

The *local* union represents all union members in a specific workplace or all members of a craft union in a particular geographical area. It is the basic block in a union's structure. Unions may be local, national, or international organizations.

### Unionization

If employees in a company decide they want union representation, they sign a petition, which is then sent to the National Labor Relations Board in Washington, D.C. If the Board certifies that there is enough interest to form a union, it authorizes a secret ballot election to take place in the workplace after a 60-day waiting period.

Many workers think the waiting period is unfair because it gives employers a chance to engage in antiunion activities that undercut the organizing efforts and elections. Today labor unions are promoting legislation that would require the NLRB to certify the formation of a union (without a waiting period and election) when a majority of employees have signed authorization cards or petitions to form a union.

### Union Membership

As the nature of the U.S. economy has changed, union membership has changed, too. More people belonged to unions (as a percentage of the labor force) when industry powered the economy. In the past 50 years, however, union membership has dropped steadily as the economy has shifted from manufacturing to service industries. Many older members of traditional unions such as the United Automobile Workers and United Mine Workers of America have retired or lost their jobs to *downsizing*—laying off workers and reducing the workforce to cut costs.



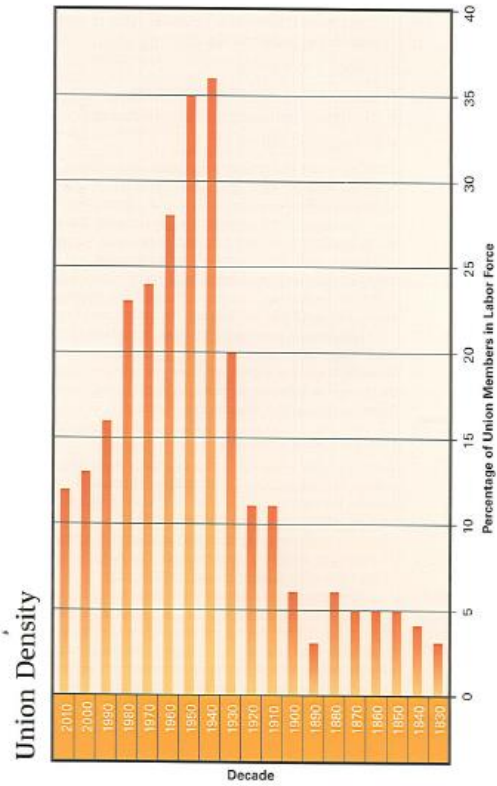


In 2003, only one in 10 private-sector employees belonged to a union compared with four in 10 public-sector workers. The occupational group with the highest unionization rate is protective service workers. This group includes police officers, sheriff's deputies, criminal investigators, correctional officers, jailers, detectives, security guards, bailiffs, and firefighters.

The following are some of the reasons union membership has increased or decreased at various times in history:

- Economic cycles of prosperity or depression
- High employment or unemployment rates
- Government intervention such as injunctions
- Pro-labor or anti-labor legislation
- Employers' hostility toward unions
- Strike victories or failures
- Cases of corruption and racketeering, which tainted the union image
- Successful outcomes in collective-bargaining sessions
- Public perception that unions are special-interest groups

In the 21st century, unions are trying to find ways to adapt to changes in the economy, political environment, workforce, and labor-management relationship and to revitalize the labor movement.



### Union Goals and Achievements

Historically, members of the organized labor movement have tried to secure four basic rights.

- To earn "a living wage"
- To work in safe and decent conditions
- To join an organization of their own choosing
- To bargain collectively

After 200 years of battling, bargaining, and striking, unions have achieved their principal goals and more. In 1913, the establishment of the Department of Labor as a cabinet-level department gave the workforce a voice in the government. Union activity led to legislation that set a national minimum wage, a 40-hour workweek, and annual cost-of-living increases and required safety devices and regulations in the workplace. Aggressive collective bargaining resulted in medical insurance plans, pensions, and extra pay for training, vacations, and overtime.

The unions' successes may also contribute to their problems. Many companies have tried to avoid paying the union workers' high wages and expensive benefits by using nonunion employees or offshore workers. In some cases, these practices have resulted in the reduction or elimination of jobs.

