationship of certain career variables to the achievement of a position in the managerial complex. In this study a similar line of investigation has been followed, with one exception. Degrees of success within the hotel management occupation have been identified according to the hotel quality ranking, personal income, and size of hotel. In each case, these criteria were noted as they related to significant career variables.

Another differential criterion of success identified in this study is occupational security. This chapter seeks to focus attention on occupational security and relate significant career variables and managerial attributes to it. The next chapter will focus on two additional success differentials, rate of mobility and business activity.

Occupational security may be measured in a number of ways. The criteria used in this chapter will include the number of years in present position, number of employers, the trial-stable ratio, and career families of occupational stability.

A. Number of Years in Present Position

The tenure of managers in their present position seems to be primarily a function of the kind of hotel ownership and the extent of individual proprietorship. Table XXXVI shows the median number of years the hotel manager has been in his present position based on proprietary interest and kind of hotel ownership.

The eight proprietors who are sole owners and operators of their property showed varying long term tenure. However, they were too few to appraise independently so were combined with those managers having a minority stock interest in their hotel. This group showed a median of eight years in present position, whereas managers having no proprietary interest (42 managers) showed a median of 4 years in present position.[1]

Job security, as measured by number of years in present position, is primarily a function of the kind of ownership and extent of proprietary interest in the hotel property. The more highly rationalized the total hotel organization, the more likely it is to have more rapid personnel turnover. The per cent of persons in the present position for one year or less, as shown in Table XXXVI, is an added index to this generalization.

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[1]Median was used rather than mean in this context since the range in number of years varied from 1 to 50 years, resulting in a skewed distribution with a standard deviation greater than the mean from zero.

TABLE XXXVI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NUMBER OF YEARS IN PRESENT POSITION AND TYPES OF OWNERSHIP

Type of Ownership	Median Years in Present Position	Per cent in Position One Year or Less	Number of Cases
Proprietorship Criteria			
Sole owners, lessees, and minority stock-holders	8	17	18
Non-proprietors	4	27	42
Median for all hotels	6	19	60
Type of Corporate Ownership			
Independent hotel company	8	6	17
Dependent hotel company	5	24	17
Hotel system	3	39	26
For all hotels	6	25	60

It will be shown later in this chapter that within each type of corporate ownership there are deviations which are primarily accounted for by individual factors.

B. Number of Different Employers

In the hotel field, the number of different employers for whom a manager has worked is a meaningful index of relative job stability since it is not affected by the number of positions or territorial mobility while employed by the same hotel company. A comparison of Figures 1 and 2 reveals that

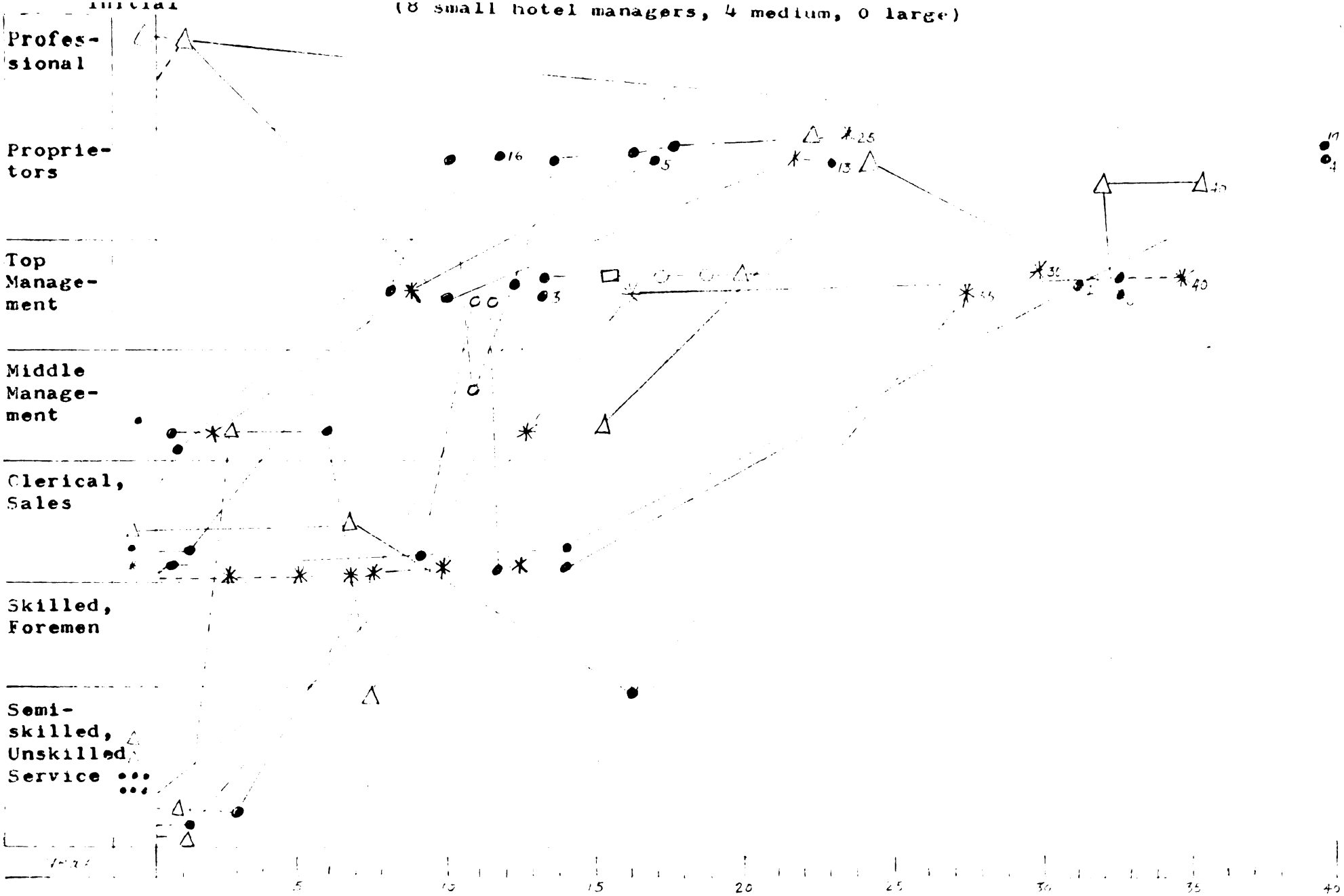

FIGURE I

CAREER PATTERNS OF 12 MANAGERS SPENDING MAJORITY OF CAREERS IN PRIVATE AND INDEPENDENTLY OWNED PROPERTIES

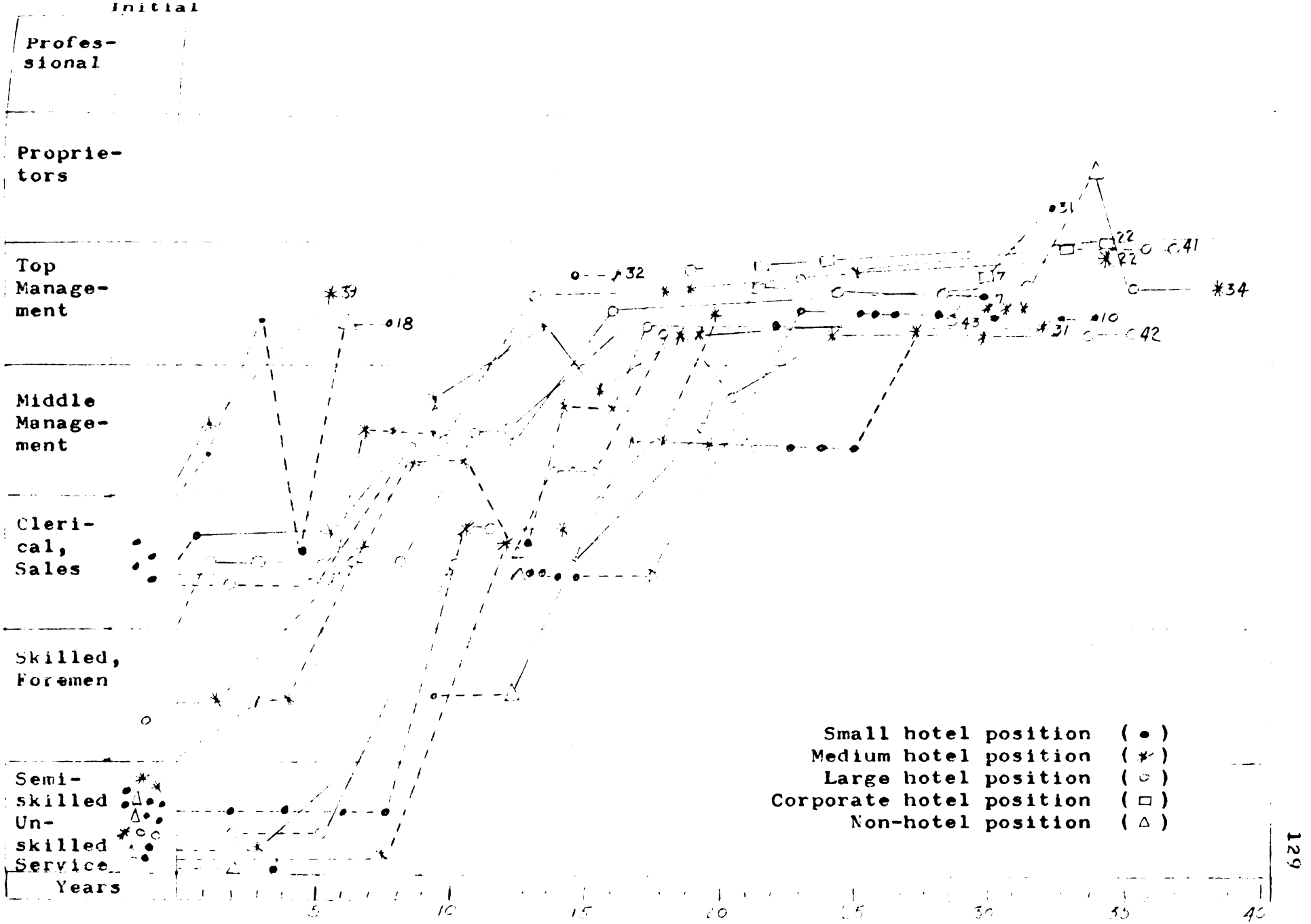

FIGURE II

CAREER PATTERNS OF 12 MANAGERS SPENDING THE MAJORITY OF THEIR CAREERS IN CHAIN HOTELS

among managers within hotel systems (42 per cent of this total sample of managers), the number of moves an employee makes or different positions filled, is much greater than in independent hotels. They are, in general, not matters of individual determination. It is usually a corporate level decision as to where an employee or manager is needed to meet company problems, such as a new property development, a temporary staff shortage, and periodic "booms and busts" in business within geographic areas. Therefore, by definition "the number of job moves" while in the appointment of the same company is probably less indicative than "number of employers" as a measure of security.

Table XXXVII indicates the relationship between the number of employers and the kind of hotel ownership for the hotel now managed. Proprietors (sole-owners, lessees, and minority stock-holders) have had a median of two employers besides themselves. Non-proprietors have had a median of seven employers.

When these same managers are analyzed from the point of view of the type of corporation owning their property, independent hotel company managers are the least secure. The difference in number of employers in each of these categories is not great; however, the pattern is clear. The simpler the organization or ownership, the greater the manager's security as measured by number of different employers. The larger the organizational unit, the more rapidly the manager is likely to move from employer to employer, a fact which is

largely inherent in the diversity of available positions in the more complex enterprises.

TABLE XXXVII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF EMPLOYERS IN THE HOTEL MANAGER'S WORK HISTORY AND THE TYPE OF HOTEL OWNERSHIP

Type of Ownership	Median Number of Employers	Number in Category
Proprietorship Criteria		
Sole owners,* lessees, and minority stockholders	3	18
Non-proprietors	7	42
Total	5	60
Type of Corporate Ownership		
Independent hotel company	4	17
Dependent hotel company	5	17
Hotel system	6	26
Total	5	60

*Self is considered as one employer.

The other variables discussed in this study did not reveal a statistically significant relationship to this criteria of security.

C. Trial-Stable Ratio

Miller and Form characterize careers as having four stages:[2]

[2]Delbert C. Miller and William H. Form, "Measuring Patterns of Occupational Security," Sociometry, Vol. X (New York: Beacon House, Inc., 1947), pp. 362-375.

A. Preparatory

B. Initial

C. Trial

D. Stable

The trial and stable periods comprise the major portion of work life of the individual. Briefly stated, the trial position is one of less than three years in length and one in which the individual has little feeling of permanency, but rather, views the position as temporary and a mobility step. The stable position is one lasting three years or more and is viewed by the individual as the kind of lifetime work he is seeking.[3]

The trial-stable ratio then is a decimal fraction or quotient produced by the number of years in all trial positions divided by the number of years in all stable positions. Large numbers indicate less stable careers. Small numbers indicate the more stable careers as measured by this criterion.

Since all managers had completed their first series of trial work experiences within the first twenty years, a trial stable ratio for the first twenty years' work was computed to obtain a more critical and sensitive ratio than the total life span.

Table XXXVIII presents the variables which are associated with the trial stable ratio in the first twenty years

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[3]See Appendix F for a full description of these.

of work experience. Number of years in trial positions, by definition, correlates highly (+.75) with the trial-stable ratio. However, this correlation also indicates that only 56 per cent of the variance (variance = r^2, r^2 = .56) in the trial-stable ratio is "explained" by the number of years in trial positions. This factor is an index to the extreme storminess of the first ten to fifteen years of hotel manager's lives, especially those managers having little or no proprietary investment in their hotel. With or without formal education, it is frequently a period of scrapping for a position at the "jump station" as a bell-boy, learning to curry the dining room captain's favor in competition with the other bus boys or waiters, and having learned to adapt one's self to the hard scrabble of the depression era.

The second variable, number of different employers, correlates +.53, indicating that this criteria is an index to security and for the reasons cited above under this heading may be a better index of security than the trial-stable ratio itself.

The relationship between professional association offices and the trial-stable ratio gives a correlation of +.49. It is difficult to rationalize well the direction of this association. It is not improbable, however, that those hotelmen having greater visability through professional association activity also have greater mobility, as indicated by this correlation.

TABLE XXXVIII

VARIABLES HAVING A SIGNIFICANT (FROM ZERO) CORRELATION WITH THE "TRIAL-STABLE PERIOD UNDER TWENTY YEARS"

Variable	Correlation to the Trial-Stable Ratio
1. Number of years in trial positions	+.75
2. Number of different employers	+.53
3. Number of professional association offices	+.49
4. Number of years in non-hotel management	+.36
5. Number of years in middle management	+.36
6. Number of civic and fraternal organization offices	+.33
7. Number of years to top management	+.28

Ho ($\hat{r}$ = o), when r> .32, then P< .01 and when r > .25, then P< .05 (see Walker, op. cit., p. 248).

Hotel management is relatively a closed-end field. Like the crafts and the professions, it is a field in which the practitioner must have a background of experience (apprenticeship or internship) in order to succeed. No hotel manager interviewed came directly into the hotel management field from a management position in another kind of business enterprise or industry, other than those associated with housing and feeding (such as, country club management and restaurant management).

That years of experience in other kinds of management tends to increase the insecurity of managers careers is indicated by the correlation of +.36 between the number of years of non-hotel management and the trial-stable ratio.

The positive association of +.33 between the number of civic and fraternal offices held and the trial-stable ratio may be another thread of evidence that the more mobile, large hotel and "organization-minded" managers tend to have a greater awareness of the importance of the "right" local contacts.

Apparently the more mobile tend to require more years to reach top management than those with the extra persistence to "stick it out" in a few locations. This is indicated by the correlation of +.28 between the trial-stable ratio and the number of years to top management.

D. Hotel Ownership

As measured by number of employers, managers in independent hotel companies displayed the least mobility, dependent hotels somewhat more mobility, and hotel systems the most mobility (see Table XXXVII). This mobility was not reflected in the trial-stable ratio nor the career families.

There is little consistency and great variability within each kind of ownership with regard to personnel philosophy. Some hotel systems and companies believe that a manager should move every eighteen to thirty-six months and that he makes his major contribution to the hotel profit picture within that period. Other systems and companies expect that managers will have long tenure and will become visible representatives of the company within the community.

It may well be assumed that since proprietary and independent hotels tend to be small hotels and that since the

large hotels tend to be system operated, that there would be a relationship to stability by hotel size. However, this reasoning is incomplete. Although the data in Table XXXIX reveals a significant relationship between hotel size and type of ownership, it should be noted that not all chain hotels are large hotels. They fall into every hotel size category. Conversely, not all small hotels are independent hotels. They too are owned by the various ownership arrangements and classifications.

Stability then, by inference, appears to be more a matter of a meeting of philosophies between the "executive" and his ownership rather than related to the specific style of ownership, sponsorship, or previous education of the manager.

E. Career Families

An exceptionally meaningful index of occupational security is achieved through a graphic representation of each career and an analysis of the complete career with categorization into career families as described by Miller and Form.[4]

Although related career families are strongly associated with the trial-stable ratio, gamma = +.76, each career family accounts for a number of factors other than tenure. Each career is reproduced so as to show job changes, job tenure,

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[4]See Appendix F and Miller and Form, op. cit., p. 370.

horizontal and vertical mobility, and size of business enterprise.

TABLE XXXIX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TYPE OF HOTEL OWNERSHIP AND SIZE OF HOTEL

Hotel Size	Hotel Ownership			
	Independent	Dependent	System	Total
Small	10	6	4	20
Medium	6	5	9	20
Large	1	6	13	20
Total	17	17	26	60

$X^2 = 19.26$ $P < .01$

Gamma = +.56

Each career was drawn for individual analysis, as shown in Chapter VIII, Figure 3. As a part of this study, each career was analyzed independently by the writer and one of the authors of this method of analysis. There was 63.3 per cent absolute agreement between the two raters and 86.6 per cent relative agreement in independent ratings. The rank order correlation between the two ratings was +.59, indicating a relative lack of directionality on those ratings in which the raters did not agree. Differences in ratings were then reconciled and final determination made.

Table XL shows the distribution of hotel managers according to career families of occupational security. These families may be viewed as laying along a continuum of

TABLE XL

PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF CAREER FAMILIES OF HOTEL MANAGERS WITH OTHER OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS

Career Family	Hotel[5] Operator Managers	Profes-sional	General Proprietary Managers	Clerical and Kindred	Skilled and Foremen	Operative	Unskilled
Stable	16.7	48.0	19.6	11.4	17.5	13.1	3.4
Conventional	38.3	40.0	58.7	47.7	50.0	32.8	20.7
Unstable	13.3	8.0	4.3	4.5	5.0	19.7	17.2
Sustained Trial	15.0	4.0	8.7	13.6	10.0	14.8	37.9
Disestablished	13.3	-	4.3	-	2.5	3.3	10.3
Multiple Trial	3.3	-	4.3	22.7	15.0	16.4	10.3
Total	99.9	100.0	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.0	99.8
Sum of Stable and Conventional (per cent)	55.0	88.0	78.3	59.1	67.5	45.9	24.1
Number in Occupational Classification	60	45	101	73	99	240	90

[5]"Hotel Operators and Managers" column contains data from the present study. The remainder is that of Miller and Form. (See Delbert C. Miller and William H. Form, "Measuring Patterns of Occupational Security," Sociometry, Vol. X, New York: Beacon House, Inc., 1947, p. 371.)

increasing insecurity with the stable category being the most secure. A complete description of each of these categories may be examined in Appendix F. On comparing the security patterns of hotel managers with those of general owners, managers and officials, as well as against other occupational classifications in Table XXXIX, hotel managers' career patterns of stability more nearly approximate those of the operatives and the semi-skilled than those of any other category.