### Central Labor Councils

A *central labor council* is a city or county federation of local unions that are affiliated with various national or international unions. For example, local unions of sheet metal workers, electricians, plumbers and pipe fitters, operating engineers, communications workers, and office and professional employees may all belong to a central labor council. The AFL-CIO has chartered almost 600 central labor councils nationwide.

The principal mission of the central labor council is to mobilize local organizing efforts and political action and to show solidarity for the bargaining demands of specific unions. In addition, the central labor council also coordinates community efforts with local unions to provide training, information, and referral services for workers dealing with financial and personal crises.

You can find out about central labor councils and unions in your area by looking up "Labor Organizations" in your phone book's yellow pages.

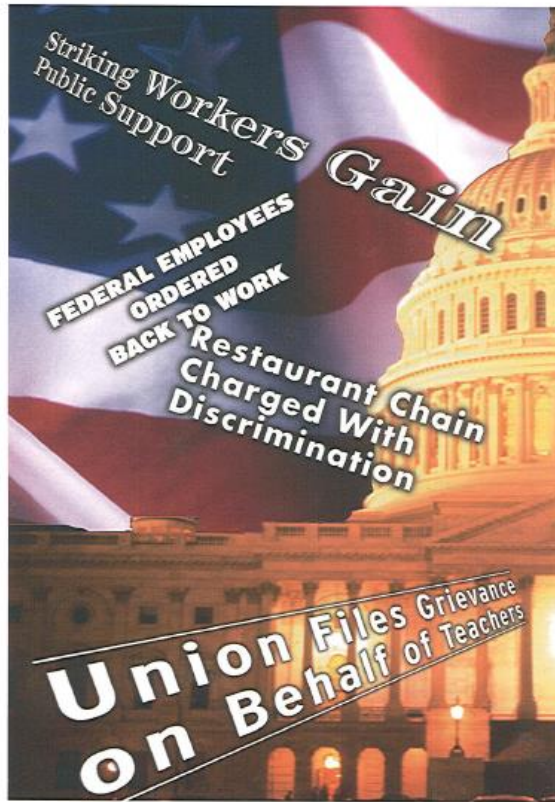
### Employee Organizations

The National Labor Relations Board defines a *labor organization* as "any organization in which employees participate and which exists for the purpose of dealing with employers concerning grievances, labor disputes, wages, rates of pay, hours of employment, or conditions of work." Labor unions existed before the NLRB was established, so those earlier unions helped shape the definition of a labor organization.

In recent decades, many companies have established employee-participation committees. Sometimes these groups are called by other names such as quality circles and employee-involvement teams. These committees meet regularly with management to discuss employee complaints, productivity, company policies, and other workplace issues. Supporters of these groups suggest that the two-way communication boosts employee morale and encourages the cooperative resolution of workplace problems.

Unions do not favor employee-participation committees because they reduce the need for labor organization. Several unions have challenged these groups by filing unfair labor practice charges with the NLRB, claiming that the employee-participation committees are actually illegal company unions. In certain cases where the NLRB believed that employees were dealing with employers about wages, grievances, and work conditions, the Board ruled that the employee-participation committees were illegal. In other cases, the Board decided that the employee groups were communicating about issues and ruled that they were legal.

Unions already in place probably will continue to challenge the legality of these groups. However, some labor leaders think unions should look at employee participation committees as opportunities to organize from within the company.



## Conflicting Views in the Workplace

Post-World War II prosperity launched the middle class. Millions of Americans earned higher-than-ever wages, received employee benefit packages that included health insurance and pension plans, and bought their first houses and filled them with new appliances and new furniture. All that shopping boosted the economy. Workers trusted their employers and their government. People who had survived the Great Depression and a world war promised to work at their jobs for the next 40 years in exchange for security . . . and a gold watch.

The next generation—the Baby Boomers, born in the years following World War II—expected to have a higher standard of living than their parents. But the economy has since slowed down, companies have laid off employees or cut their benefits, and workers have realized that their retirement is at risk. The children of the Baby Boomers do not have the same optimism about employment opportunities as their parents and grandparents did. For the first time in the history of the American labor movement, young workers do not assume they will have a higher standard of living than their parents.

Every group that has a stake in the economy has different responsibilities and expectations. Often they conflict. When each group understands what others want, it is easier to make and appreciate difficult decisions.