The proportion of hotel managers having career patterns in the stable categories (stable and conventional) is lower than those of the general occupational classification of managers, as reported by Miller and Form. In our sample of hotel managers, 55 per cent of careers are associated with the stable and conventional patterns. The data of Miller and Form reported in Table XL shows 78.3 per cent of their larger sample of managers and officials associated with these relatively stable career patterns.

F. Management Definition

The criteria for categorizing managers as "greeters," "operators" and "executives" has been defined. This categorization was based on their definition of their position and the way in which they see themselves related to the various significant publics.

Table XLI gives evidence supporting the hypothesis that those managers who define themselves as executives experience more secure career patterns than operators and greeters. This

table is a result of combining the greeter-operator definition into a non-executive category because of the small number of greeters (seven). Also, the stable and unstable career families were collapsed into a dichotomy for statistical purposes. Table XLI, Part A, shows the relationship between these variables in terms of a chi-square probability of independence and a phi-based correlation coefficient equivalent.

TABLE XLI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER FAMILIES AND MANAGER'S DEFINITION OF HIS POSITION

Part A	Occupational Definition		
Career Family	Operators and Greeters	Executives	Total
Stable[6]	14	19	33
Unstable	18	9	27
Total	32	28	60

$X^2 = 3.5$ $.10 > P > .05$

$r_\phi = +.38$

Part B. With Eight Owners and Lessees Removed			
Career Family	Occupational Definition		
	Operators and Greeters	Executives	Total
Stable	7	18	25
Unstable	18	9	27
Total	25	27	52

$X^2 = 11.09$ $P < .01$

$r_\phi = +.67$

[6]"Stable" category here combines stable and conventional; "unstable" combines unstable, sustained trial, disestablished and multiple trial. (See Table XLII and Delbert C. Miller and William H. Form, Industrial Sociology, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951, p. 724.)

Table XLI, Part B, is the same data with the eight owners and lessees removed. Each of the latter fell into the stable category, with only one having an executive definition of position, in contrast to the trend and thus distorting the total comparison. When considering the careers of all managers, except owners and lessees, "executive definition" seems to be the variable bearing the closest relationship to the stable career families portraying a career pattern of greater security. The chi-square test also yields a highly significant probability value, rejecting the independence hypothesis.

G. The Operators and Greeters Attitudes Toward Job Selection.

Apparently the non-executive tends to seek a different type employer than does the executive. He seeks the employer irrespective of whether it is a hotel chain, dependent hotel company, or independent company, who will allow him this type of relative free rein within the hotel. He seeks to retain certain vestiges of proprietary independence and perpetuate the "grand host ideal," without long-range marketing, planning, or financing responsibility. He is attracted by employers who will allow freedom over internal operations and personnel control. Whether an independent hotel or a system, these are the working conditions and context he seeks.

This fact gains emphasis since Table XLII presents data showing the relative independence of stability and hotel size. The stability differential is evidently based on a cluster of

attitudes of which the definition of position is an important part.

TABLE XLII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CAREER FAMILY OF SECURITY AND HOTEL SIZE

Part A. Career Family	Size of Hotel Small	Medium	Large	Total
Stable	3	5	2	10
Conventional	8	7	8	23
Unstable	2	4	2	8
Sustained Trial	2	1	6	9
Disestablished	3	3	2	8
Multiple Trial	2	0	0	2
Total	20	20	20	60

Part B. Career Family	Size of Hotel Small	Medium	Large	Total
Stable	11	12	10	33
Unstable	9	8	10	27
Total	20	20	20	60

$X^2 = .04$ $.99 > P > .98$

H. The Executive Attitude Toward Job Selection

Probably as a result of his differential job definition, the executive tends to develop a somewhat more stable total career pattern. Although Table XXX in Chapter VI revealed that a significantly greater number of executives are found

in the larger hotels, this is by no means a discrete distinction, since executives are found in all sizes of hotels. Furthermore, stability itself was found to be relatively independent of hotel size, giving support to the hypothesis that security is more a function of the manager than the ownership or size of hotel.

The executive tends to select (or be selected for) his hotel positions more on the basis of genuine administrative opportunity. The size of hotel does not prevent him from organizing his staff on an administrative basis and in planning his time and relationships from a managerial point of view. The majority of "executives" found in small hotels had experience in larger hotels and brought the administrative methods and techniques with them.

The "executive" hotel manager then, secure his management positions on the basis of his opportunity to exercise his definition of his role rather than on the particular kind of hotel ownership or size of the property. In so doing, he builds for himself a much more secure career since there is inherently more indispensability in this kind of position.

I. Sponsorship

The kind of career sponsorship obtained by an individual manager did not prove to be related to any of the indices of stability (number of years in present position, trial stable ratio, number of employers, or career family), except for those who inherited a family hotel or those who had family

financial backing. Each of these proprietary careers fall in the stable or conventional career families.

J. Summary

The occupational security of hotel managers may be measured in a number of ways, each index giving a different insight into the influences affecting the hotel manager's career.

A long tenure for hotel managers in their present position is one of the indices of security that is primarily associated with independently owned hotels and with the degree of the manager's proprietary interest in the hotel. The number of employers for whom the manager has worked, another index of security, also increases in more complex hotel organizations.

Had these two criteria of security been the only ones used, the basic finding of this study would have been obscured. The role which each manager creates for himself within the various ownership contexts appears to be of overriding importance in fashioning a secure career.

"Executive" managers, it has been discovered, are those who enjoy the more successful careers with regard to hotel size, hotel quality, and the business activity of their hotel. The evidence indicates that executives total career patterns are more secure than non-executives, even though a significant proportion are located in chain hotels. Those managers with a high trial-stable ratio tended to exhibit the leadership

characteristics of "executives." However, "executives" were strongly associated with overall career families of stability. Apparently the careers showing overall security are the result of maintaining personal visibility within the industry, making possible frequent, consistent, and significant job changes.

The major contribution of an "executive" definition to a hotel management career is an overall pattern of relative occupational stability. Career security is the resultant of many by-products of the "executive" attitude. Its influence seems to emanate from a non-proprietary heritage, is spurred by education, particularly continuing education, and results in job choices which, though frequent, have directionality and purpose to the end of achieving a highly successful career as measured by stability, size of hotel, hotel quality, and business activity.

Although the "executive" definition and sponsorship were shown in Chapter VI to be strongly related, sponsorship is not directly related to overall career stability by statistical association.

A hotel manager's security is apparently and largely a function of his wise selection of positions. His criteria for selecting positions are part of his generalized management philosophy. His range of choices of positions results from his visibility to the industry since he tends to exhibit greater leadership locally and in the trade association and is more likely to have a sponsor working in his half behind the scene.

A greater percentage of hotel managers exhibited career patterns in the unstable families than do managers and proprietors from the general population. The percentage distribution of hotel managers in this sample among the career families more nearly approximate the career patterns of the semi-skilled and operative than any other occupational classification. The evidence gives rise to two hypotheses: that many hotel managers may not have a "management" occupation in the overall context, and that the lack of sustained interest in continuing education activities for themselves and their employees stems from an occupation insecurity and transient complex.

CHAPTER VIII

CAREER PATTERNS--SUCCESS

Successful career patterns will be discussed in this chapter as measured by two numerical variables--number of years required to reach the first top management position and the business activity index.

A. Number of Years to Top Management

It was established earlier in this study that the most significant impact of formal education upon the career of hotelmen is its effect upon the number of years to reach the first top management position. Education was also related to the securing of career sponsorship.

Among all non-proprietary careers, the unsponsored required an average (mean) of 14.5 years to reach their first management position. The sponsored required a mean of 8.6 years. The t-ratio for the test of the significance of the difference between means is 6.7, the probability of this value being less than .01.

Since years of formal education is strongly related to sponsorship and inversely related to the years required to achieve top management, perhaps the real impact of education upon the career of the management candidate in his rapid rise to reach top management is probably not solely a matter

of skills and ability, but also a matter of being able to come to the attention of "significant others" to assist management candidates in their career climb.

Table XLIII illustrates the relative effectiveness of the various career assistance arrangements in the manager's climb to the first top management position. The average number of years are expressed here as medians because of the small number within each group. Clearly the more and the stronger forces working for the individual, the more rapid his climb. Proprietors were able to pass on the management of the family hotel quickly. Among the remaining hotelmen, those who joined chains and were sponsored, moved more rapidly than the unsponsored within the chain. Those with no sponsorship climbed the management ladder the least rapidly of all.

1. The apprenticeship period. It has been established that the apprenticeship period will be significantly shorter for the better educated and the sponsored. The apprenticeship period for the typical manager consists of from five to eight years in the front office department plus one or two years in the food and beverage department. He will also spend one or two years in the sales or accounting department, but never both. One year's experience in the sales department is apparently worth several years in any other department with regard to rapid accession to management. Housekeeping

and engineering are usually learned by observation, not work experience.

TABLE XLIII

TYPE OF SPONSORSHIP AS RELATED TO SEVERAL CAREER VARIABLES

Type of Sponsorship	Number		
	Median Years in Middle Management	Median Years to Top Management	Cases
Family (individual sponsorship)	1	2	8
Sponsoring individual and hotel system career	3	8	14
System career, no sponsorship	4	10	14
Sponsoring individual only	5	11	11
None	7	12	13
Total Number Cases			60

This "apprenticeship" period required in the development of operating managers is usually identified as working up the ranks. Its pattern, however, is a critical variable in years to reach top management. The necessity for it was recognized early in the establishment of hotel schools and other training programs as noted by the Hawkins report.[1] Management

[1]Layton S. Hawkins, Vocational Education in the Hotel Business. (A report to the American Hotel Association of the United States and Canada, p. 128)

rationalizes the necessity for work experience for members on several grounds.

a. Maturity. The hotel manager finds himself handling people at all levels, grades, and stations, both as employees and guests. His is a critical public relations post.

b. The code of ethics. The nature of the hotel business is such that there are two codes of conduct to be followed by the manager. The one is for public consumption, the other for running the business profitably. Much from these codes must be learned through experience.

c. Learning the skills. Front office training experience is particularly highly regarded among hotelmen. It is extolled with nostalgia by frequent comparisons to the vitues and glories of the proprietary innkeeper. There is a real attempt made to borrow the prestige of management and the symbol of the grand host and apply them to the front office worker. Hence, the apprenticeship period is viewed as necessary to acquiring critical public and human relations skills which are accessible only through long experience. The recent rapid rise of the position of the food and beverage department to total gross sales has brought a recognition of training in this department to rational if not emotional equivalency among hotelmen.

2. Consistency. Several variables which have not been discussed with regard to number of years to reach top management are type of ownership, size of hotel, and mobility consistency. Since the term "consistency" as used here refers to the pattern of positions according to the size of the employing these three variables will be discussed together. The mean number of years required to reach the first top management position in the various sized hotels is shown in Table XLIV.

TABLE XLIV

COMPARISON OF SIZE OF HOTEL WITH NUMBER OF YEARS REQUIRED TO REACH THE FIRST TOP MANAGEMENT POSITION

Hotel Size	Years to Top Management
Small	10.
Medium	10.6
Large	15.7
$t = 5.8$ $P < .01$	

The "t" ratio for the difference ($t = 5.8$) between the means of the medium and large hotel categories is highly significant with a probability of less than .01.

Ownership is also a factor, though somewhat more difficult to appraise. When the proprietary managers are not considered, chain hotels show a tendency to require somewhat more years to achieve top management

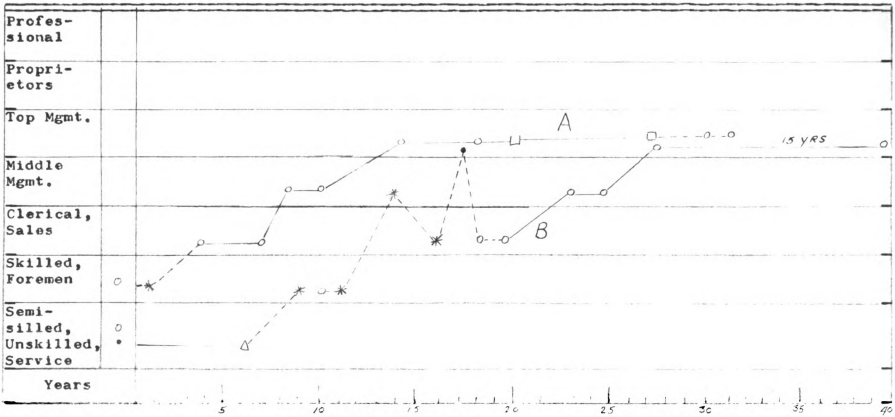
positions than the independent and dependent hotels. However, none of the differences are significant.

Within this framework of hotel size and ownership, "consistency" is the overriding mobility theme. Figure 3 illustrates the careers of two large hotel managers. Career A shows consistency according to size of employing hotels. Career B shows inconsistency. This same pattern may be drawn for each of the other categories by hotel size, though not so dramatically. A study of all of the careers when portrayed graphically as in Figure 3, give rise to the following consistency and mobility generalizations.

a. Those managers who aspire to the management of a certain sized hotel will probably achieve that goal most quickly by starting and remaining in that size of hotel, as shown in Figure 3, Career A.

b. Those managers who attempt to achieve large hotel management via small hotel management will probably have to re-enter and renew their apprenticeship period in a large hotel, as shown in Figure 3, Career B.

c. When mobility from manager of a smaller hotel to the larger hotels is achieved, it has usually been preceded by an apprenticeship experience in a hotel of the larger size.



Manager's age: A=55, B=51 Education: A=19, B=17

Hotel chain, privately owned, or part of inter-industry company

Transient: 100% Residential:

Hotel rating: 1

Trial Career Period - Broken line
Stable Career Period - Solid line
Hotel Positions -
Large - Circle
Medium - Star
Small - Dot
Non Hotel Positions - Triangle
Corporate Staff - Box

FIGURE III

CAREER PROFILES OF TWO LARGE, CHAIN-OWNED, HOTEL MANAGERS, ILLUSTRATING CONSISTENCY (A), AND INCONSISTENCY (B)

d. Managers of large hotels reflect large hotel apprenticeships. Managers of smaller hotels reflect that size hotel apprenticeships.

Career A in Figure 3 is representative of the more rapid and consistent mobility patterns of large hotel managers. Its consistency, however, is representative of the more rapid upward mobility patterns in all sizes of hotels, the time span for the apprenticeship being attenuated some in the case of the smaller hotels.

Career pattern B characterizes the inconsistency pattern of seven large hotel managers' careers. These are the careers of hotel managers who became large hotel managers after beginning as managers of small hotels. Each of these upward mobile managers experienced vertical regression or a renewed period of apprenticeship in a large hotel in order to achieve the large hotel management goal. These should be studied in contrast with the careers of pattern A showing consistency. Each of these managers achieved direct upward mobility according to hotel size in conformity with the generalizations presented in the above.

Consistency, then, is a conspicuously evident and graphic variable within the careers of hotel managers. Consistency for many of these managers was rarely possible except in the cases of the sponsored and

chain careers. The depression era, with its economic exigencies, was a very real factor in the inconsistency of many of the hotel managers' careers.

3. Occupational definition. Occupational definition was not significantly related to a difference in the number of years to reach top management. Even though the manager may possess an "executive" perspective, he may not be sponsored, and therefore acquire for himself the added advantages of sponsorship in the rapid rise to a top management position.

B. Business Activity

For each of the hotels in this study, a business activity index was computed, based on the per cent of room occupancy and percentage of food sales as related to the Horwath and Horwath averages for the particular type of hotel and its geographic region.[2] The index was a simple trichotomy as follows:

Above average hotels consisted of sixteen hotels showin in the top business performance of this sample.

Average hotels consisted of the middle thirty hotels reflecting near average business volume.

Below average hotels consisted of the lowest fourteen hotels in sales activity.

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[2]Hotel Operations in 1958, 27th Annual Study by Horwath and Horwath, Hotel Accountants and Consultants (New York: 41 E. 42nd St., 1959), p. 65.

Fortunately, the distribution of these hotels fell into approximate quartile distributions, as shown in the margin of Table XLVI, appearing later in this chapter.

Table XLV shows the relationship between business activity and a number of significant variables. It should be noted that business activity is, in general, not related to the size of hotel or kind of hotel ownership, with the exception that only one out of the eight proprietors operated a hotel reflecting above average business activity.

TABLE XLV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BUSINESS ACTIVITY AND SIGNIFICANT NUMERICAL VARIABLES

Variables	Relationship to Business Activity Index
Number of hotel rooms	$r = +.003$
Type of corporate ownership	gamma = +.03
Years of education	$r = +.003$
Continuing education	$r_\phi = +.31$
Number of offices in the A.H.A.	$r = +.26$
Hours per week in reading	$r = +.27$
Civic and fraternal offices	$r = +.33$
Hotel's quality ranking	$r = +.53$
Per cent of food sales	$r = +.59$
Per cent of occupancy	$r = +.68$

It will be recalled that formal education was not found to be significantly related to business activity, but that

continuing education showed a low, but profitable relationship.

Such evidences of leadership as community and trade association activities are apprently related to business success, as is another continuing effort, private reading.

As it might be expected, the hotel's quality ranking correlates well with business activity ($r = +.53$) and with the bases of the business activity index, food sales ($r = +.59$) and room occupancy ($r = +.68$). These variables would correlate more highly if it were not for the sliding scale used in determining the business activity ranking according to geographical location and type of facility (e.g., a given hotel occupancy is above the Detroit average, but average or below in Chicago).

1. Management definition. In the last chapter, the relationship between the manager's definition of his position and his success as measured by the career family of stability, was established. Success, as measured by the business activity index for the hotel is also highly related to manager's definition. Table XLVI shows the highly significant relationship between these two variables.

The "executive" hotel manager apparently has the ability and judgment to select positions in those properties which have potential, and to develop it. As one hotel executive put it, "A good hotelman can turn a disadvantage into a dollar."

These hotelmen are not confused by the occupational ethic of "service", "good will," and the individualized "front desk" treatment. They hold these values in perspective and give equal emphasis to such business factors as sales and promotion, careful budgeting, and cost and payroll control.

TABLE XLVI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE BUSINESS ACTIVITY INDEX AND OCCUPATIONAL DEFINITION

Index	Operators and Greeters	Executives	Total
Above average	4	12	16
Average	16	14	20
Below average	12	2	14
Total	32	28	60

$X^2 = 10.90$ $P < .01$

Gamma = +.68

Through proper definition of role, these managers are able to control the human and physical forces about them to the end of improved sales and profit taking.

2. Sponsorship. Reference to Table XLVII reveals that for this sample sponsorship is significantly related and the most highly associated variable to business activity. Those individuals who have made and kept the right contacts during and since the apprenticeship

years, find themselves in the more profitable hotels at maturity.

TABLE XLVII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BUSINESS ACTIVITY INDEX AND CAREER SPONSORSHIP

Index	Unsponsored	Sponsored	Total
Above average	2	14	16
Average	13	17	30
Below average	12	2	14
Total	27	33	60

$X^2 = 16.24$ $P < .01$

Gamma = +.79[3]

Sponsorship in this context seems to imply the advantages of visibility in the industry and sensitivity to the importance of the social and human subleties of the mobility climb. The sponsored individual gains his sponsorship initially by being able to relate himself to "significant others" in the score of social niceties and business reciprocities which develop and cement business friendships. The sponsor in turn maintains the visibility of his protege to other

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[3]The gamma measure of association is used here since phi is only computed from four-fold tables. Phi and gamma cannot be equated nor similarly interpreted. (See Morris Zelditch, Jr., A Basic Course in Sociological Statistics, New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1959, p. 370.

hotelmen when the "right" appointments are made and in the circles where critical financial decisions are made.[4]

Sponsorship, then, is the significant variable in two of the criteria of success--years to top management and the business activity index. Although it operates within the differing limits established by the various ownership arrangements, its effectiveness is noted and felt within any of these contexts.