### What Workers Want

Most workers, whether or not they belong to a union, share the same concerns and expect the same rights. Employees want a voice in the workplace. Many—even nonunion—wish to speak with a collective voice about broad issues such as job security, wages, hours, fringe benefits, workplace conditions

"Machines don't take sick days or go on strike."  
—comment from management in response to the complaint that automation and technologies displace workers

and safety, and a system for resolving problems. When issues relate to personal concerns such as performance appraisals and salaries, training, sexual harassment, discrimination, and unfair treatment, many prefer to speak as individuals.

Employees expect a fair hearing. They want management to listen to the workers with an open mind and to consider that their claims are valid. They also want straight talk. If the company is for sale, employees expect management to share information about terms and conditions so the workers can make appropriate plans about their own employment. If the company plans to outsource jobs, employees want to know if the employer plans to transfer or lay them off. Workers want assurances that they will not be displaced by machinery and technology or replaced by guest workers.

Workers try to strike a balance between keeping their jobs and protecting fringe benefits. These benefits may include

- Seniority (priority status based on length of time the employee has worked for the company)
- Unemployment and disability insurance
- Health care
- Child care and elder care
- Profit sharing and employee stock-option plans
- Retirement plans (pensions, 401(k)s)
- Workers' compensation (accidental injury, death, or dismemberment insurance)

American workers want democracy in the workplace. However, today's corporate executives may earn many times more than the workers in the same company. Top management often receives bonuses even as workers are laid off. Companies announce record profits after cutting jobs or negotiating employee wage reductions. What workers really want is mutual trust and respect, job security, and a fair share of the profits.

#### Employee Representatives

When Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, was asked what the labor movement wanted, he said, "More." Representatives for employees—union leaders and negotiators, employee associations, labor lobbyists—have always tried to get more for the workers. "More" ranges from

tangible benefits such as wage increases, paid vacations, and matching contributions in retirement funds to intangible government protections in the form of pro-labor legislation, trade restraints, and welfare programs such as Social Security.

Sometimes, however, the representatives have to bargain for less. When a company threatens bankruptcy, workers often have to give back benefits or accept a cut in pay in order to keep their jobs.

#### What Owners and Management Want

In small companies, the owner is management. In large corporations, the owner is usually a group of investors who have created a legal and financial partnership, joint venture, or syndicate. (For more information, see the *American Business* merit badge pamphlet.) Owners of large companies hire business managers to help them generate a profit.

Unless the top manager or executive is the owner, then everyone in management is a worker with a boss. Management often consists of several levels of administrators.

- Top management includes the chief executive officer and chief financial officer. They determine the goals, objectives, and policies for the company and report directly to the owner.
- Upper management includes top executives who head corporate divisions.
- Middle management executives head departments.
- Lower management directly supervises workers.

Managers at each level have a responsibility to generate profits. Their own job security depends on it. So almost every decision a manager makes—allocating resources, investing in expensive technology, reducing company contributions to employee retirement plans—involves the *bottom line*.

With owners demanding higher profits and employees and labor unions insisting on wage increases and better benefits, management has to make difficult choices. What managers want is the right to manage. Because they have to balance so many special interests with critical financial implications, management expects to have the final authority in the workplace.

**Owners**

The foremost concern of a company owner (an individual or a group of investors) is to make a profit. How that is accomplished—by gaining a competitive advantage, increasing market share, catering to the customer, improving productivity, or boosting employee morale—is management’s concern.

Investment groups own other businesses, too. They make decisions about whether to continue to invest in the companies based on the profitability of those businesses. Just as management may shut down a division in a company to cut costs and improve profitability, the owner may sell an unprofitable company to protect overall profits.

**Shareholders**

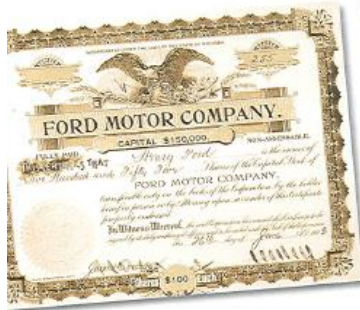
Financial institutions, investment groups, and individuals often buy shares of stock in a company. Each share represents a piece of the company, a percentage of ownership. Some companies offer

an employee stock-option plan that allows employees to acquire shares of company stock and receive stock distributions at retirement.

Shareholders want a return on their investment in the company. Most look for a short-term profit, which pressures company management to take short-term action at the expense of long-term goals. Since employee shareholders receive stock distributions at retirement, they are interested in the long-term return on investment.

**What Others Want**

What happens inside a company affects different groups outside the company. Decisions to outsource, raise or lower wages, relocate, or sponsor local community programs influence perceptions and support for the company.



**Customers**

Customers want to buy quality products and services at the best price. Since customers play a critical role in the success of a business, a company must figure out how to meet consumer needs and still make a profit.

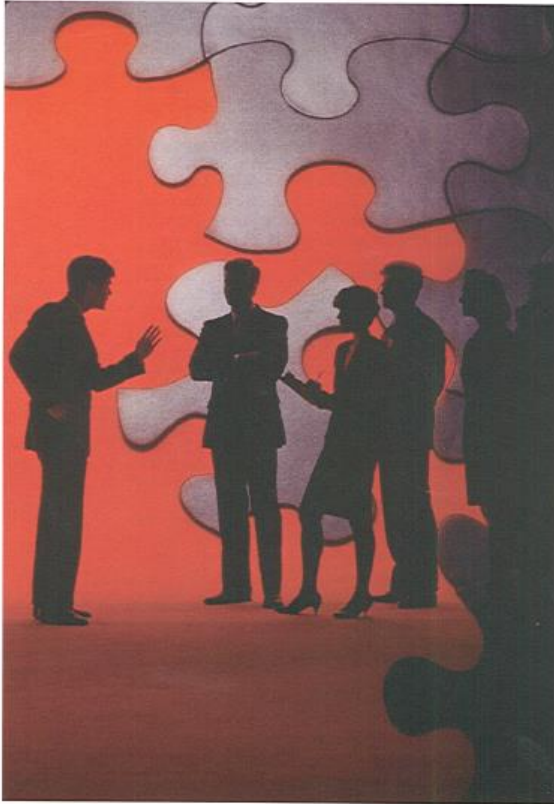
**Community**

If unemployment is high in a community, citizens want a company to hire local workers. In addition, a community wants a business to fill a niche—to offer a product or service not offered by others—or to offer a better product at a better price than competitors. The community also wants a company to be a good corporate citizen, for example, by sponsoring the arts (such as theater and music groups) or supporting community programs.

**Public Officials**

The mayor and other public officials want to convince companies that the community is a great place to locate a business because the city benefits from additional tax revenues. If a company is successful, hires local workers, and has a good reputation for the way it handles labor-management relations, then officials can use it as an example to lure other businesses to the community. However, if the company generates negative publicity (from lawsuits, strikes, environmental violations, or workplace injuries), then public officials perceive the company as a problem for the community.

As you can see, these groups have different goals, yet they are linked together. Each time a company addresses an issue in one group, it upsets the balance with other groups. People spend a lot of time at work defending their point of view and insisting on getting what they want. While they are arguing, picketing, or negotiating, they are not making a product, not serving customers or citizens, and not making a profit. When different groups realize that what they have in common (the success of the company) is most important, then they must compromise in areas that are driven by self-interest and make an agreement that best serves everyone.



## Labor-Management Relations

Suppose that you and two friends started a lawn-care business. Your parent has loaned you all the equipment. All you have to do is maintain it, fuel it, and return it at the end of the summer. You and your friends have agreed to split the profits after paying expenses, and everyone has a plan to spend his share. But today one of your friends broke the edger. Now what?

Did you notice how fast a simple plan becomes complicated? Situations like that happen every day in businesses. Conflicts of interest, if not negotiated, can easily escalate to anger. No wonder workplace relationships get strained.

### Laws and Practices That Govern Labor-Management Relations

Labor and management always have had a polarized relationship. The individual employee, working at the whim and mercy of the boss, often feared management. When workers organized, they quickly realized they had some control over their wages and working conditions.

In time, unions took a more aggressive stance with management. Soon, both sides developed an adversarial relationship based on positions, power, and threats. They defined the outcome of collective bargaining as a win for one party, a loss for the other.

Nonunion employees borrowed some of the unions' negotiating techniques but toned them down into a cooperative-bargaining style based on mutual interests. Negotiations—involving individuals or employee groups and management—call for compromises on both sides and a win-win result.