C. Summary

The manager's success as discussed in this chapter was measured by two numerical variables--number of years to reach the first top management position and the business activity of the currently operated hotel. Occupational success from the standpoint of security was described in the preceding chapter. Here attention is focused on the rapidity of upward mobility and the relative desirability of the hotel position now occupied from an economic standpoint.

Years to the first top management position is an exceedingly important mark of success to hotelmen because of the stormy and insecure apprenticeship years prerequisite to achieving top management candidacy. There is the frequently mentioned fear and possibility of being dubbed "just

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[4]W. Lloyd Warner and Norman H. Martin, Industrial Man, Businessmen and Business and Business Organizations (New York: Harper and Bros., 1959), pp. 93-94.

an assistant manager," being sterotyped, or being overlooked in the personality market of middle management aspirants.[5]

Except for those entering the industry through family ownership, those entering it through a chain and with a key individual supporter succeed in passing through the apprenticeship period more rapidly than did their peers who had fewer informal and formal organizational factors in concert with them.

The element of consistency as a factor in rapid upward mobility is usually an outgrowth of hotel chain affiliation and sponsorship. Graphic analysis of consistent careers according to hotel size contrasts with their inconsistent peers in that their work positions while coming up the ranks were selected from hotels of the size and kind similar to the hotel of the type desired for the ultimate management position. Those managers who attempted to progress from small hotel management to larger hotel management without previous experience in the larger setting experienced a regression to the middle management or clerical ranks within the larger hotel framework, thus lengthening the exploratory period of their careers.

Sponsorship and an executive definition are the key career variables to achieving management in a hotel showing

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[5]C. Wright Mills, White Collar (New York: Oxford University Press, 1956), p. 378.

above average business activity volume. The executive definition of role assumes and implies leadership in civic and trade organization affairs. Administrative ability plus visibility evidently builds the necessary reputation for the hotelmen to achieve the more profitable hotel management positions.

It is not surprising to find that the hotels having a higher volume of sales tend to be those of the finer quality. The correlation of +.57 between business activity and hotel quality seems low unless the many kinds of hotel markets, each having their associated price range and prestige level, is carefully and fully understood.

Sponsorship is associated both with rapid upward mobility and positions in above average business volume hotels. The executive definition is related to management of above average hotels, but is not apparently significantly related to the number of years required to reach the first top management position. To achieve success in terms of both criteria of this chapter, sponsorship appears to be the essential ingredient. An executive definition is the essential variable for handling position capably and for retaining that position over a greater period of time, as reflected by its association to career families of security.

CHAPTER IX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR CONTINUING RESEARCH

This study was a search for the significant career variables in the lives of sixty hotel managers from four midwestern states. A wide range of career variables was examined in a search for those having greatest significance for hotel managers.

As a by-product of the research design, this study has been a testing of a number of sociological-career hypotheses concerning the management occupation to determine whether or not they have application to hotelmen. In addition a number of sociological observations and hypotheses were tested statistically for which quantitative evidence had not been gathered heretofore. This chapter will attempt to relate meaningfully the significant success variables to each other, as well as to the various success criteria.

Suggestions for further study are presented at the close of this chapter and are of two kinds: those for which the evidence in this study was insufficient to establish significance, and those for which a significant relationship was established in this study, but the direction of causality or chronological development is unclear.

A. The Origin of Hotelmen

In contrast to impressions popularized by many of the recent biographies of famous hotel entrepreneurs,[1] the hotel industry today is not one that is readily amenable to the "Horatio Alger" conquest at the management level. The statistical odds against achieving a top operating position in the hotel industry for those from a sub-managerial heritage appear to be at least as great or greater than the odds against success in general business management.

A preponderance of hotelmen in this study came from a proprietary heritage and had initial proprietary aspirations. Those entering a hotel career imbued with a philosophy of achieving success solely through their own merits, productive capacity, personal initiative and ability were apparently less likely to achieve the essential attributes of success--sponsorship and an "executive" occupational definition.

B. Education

A high percentage of hotel managers (45 per cent) have completed a college education as compared with managers and officials in general (20 per cent). On the basis of their socio-economic origin (82 per cent of fathers were managers, proprietors, and professional) a high ratio of college attendance is to be expected.

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[1]Conrad N. Hilton, Be My Guest (N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957), p. 288; and Ernest Henderson, The World of "Mr. Sheraton" (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1960), p. 277.

A college education is assumed in the hotel industry to be a prerequisite to a rapid rise to top management. This assumption was found to be the case to a statistically significant degree.

The management-apprentice period can be highly mobile and insecure. It is a period in which personal and family desires are to be subordinated to the demands of the business. Management candidates, regardless of origin, were found to attenuate this period by pursuing advanced formal education and to achieve management status in approximately half the time required by those with less than a college education.

In addition to rapid upward mobility, formal education for hotel managers is a key to personal "sponsorship." Sponsorship was much less frequently obtained by those who were not college graduates, but, when obtained, appeared to facilitate a rapid rise to top management posts in much the same way as it did for college men.

C. The Educational Challenge

The graduates of collegiate academic programs who enter the hotel industry appear to be falling short of society's expectancies for them on several counts. Formal education is expected to develop those attributes which will prepare its graduates to become the more competent managers of the economic units of our society. The essential difference between the academically trained and the craft trained individual is that the former is expected to become an administrator of production and the latter a producer.

According to this study, the proportion of managers who defined themselves as "executive" managers and who possessed a collegiate background was not significantly different from the non-graduates. However, there was found to be a low order correlation (r_{ϕ} = +.37) between these two variables.

Collegiate graduates do not appear to comprise the potential hotel management elite. Non-graduates become "executive" managers as well. Collegiate level training does serve to prepare the graduate for entry into management apprenticeship at a higher level of work experience, into a formalized program of on-the-job instruction, or for a favored and "sponsored" relationship. In this way a collegiate background attenuates the management apprenticeship period.

The "school of hard knocks" and continuing education is providing the finishing and embellishment for the "executive." Collegiate programs may better be viewed as <u>preparing</u> for the development of the "executive" definition of occupation rather than as developing it, per se.

On the basis of the low order relationship between formal education and the executive definition, an examination of the curricula offered potential hotel managers is needed. With the criteria of the "executive" (successful) hotelmen as the bases, courses offered potential managers must be justified not only in terms of the industry's entry requirements, but also with regard to their contribution to the "executive" concept.

Hotel administration programs may well examine their programs with another dimension of the executive (administrative orientation) versus operator (content orientation) differential in mind. The collegiate hotel administration programs were found to have significantly fewer graduates managing large properties than graduates of general business administration programs. Although they defined themselves as "executive" managers in much the same proportions as did their general business counterparts, their aspirations are evidently to put their "hotel" knowledge to use more quickly in a smaller business wherein they have greater contacts with immediate, substantive, operating problems.

Within the hotel industry, college graduates were not found to be contributing a significantly greater proportion of leaders than their peers who are not graduates. Whether they are unaware of the advantages of trade and community visibility, whether they are unable to gain acceptance by their peers, or whether they have adopted in college certain personal values and goals which puts a greater premium on domestic life and personal freedom than on these job related advantages, was not investigated in this study. This interpretation must be tempered further by the correlation of $r = -.39$ between managers age and years of education. The better educated managers tend to be the younger hotelmen who have not yet achieved managerial recognition and status.

D. Continuing Education

The use of continuing education by hotel managers was related to a number of evidences of his generalized and positive attitudes toward learning, personal growth, new ideas, and the hotel business. The manager who had pursued some formal learning experiences after his school years was shown to be an individual who has a greater degree of direction and purposiveness in his career than his peers. He established more definite career plans early in his career. He was able to adopt the "executive" view of hotel management and looks to the future in the hotel business with a more positive view and greater optimism.

Continuing education seems to be a career variable operating independently from formal education, the proprietary heritage, or sponsorship. It marks the individual who has the peculiar cluster of drives, attitudes and abilities which will cause him to succeed in business.

The fact that continuing education is associated with the development of the executive definition should be encouraging to the educators and association leaders who have been promoting advanced learning opportunities for the purpose of developing incumbent managers. The disquieting fact, and perhaps one of the major reasons why continuing education programs are not utilized to a greater extent by hotel personnel, is inherent in the evidence that continuing education is not directly and immediately related with any of the criteria

of success. It leads to many success criteria as an intervening variable to the "executive" definition.

Formal education, on the other hand, has an immediately noticeable consequence--rapid upward mobility. However, such upward mobility is apparently no better directed in terms of security, high profit hotels or personal income, than for the less educated.

E. The Continuing Education Market

Those interested in bringing various forms of continuing education activity to hotelmen must be ever mindful of the occupational ethic. There appeared to be no identifiable differences among the hotelmen and their career variables as to their view of the industry's subject matter problems. However, there are differences as to which hotelmen are more likely candidates for enrollment in personnel up-grading efforts. Those hotelmen exhibiting an "executive" definition and who are assuming leadership positions within the industry are more likely to seek benefit for themselves and their employees through the various learning media.

The non-executive adheres to a sterotyped and fatalistic philosophy which is less amenable to change, the introduction of new methods, and the use of learning programs.

Those hotelmen who have attained more formal education have not pursued continuing education opportunities to a greater degree than their peers. However, those hotelmen in the employment of hotel systems appear to be a better continuing

education market than their independent and dependent hotel employed colleagues.

Without attempting to establish a cause and effect direction between continuing education and system employment, it is a reasonable assumption that hotel systems utilizing continuing education will accrue to themselves its advantages. The primary advantages related to continuing education were established as: the executive definition and its success differentials, leadership, career purposefulness, and business optimism.

F. Barriers to Continuing Education

In the search for other influences which affect participation in the industry's continuing education efforts, two factors in this study are salient deterrents--the apprenticeship philosophy and the low level of management security.