### Dispute Resolution Continuum

Cooperative Bargaining Style		Adversarial Model of Collective Bargaining	
Conciliation	Mediation	Negotiation	Binding Arbitration
Mutual Interests		Rights	Power
Win-Win			Win-Lose

The political environment influences labor-management disputes. The president (with the consent of the Senate) appoints members to the National Labor Relations Board, which decides cases involving *unfair labor practices* by employers or unions. The appointees generally reflect the pro-labor or antilabor views of the incumbent (current) government officials.

### Unfair Labor Practices

The National Labor Relations Act and the Taft-Hartley Act define and prohibit unfair labor practices as practices of discrimination, coercion, and intimidation by management or unions. Employers may not

- Set up company unions.
- Use coercive tactics to discourage union organization.
- Refuse to bargain collectively with unions representing a company's employees.

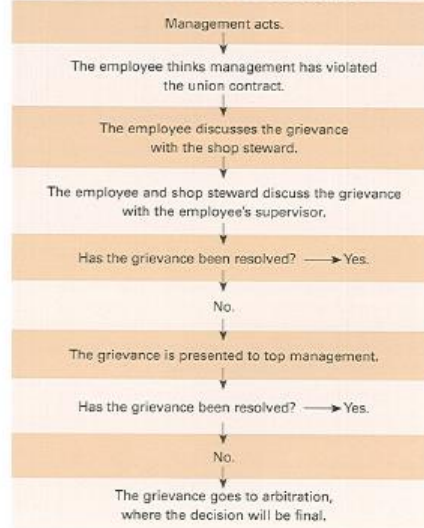
Unions may not

- Force workers to join organizations *not* of their own choosing.
- Coerce an employee in the selection of a bargaining representative.
- Refuse to bargain in good faith with management.

### Collective Bargaining

The negotiation process known as collective bargaining occurs between union and company representatives to discuss wages, hours, working conditions, fringe benefits, and union security. The goal of collective bargaining is to make a contract—a *collective bargaining agreement*. The contract must meet union needs (and those of nonunion employees covered in the bargaining unit) and employer needs. It also must include specific grievance procedures to resolve labor disputes.

### Union Grievance Procedure



When a contract is about to expire, the union and the company must announce a notice of intent to enter into a collective-bargaining agreement. If the two sides reach an impasse, or fail to agree, then they may call in a neutral third party to mediate a settlement. If the old contract expires before a new one is negotiated and signed, the union may call a strike or the company may call a lockout to pressure the other side to accept terms.

The law forbids certain public-sector employees from going on strike. Some groups use sick-outs as a form of protest. Firefighters get the “red rash,” police catch “blue flu,” and teachers suffer from “chalk-dust fever.”

A *strike*—the complete cessation of work by employees—is a work stoppage. A *lockout*, in which an employer closes the company and prevents employees from working, is management’s version of a strike. Since locked-out workers became eligible for unemployment compensation, the tactic has become less effective than in the past.

### Strikes of All Stripes

**general strike.** A widespread strike of all workers in a geographic area, causing economic paralysis. If successful, the general strike results in a major change in power relations between labor and management.

**jurisdictional strike.** A work stoppage that results from a dispute between rival unions about which one has the right to represent particular employees. It occurs when rival unions call workers off their jobs to show their strength and support.

**organizational strike.** An action called to force the employer to recognize the employees’ union as their collective-bargaining agent.

**sit-down strike.** The refusal of striking workers to leave their place of employment in order to prevent other workers from replacing them.

**sympathy strike.** A walkout by employees—who have no direct grievance against management—in support of workers from another union.

**wildcat strike.** A work stoppage that occurs when workers leave their jobs (often spontaneously) without the authorization of their union leaders.