The apprenticeship period was described earlier as a stormy and unpredictable era, averaging about nine years in length, in which the management candidate is expected to prove himself in working is way up the ranks. This proving is accomplished in direct competition with experienced men who are careerists in their various trades--waiters, captains, stewards, chefs, bellmen, bell-captains, clerks, cashiers, salesmen, etc. During this period a management candidate is expected to work as long and as hard as is necessary to attain experience in all phases of the work and to succeed at each position.

During this period the candidate must remain mobile and ready to move on short notice. Family life, vacations, and personal outlets must be subordinated to the pressure of hotel activities themselves. This is a period in which study, reflection or contemplation do not pay dividends. Decisions are direct and on-the-spot. It is man-to-man performance and effectiveness that counts most. The gauntlet is run and these hurdles surmounted with the goal of the top management position with its many emoluments, its power, authority, and prestige.

As reflected in this study, however, the "executive" minded and the highly motivated candidate will likely make the necessary sacrifice to attend night school or a short course during this period. This attendance will probably be over the objections or ridicule of his immediate superior and his current peers. However, those candidates in the more highly organized, rationalized and bureaucratic hotel organizations were found to reflect greater continuing education effort; and are, in fact, currently sponsoring training programs.

Many managers, primarily of the non-executive definition, are reluctant to initiate or allow other than working-level skills and service training programs. Those kinds of educational opportunities which lend insight to his own role and which may possibly jeopardize or reflect on his own position are usually discouraged. Having achieved the zenith of his ambitions (the non-executive was significantly associated with

no further career plans), many managers will inhibit those learning activities of enterprising individuals who may aspire to his position.

Learning programs do not appear to thrive in an insecure climate. Hotel managers were shown to be much less secure than general business managers, to read less, and to reflect a security ratio similar to operatives and semi-skilled workers. Here again the non-executive manager, who is significantly associated with the less secure career patterns, has become far too deeply enmeshed in the struggle to maintain himself and his operating security to be concerned with self-improvement and learning. He is looking for immediate solutions to pressing problems, does not see his own career in perspective, and is somewhat disdainful of the "book" approach as opposed to the hard way in which he was taught. Faced with a tenuous position and an insecure outlook, many hotel managers, particularly the non-executive, are reluctant to detract from the hotel's current operating and profit picture to invest in up-grading himself and his employees.

The apprenticeship period and the relative insecurity inherent in the hotel management occupation are viewed here as major deterents to continuing education efforts and prevent its being perceived as useful or profitable by a large segment of hotel managers.

G. Occupational Definition

The search for the "executive" versus a lower level self-image in the definition of occupation was prompted by the work of social science research in organization and management. The present study uncovered three distinct differentials according to self-definition: the "executive," the "operator," and the "greeter." The latter two were frequently referred to as the "non-executive" group for statistical purposes.

The "greeter-operator" definition of role is a highly idealized part of the occupational ethic of hotel management. Even the executive would usually declare himself to be a part of the "grand host" ideal, a personal conveyor of hospitality and service, as having intimate knowledge of every phase of his hotel, or as able to perform every work station within the hotel. The craftsman-operator ideal is still very much a part of the verbalized hotel ethic of the "executive," but is not confused in administrative practice.

In spite of the craftsman ideal which pervades the industry and its educational programs, it was found in this study that nearly half of hotel managers had, by various means, learned and adopted an "executive" definition of their position. Several factors appeared as possible contributors to the development of an "executive" attitude. They were formal education, sponsorship, continuing education, the non-proprietary heritage, and chain hotel affiliation. Of these

only sponsorship, hotel chain employment and continuing education were significantly related, with continuing education showing the stronger association.

Although the "executive" definition of function is not the popularlized hotel manager's ideal, it is an intervening career variable bearing a significant relationship to the following criteria of success: the above average income hotels, larger hotel management positions, high quality hotels, and career stability. "Executive" definition of role is not significantly related to rapid mobility to top management positions. This is the only success criteria to which it did not relate significantly.

H. Sponsorship and Occupational Definition

Sponsorship and the executive occupational definition have been established as the two keys or intervening variables to success in the hotel management. In addition, these two keys were found to be significantly related to each other. Although the relationship is statistically significant, clearly there is not complete overlap between the sponsored and executive managers.

It will be recalled that formal education was the earliest career variable to be significantly associated with rapid upward mobility and that continuing education is the only variable to be early associated with the executive definition. Both of these keys to success appear to be differentials in personality and learning. It is also a reasonable

assumption that they are not wholly comprised of identical elements since they are associated with different antecedents and resultants.

From this study it is evident that many of the better educated managers fail to develop one or the other of these attributes. Education is not directly related to any measure of financial and business success or to career stability. Many of the better educated failed to develop either sponsorship or the "executive" definition and were primarily from a proprietary origin.

The important and clear fact is that education stands as the great stepping-stone to success. On one hand, formal education apparently makes success possible via sponsorship and rapid upward mobility. On the other hand, continuing education apparently makes success possible via the development of the "executive" definition. Of the two variables, the executive definition seems to carry the overriding influence and impact upon the total career.

Education, either formal or continuing, stands then as the key to success within the organizational and managerial milieu of the hotel context. In this study we have identified several associated personal qualities and characteristics which seem to spring from learning experiences. The design of educational curricula and the career planning of potential management candidates have traditionally considered the

substance of hotelkeeping and its ethic and have largely overlooked these two significants to career success.

I. The Dynamic Interplay of Forces

A score or more of significant career relationships have been identified. The unique contribution and relationship of the pervading influences of sponsorship and executive definition has been described to each of their relevant variables or success criteria.

Figure IV graphically portrays the relationship of these career variables and the success criteria along a time span continuum (left to right). This figure is not an attempt to illustrate cause and effect relationships among variables, but is, rather, an attempt to show the probable sequence of their emergence, use, or display in the hotelman's career as related to the success criteria.

The placing of the variables along the time line continuum is an approximation of the career sequence and has no basis in the actual number of years reported in this study.

Sponsorship and executive definition appear as channels to the port of success. Sponsorship stands with only three possible contributing factors: college education, executive definitions and non-proprietary origin. Executive definition, however, has many possible contributing factors: sponsorship, continuing education, hotel chain employment, definite career planning, leadership positions, college education, and non-proprietary origin (the latter two at less than a significant level of confidence).

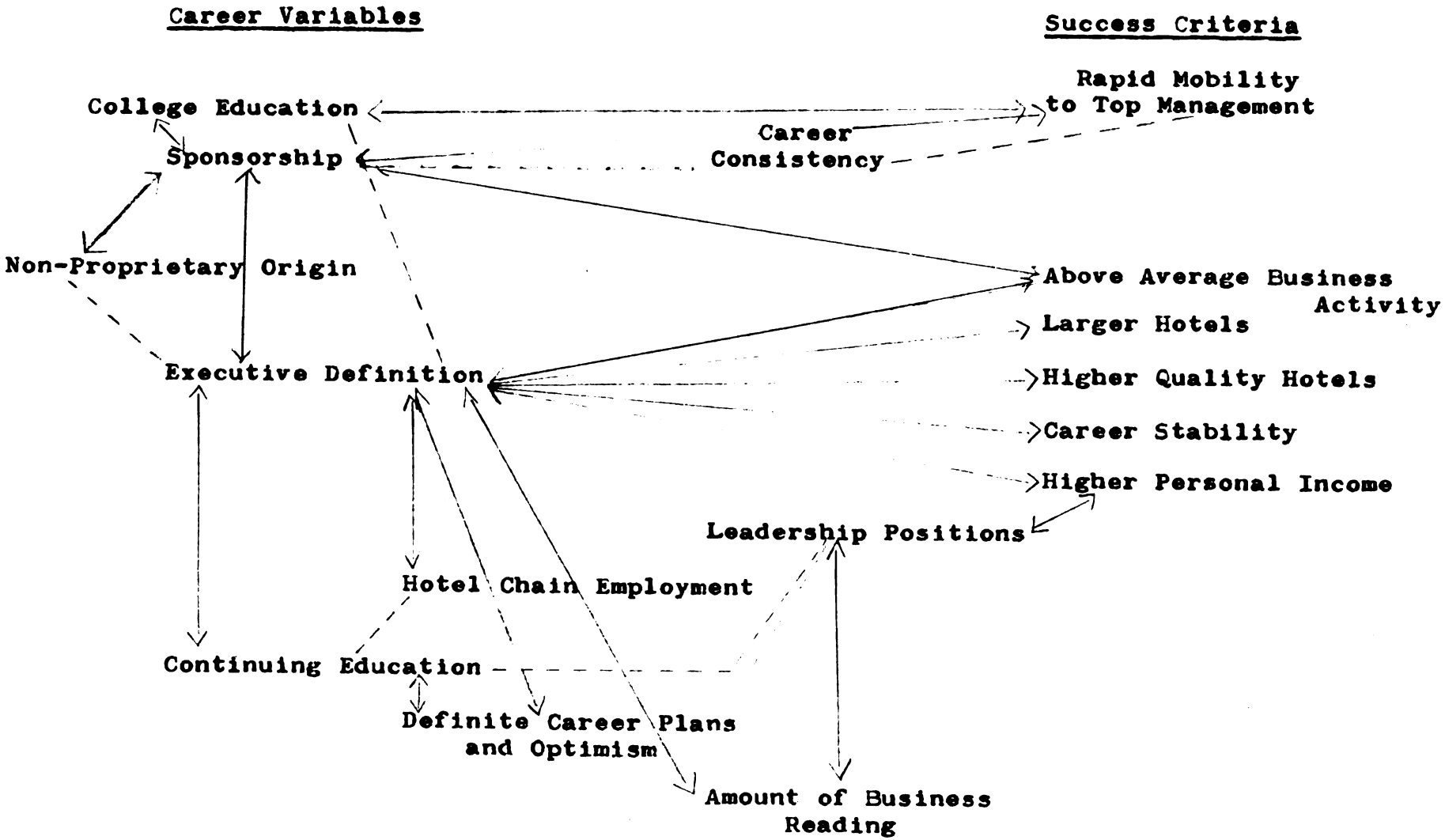

FIGURE IV

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE SIGNIFICANT CAREER VARIABLES AND THEIR ASSOCIATION WITH THE SUCCESS CRITERIA

College education and the assumption of leadership positions are the two career variables which associate significantly and directly with some success criteria rather than with the two keys only.