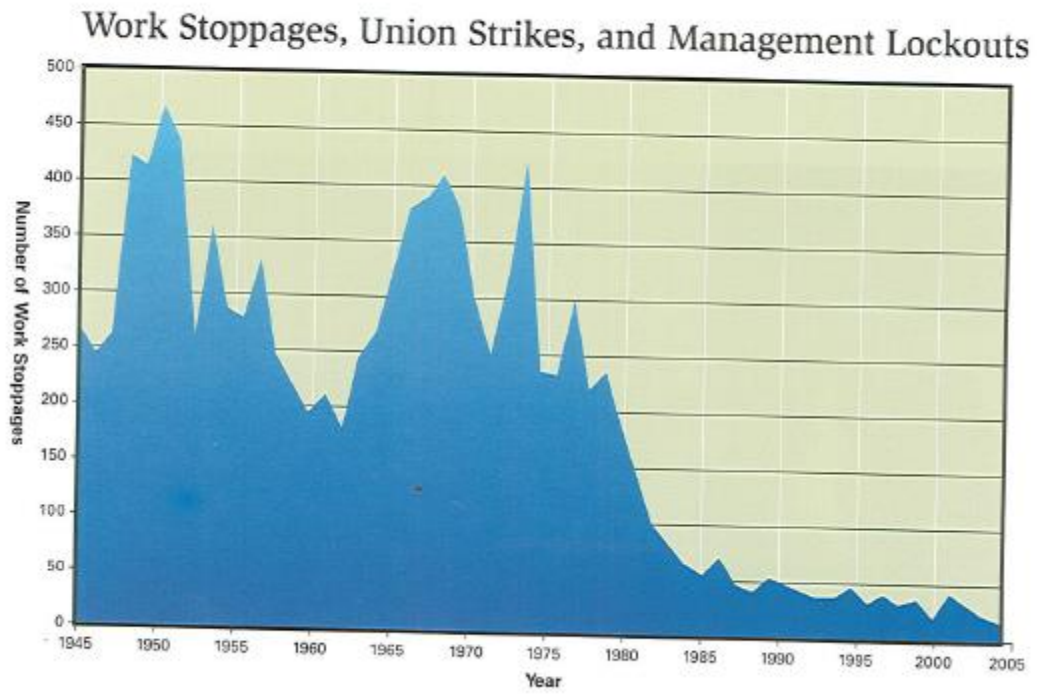
Collective bargaining loses its teeth when strikes are prohibited. In those situations, employees use other tactics such as *slowdowns*—deliberate reductions in productivity—and mass absenteeism to pressure employers to meet their demands.



Mediation and arbitration of grievances offer cost-effective alternatives to expensive litigation via judicial courts. Both approaches involve using impartial third parties who are committed to confidentiality. *Mediation* is an informal, voluntary negotiation process for resolving disputes. The mediator helps the parties communicate, understand the issues, and reach an agreement but has no decision-making authority. If the parties cannot agree, the dispute goes to *arbitration*, a formal process in which facts and issues are presented to a neutral arbitrator who makes a legally binding decision.

Often, when labor and management have difficulty negotiating an agreement, a mediator will give an opinion about what the final decision might be if the dispute goes to arbitration. That prediction creates an incentive for the parties to reach a settlement before an arbitrator rules against one or the other.

Work stoppages have been less frequent in the past several decades owing to pro-management arbitration decisions, employers’ right to hire replacement strikers, and laws forbidding certain public employees to strike.



### Personnel Policies and Procedures

Many nonunion businesses have informal open-door policies to address labor complaints. Workers are encouraged to discuss their concerns with management without fear of any retaliatory actions. Formal internal grievance procedures establish specific steps an employee must take to challenge certain aspects of employment.

Nonunion employees also use mediation and arbitration, as well as *peer review*, which utilizes a panel of the employee's peers to evaluate the dispute and render a decision (which may or may not be binding).

### Labor Laws

The rights and responsibilities for labor and management are determined by union contracts and labor legislation.

### Hard Hats and Thinking Caps—Two Sides of a Labor Issue

You know by now that the goals of labor and the goals of management often conflict. On any day you can spot newspaper headlines announcing a problem between a union and an employer, a new outsourcing deal, a complaint about the lack of cultural diversity in top management, a discrimination lawsuit, a plant closing, or a threat to slash wages or reduce health insurance benefits. When you start work on requirement 7, pick a current labor issue of widespread interest and then try to understand what caused the problem and what its effect is on labor and on management.

As you prepare to argue the issue (in person or on paper) from different points of view, imagine yourself as the mediator in the labor-management issue you chose. Do not assume one side or the other is right. Be objective and impartial so you can see the facts beneath the issues. Remember: Management's goal is to make a profit. Labor's goal is to make a living wage. Your goal is to defend each party's position within the limits of rights and responsibilities.

### Where Now?

Three centuries. Three economic revolutions. It is not business as usual, and it certainly is not labor as usual. The workforce

is aging, yet living longer than earlier generations. Baby Boomers are either not willing to retire in their 60s or not financially prepared to retire. Older workers are holding on to positions that younger workers expected to fill.