It remains as a challenge to future research to validate, or refute, with larger samples the concepts operationalized in this study. Other studies may profitably probe behind the scenes in order to determine why these evidences of relationship among career variables are present. It is entirely possible that other factors not identified by this study underlie the variables presented here, although these "evident" career variables have been shown to have tremendous and lifelong impact on the careers of this sample of contemporary hotel managers.

J. Suggestions for Continuing Research

1. The sociological literature describing the relationship between origin, education opportunities, and occupational level attainments is abundant. The more significant of these were described in the Review of the Literature. However, in the course of this study, a significant relationship between socio-economic origin and the attainment of sponsorship was discovered. A probable, though not statistically significant relationship was described between socio-economic origin and the attainment of an "executive" occupational definition.

Those managers having proprietary origins seemed to adhere to a set of values which inhibit their developing a sponsored relationship with significant hotelmen in the upper echelons of management, or their developing the "executive" definition of their occupation. The nature of the set of values which inhibits their development as related to socio-economic origin merits analysis based on the data and hypothesis offered in this study.

2. The impact of the manager's occupational definition upon his career was reviewed from several other studies and their hypothesis were defined, adapted, and analyzed for the hotel industry. The real origin and development of occupational definition, however, remains obscure. This study uncovered a number of probable contributing factors based on their chronological appearance in the manager's career. Since the occupational definition of position appears to have overriding and pervading influence upon the manager's career, its stability and business success, a longitudinal study of the evolution and development of the executive attitude is critically needed. The results of such a study might well have tremendous impact upon preparatory programs for managers and administrators in many fields and at varied levels of sophistication or responsibility.

3. Because of the unique nature of the hotel industry, its esoteric occupational ethic, and its extended apprenticeship, the impact of the managerial definition and/or philosophy of the first several managers upon the management apprentice merits analysis.

4. A number of the managers interviewed in this sample of hotelmen came from a proprietary background and had early proprietary aspirations, but are currently employed managers. These managers were identified as having suffered "proprietary dienfranchisement." This group of managers appeared to be less apt to seek new and creative solutions to their business through reading, continuing education, or trade association work. It seems likely, on the basis of the peripheral evidence gathered, that a number of personality variables or perceptual frames of a sterotyped or rigid nature are related. "Stereotype" and "rigidity" are here used in the sense of the phenomenological theories of Krech, Crutchfield, Lewin and others.[2] It is a reasonable hypothesis that those who have suffered proprietary disenfranchisement, as well as those who had strong proprietary aspirations, have both experienced severely thwarted careers. They may have attempted to achieve

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[2]David Krech, and Richard S. Crutchfield, Theory and Problems of Social Psychology (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1948), p. 639.

proprietary goals through management positions, but have slowly discovered its economic inaccessibility. These thwarted aspirations may have shaped life-long frustration patterns which have developed more rigid personality structures than their peers. This psychological variable may well be worthy of analysis as related to its social and economic antecendents in this and other areas of industry.

5. Sponsorship appeared as an important career variable which was significantly related to the number of years of formal education. However, many managers without the advantage of formal education attained sponsorship. They were primarily of a non-prorietary origin. It appears then that the "sponsored" have learned a different set of interpersonal values than the "unsponsored." The social-personal values of the "sponsored" versus "unsponsored" managers may well uncover hidden factors which would aid in the selection of successful management candidates.

6. College education, whether with hotel specialization or without, was not significantly related to the development of the executive definition of occupation. Similarly, attention to the content of hotelkeeping, rather than a balanced perspective with public relations, human relations, and equity concerns, was a criterion of the operator's definition.

An analysis of college curricula for managers, particularly those offering content subjects and specialization, as compared with the role of the executive definition (which leads to success) is now feasible. Heretofore, the role of the successful hotel manager had lacked precise definition.

7. Continuing education related to a number of the attributes of success, as well as to the development of the executive definition of occupation. The continuing education variable appeared to be an expression of some personality differential which was manifest at many different chronological periods. Other studies should be conducted relating continuing education to personality differentials, occupational definition and success criteria. If it is confirmed to carry the impact or to be a manifestation of potential to the degree expressed in this study, then it is certainly a critical piece of evidence for those concerned with personnel recruitment, selection and training.

8. Prior to this study, career variables had not been correlated with an overall index of career stability and security. In addition, it was established in this study that the security proportions of an occupational strata is by no means universal and applicable to all industries. Variables which influence career stability

are evidently inherent in the individual personality, to various occupational levels, and to broad industrial classifications. These variables merit investigation with regard to their impact on the security of the total career.

9. A convenient method of identifying the executive versus the non-executive oriented individual would be useful in both student and personnel selection. The "executive attitude and expectancies" have been well described and validated in this and other studies.

The design of a check list or inventory to identify the more or less executive oriented individuals is both feasible and desirable on the basis of the concept of the executive definition.

10. Career stability, as measured by an analysis of the entire career pattern, was significantly correlated to the managers possessing an executive definition of position. Its influence upon stability appeared to override other differentials such as hotel size and ownership.

By inference, stability seemed to be a matter of an "executive" securing positions allowing for his style of business conduct. A method of analyzing the occupational definition of position having been operationalized, the contrasting definition of the manager's position given by the manager vis-a-vis the owner

(whether individual or corporate) bears investigating. This relationship and its differentials may reveal significant insights, not only to career stability, but also management satisfaction and effectiveness.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

City_____
Population_____
Individual_____
Title_____

1. The Hotel_____, (Dependent_____ No.Rooms__
(Independent___ Rank_____
(System_____

2. % transient_____% residential_____%

3. % convention business_____%

4. Average annual occupancy_____%

5. Who (positions) reports to you directly? _____,

_____, _____, _____,

6. Do you have a financial interest in this hotel?_____%

7. Comparison % food sales_____, room sales_____.

8. As you are acquainted with managers, what influences would you say go farthest in spelling success in their careers?

9. If a friend's son, a pleasant, intelligent young man, asked your advice as to how he could become a hotel manager, what would your suggestions be?

10. Tell me about your career, starting with your last year of school. Experience beginning after public school.

Job Title	Duration	Hotel Size	City

11. Schooling? (1-16)_____years. If college, name_____
_____. Major field_____

Other schooling (short courses, military, correspondence, evening school, etc.)

Course	Length	Institution
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		

Interview Schedule Page 2

12. What kind of work were you planning on pursuing when you finished school?

13. After entering the hotel business what kind of position was your goal and ambition?

14. Did you receive any on-the-job training not discussed previously?

    Was it worthwhile? (If not, why)

15. When thinking through your work, how do you define your position and responsibilities? To whom do you feel directly responsible? Whom would you consult in making a major change? How long at present position?_____Years?

16. Looking ahead a few years, have you thought of any other management positions that you would like to achieve? What kind? How do you expect to achieve it?

17. As you see the hotel industry today, how would you rank these areas of concern to our business? (use cards)

18. Now tell me about yourself:

    Where born and raised_____(Rural or city dwelling)

    Father's primary work_____ Father's schooling (1-16)___
    Mother's schooling (1-16)___

19. Age now_____. Marital status_____.

    No. children_____. Present residence_____(city, suburban, hotel, other)

20. Approximate cash income:

    _____$5,000 and under
    _____ 5,000 - 7,500
    _____ 7,500 -10,000
    _____$10,000 - 15,000
    _____ 15,000 and above

21. Non-cash benefits:

    _____ business expenses
    _____ meals
    _____ residence
    _____ other

22. Church affilation_____ Member_____? No_____.

23. What hotel and professional organizations do you belong to:

Interview Schedule Page 3

Name	No. Years	Offices Held
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

24. What professional and business journals or magazines do you follow regularly?

25. What is your favorite kind of general business reading?

26. What kind of education and jobs would you like your children to go after?

27. To what civic and fraternal organizations do you belong?

Name	No. Years	Offices Held
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		

28. If you were asked to write the qualifications for the manager of a fine _____ room hotel, what would be the first four requirements you would list?

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire*

1. If you were to pick the weakest links in hotels today, which technical phase would you point to?

   Select and order from weakest (1) to strongest (6), 1-6 inclusive

   ____a. Accounting
   ____b. Food and Beverage
   ____c. Sales
   ____d. Maintenance and Engineering
   ____e. Housekeeping
   ____f. Front Office

2. What is the greatest organizational weakness of hotels today?

   Select and order from weakest (1) to strongest (6), 1-6 inclusive

   ____a. Total public relations
   ____b. Human relations and personnel management
   ____c. Management controls and policy
   ____d. Long-range planning and market analysis
   ____e. Real departmental level know-how
   ____f. Financing and Capitalization

3. Our industry's greatest problem is....

   ____a. Governmental regulation and restrictions
   ____b. Motel and other competition
   ____c. Labor and unionism
   ____d. Hotel public relations and hotel prestige

*Forced choice cards, Interview, Item 17.

APPENDIX C

Letter of Introduction

Mr. Wesley Schmidt, a member of our staff and director of the American Hotel Institute (which is housed at Michigan State University), is doing research for his doctoral dissertation. He is attempting to establish a "success profile" of leading hotelmen.

As part of this study, Mr. Schmidt anticipates interviewing approximately sixty leading hotel executives. Each interview will take approximately one hour. I believe that the study he is conducting will be of value as source material to educators, students, and hotelmen.

Before long, Mr. Schmidt will be contacting you to request an interview. The time you give Mr. Schmidt will be appreciated.

Cordially yours,

Joseph W. Thompson, Director
School of Hotel, Restaurant
and Institutional Management

APPENDIX D

Introduction of Career Study to the Interviewee

"Mr. _____, the industry, the American Hotel Association, and each of us are interested in properly guiding increasing numbers of young people into this field. However, whenever this question of what should prospective hotelmen know or how should they be guided comes up at one of our hotel association meetings. You hear as many answers as there are hotelmen present.

As a result of considerable discussion involving educators, sociologists, psychologists, and our own hotel management staff, we have decided to find out what successful managerial careers look like. As a result of a research grant, I am asking sixty hotelmen in all kinds and sizes of hotels to trace their careers for me and to give me their opinion on several management problems.

Let's begin with your early life. Tell me where you were born and raised, received your schooling, and how you came into this business."

APPENDIX E

All Variables Examined--According to Numerical and Qualitative Factors

I. Numerical Variables

1. Hotel class, according to size
2. Order of interview
3. Interviewer evaluation of hotel quality (1 to 5)
4. Population of hotel city
5. Number of hotel rooms
6. Per cent of transient rooms available
7. Per cent convention business conducted
8. Per cent average annual occupancy
9. Number of department heads
10. Per cent of food sales to total sales
11. Per cent of room sales to total sales
12. Business activity index
13. Number of years front-office work experience
14. Number of years sales department work experience
15. Number of years food and beverage work experience
16. Number of years accounting work experience
17. Number of years engineering work experience
18. Number of years housekeeping work experience
19. Number of years in present position
20. Number of different employers
21. Total number of years non-hotel work
22. Number of years in manual work experience
23. Number of years middle-management, clerical, and sales work
24. Number of years to reach top management
25. Number of years in top management
26. Number of years in hotel proprietorship
27. Number of years in non-hotel proprietorship
28. Number of years in all trial positions
29. Number of years in all stable positions
30. Number of different employers in stable work periods
31. Number of years in non-hotel management
32. Number of years in education
33. The trial-stable number of years in trial and stable positions
34. The trial-stable work experience ratio under 20 years
35. Manager's years of education, coded by classes
36. The difficulty ranking of the following departmental and technical problems:
    a. accounting
    b. food and beverage
    c. sales

d. maintenance
e. housekeeping
f. front-office

37. The strength-weakness ranking of six management functions:
    a. public relations
    b. human relations
    c. management
    d. planning
    e. know-how
    f. financing
38. The intensity ranking of four industry-wide problems:
    a. government regulation
    b. motel and other competitions
    c. labor and unionism
    d. hotel prestige and public relations
39. Home town size in classes
40. Father's years of formal schooling
41. Mother's years of formal schooling
42. Respondent's age
43. Respondent's number of children
44. Income in classes
45. Number of professional journals read
46. Number of professional association memberships
47. Number of professional association offices held
48. Number of offices in state, regional, or national trade associations (the hotel field)
49. Hours per week spent in business reading
50. Number of offices held in civic and fraternal organizations

II. Qualitative Variables

1. Hotel city
2. Hotel state
3. Kind of hotel ownership
4. Management's financial interest in hotel
5. Continuing education participation
6. Style of sponsor
7. Career profile of chain hotel work
8. Geographic regions of hotel work, other than Midwest
9. Geographic region of work prior to the present position
10. Range of hotel size work in total career
11. Career stability family
12. Type of college attended
13. Curriculum in college

Qualitative Variables Page 3

14. Extent of hotel short course participation
15. Extent of executive development program participation
16. Extent of general business short course participation
17. Hotel subject's comment, night school
18. Real estate courses, night school
19. General business courses, night school
20. Personal development subjects, night school
21. Aspiration on entering the job market
22. Aspiration on entering the hotel field
23. Type of on-the-job training
24. Occupational concept and definition
25. Specific career management emphasis
26. Future career expectation
27. Future career achievement methods
28. Evaluated expectation of the manager
29. Manager's marital status
30. Place of residence
31. Fringe benefits
32. Types of professional journals read
33. Religious affiliations
34. Religious membership
35. Professional association memberships
36. Types of business leadership
37. Educational aspirations for children
38. Civic and fraternal memberships
39. Preparation factors in hotel management
    a. an inquiring attitude
    b. personality development--integrity, character, and stability
    c. personality development--adaptable and attractive
    d. leadership and supervisory experience
    e. practical operating experience in the front office department
    f. practical operating experience in the food and beverage department
    g. sales and public relations experience
    h. managerial and accounting experience
    i. college training in hotel administration
    j. college preparation in general
    k. experience in a large hotel organization, preferably a chain
    l. attained financial backing
    m. good luck and timing
    n. experience in a small hotel
    o. ambition and hard work
    p. a profit motivated attitude and willingness to take chances

Qualitative Variables Page 4

40. Preparation factors, first mention
41. Preparation factors, second mention
42. Operating factors
    a. intelligence and creativity
    b. personality--integrity, character, and stability
    c. personality--adaptable and attractive
    d. leadership ability
    e. leadership and personnel manageability
    f. front office operations ability
    g. food and beverage operations ability
    h. sales and public relations ability
    i. business management ability
    j. college training in hotel administration
    k. college training in general
    l. proved performance and established reputation
    m. financial backing
    n. good luck and fortune
    o. experience in a small hotel
    p. driving ambition and ability to work long, hard hours
    q. strongly profit motivated and willingness to gamble
43. Operating factors, first mention
44. Operating factors, second mention
45. Factors considered critical to success, according to the following categorization:
    a. intelligence, creativity, or inquiring attitude
    b. personality--integrity, character, and stability
    c. personality--adaptable and attractive
    d. leadership and personnel management ability
    e. front office management ability
    f. food and beverage management ability
    g. sales on public relations ability
    h. business management ability
    i. college--hotel administration
    j. college--general
    k. contacts and influential pull
    l. financial backing
    m. good luck and fortune
    n. ambition and hard work
    o. strongly profit motivated and willingness to gamble
46. Success factors, first mention
47. Success factors, second mention

APPENDIX F

Measuring the Occupational Security of Hotel Managers

A career pattern may be viewed as containing three interrelated factors:

1. The amount of vertical mobility as measured by the upward or downward movement on the occupational scale irrespective of the working site.
2. The amount of horizontal mobility as measured by the changes of employment within the same occupational classification.
3. Ecological mobility which may best be viewed as physical occupational migration.

In this discussion, we will not be concerned with ecological mobility as a function of stability.

Miller and Form in their study "Measuring Patterns of Occupational Security" pursue the hypothesis (among others) that "job stability is associated with white collar workers..."[1]

Each job held was classified as falling into initial, trial, or stable work period:

> "1. Initial work period. The earliest work period we have called the initial work period. It consists of all part-time or full-time paid jobs that an individual holds up to the time that he completes his formal education...

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[1]Delbert C. Miller and William H. Form, "Measuring Patterns of Occupational Security," Sociometry, Vol. X, (New York: Beacon House, Inc., 1947), p. 363.

2. Trial work period. Usually after school is completed, the respective worker "shops around" for a job. Often he is not sure of the type of job he desires...he may have to go through a number of training jobs somewhat, as an apprentice, before he secures the work he wants. The jobs in this period usually last from a few days to three or four years...jobs were classified as trial when there was movement from an occupation or work plant within a three-year period.

3. Stable work period. Although the third period is called the stable period, it may occur and disappear a number of times in the life of the worker. It may occur late or early in the work history. Indeed, it may never occur for some workers. A stable job is any job on which the worker remains within a given work plant (for hotel managers, the given chain or corporation was considered as the same work plant) for three years or more. The assumption made here is that the worker has found a relatively permanent job and that he has 'settled down'...

   The subjective factor in classifying jobs is initial, trial or stable is small if the classification criteria are carefully followed. Two raters working independently found over 95 per cent agreement in classification. The greatest part of the disagreement lies in determining whether the job is initial or trial because in some instances it is difficult to be certain whether the worker has terminated his formal education."[2]

Miller and Form further contend that career patterns can be drawn and analyzed according to the sequence of the initial, trial, and stable periods of the job history.[3]

By reference to the accompanying chart (adapted from Miller and Form) all the careers in this study were categorized from career diagrams. It is the hypothesis of this sub-study that the careers of hotel managers can be

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[2] Ibid., p. 364-5.

[3] Ibid., p. 370.

reliably classified by independent raters using the following table as a guide to categorization.

TABLE VI

CAREER FAMILIES FOR ANALYSIS OF HOTEL MANAGEMENT CAREER PATTERNS

Career Family	Job Sequence Associated	Major Defining Characteristics
Stable	Stable Initial-Stable-Trial-Stable Stable-Trial-Stable Initial-Stable	Early entrance into stable job.
Conventional	Initial-Trial-Stable Initial-Trial-Stable-Trial-Stable Trial-Stable	The "normal" and "socially expected" job progression to a stable job.
Unstable	Trial-Stable-Trial Initial-Trial-Stable-Trial Trial-Multiple Stable-Multiple Trial-Multiple Stable	Return to a trial job after attaining stability through the conventional pattern. Multiple returns to trial jobs after early attainment of the "conventional" job family pattern.
Sustained Trial[5]	Trial-Trial-Trial-Stable	A sustained series of trial positions (10 years or more) prior to obtaining present stable position or series of stable positions.
Disestablished	Stable-Trial Initial-Stable-Trial	Return to a trial job(s) after quick attainment of stable job.
Multiple Trial	Trial-Trial-Trial	Consecutive trial jobs with no stable job as yet attained.

[4]Adapted from Miller and Form, Industrial Sociology (New York: Harper & Bros., 1951), p. 712.

[5]Since this study included no workers who fit the single trial category of Miller and Form, and since many workers

Two of the independent raters (the writer and William H. Form) classified the career patterns of the sixty hotel managers contained in this study according to the six categories shown on the chart. These independent ratings were compared as a measure of the reliability of the classification. There was absolute agreement in 63.3 per cent of cases and relative agreement (difference by one category) in 86.6 per cent of cases between the two raters. The rank-order correlation was +.59, indicating a relative lack of directionality in the disagreements. All disagreements were later rationalized and final ratings made.

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showed a career pattern of successive trial positions, this new category was formed for the purpose of this study. A series of trial jobs lasting ten years or more are considered a "sustained trial" career.

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