Globalization has changed the way Americans conduct business *and* the way people work. Outsourcing has moved both blue-collar and white-collar jobs out of the United States. Opportunities in fields such as computer science are no longer plentiful, although experts predict that there will be plenty of face-to-face positions that cannot be moved overseas. Millions of positions for unskilled and semiskilled workers in food service and retail sales occupations will be available, yet many unemployed skilled workers will compete for those low-paying jobs. The American labor movement faces a lot of knotty problems and challenges, but it is not at the end of its rope.

## Labor Laws

**Anti-Trust Act of 1914 (Clayton Act).** This pro-labor law states that union activities are not illegal and limits the courts' jurisdiction to issue injunctions against labor organizations.

**Railway Labor Act of 1926.** This pro-labor act protects the collective-bargaining rights of interstate railway employees (amended in 1934 to include airlines). This law established the National Railroad Adjustment Board to arbitrate grievances that arise from labor-management contracts.

**Davis-Bacon Act of 1931.** A pro-labor law that requires contractors on federal government construction projects to pay the prevailing rates and fringe benefits.

**Norris-LaGuardia Act of 1932.** This pro-labor act outlawed the *yellow-dog contract*—a statement workers sometimes were forced to sign in which they promised that they would *not* join a union. In addition, this law limits the power of federal courts to issue injunctions against union activity in labor disputes.

**National Labor Relations Act of 1935 (Wagner Act).** A pro-labor law that applies to all companies and employees in activities affecting interstate commerce except for agricultural laborers, government employees, and people covered by the Railway Labor Act. It established

a National Labor Relations Board to safeguard workers' rights to organize unions and bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing.

**Anti-Strikebreaker Act of 1936 (Byrnes Act).** This pro-labor law, which was amended in 1938, prohibits employers from transporting people across state lines to break strikes or threaten organizing or bargaining efforts.

**Walsh-Healy Public Contracts Act of 1936.** A pro-labor act that established basic labor standards for work performed on U.S. government contracts, including minimum wages, overtime compensation, prohibitions against hiring convicts and children under 18, and requirements related to health and safety.

**Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 (Wages and Hours Act).** This pro-labor law, amended in 1949, 1955, 1961, 1963, 1966, and 1996, established minimum hourly wages and overtime payments for all workers in covered businesses involving interstate commerce. This law requires that men and women performing equal work be paid equal wages and regulates the employment of children under age 18.

**Labor-Management Relations Act of 1947 (Taft-Hartley Act).** An antilabor law that allows states to enact right-to-work laws. It places certain restraints on union activities and permits the issuing of injunctions to halt for 80 days strikes that threaten national security.

**Labor-Management Reporting and Disclosure Act of 1959 (Landrum-Griffin Act).** This law, prompted by investigations into racketeering charges and intended to protect union members from corrupt leaders, includes regulations for union election procedures and government supervision of unions' financial affairs.

**Civil Rights Act of 1964.** This law prohibits unions, employers, and employment agencies from discriminating against workers or clients based on race, color, sex, religion, or national origin. This law established the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission to handle complaints about violations of this act. Its provisions were extended to public-sector employers in 1972.

**Occupational Safety Health Act of 1970.** This pro-labor law authorizes the secretary of labor to establish and enforce health and safety standards in workplaces.

## Career Opportunities in Labor Relations

The field of labor relations includes all the interactions between a company's management and organized labor or nonunion employees. Careers range from recruiters to employee benefits specialists to administrative law judges.

### Human Resources

This area concerns all aspects involving the employees of a company, including hiring, paying, training, and discharging personnel as well as helping to develop policies.

A *human resources generalist* handles the full range of responsibilities relating to personnel. In a large corporation, a *director of human resources* develops and coordinates personnel policies and procedures and oversees the following departments, which are headed by experienced managers:

**Employment.** An *employment and placement manager* handles the hiring and separation (leaving the company) of employees and supervises the people in the following positions.

- A *recruiter* often travels to find and interview promising job candidates. The recruiter must understand the company and its policies, as well as employment laws, in order to discuss wages, working conditions, and opportunities.
- An *equal employment opportunity officer*, *representative*, or *affirmative action coordinator* works in a large corporation, handles discrimination grievances, and makes sure that company practices are not in violation of the law.

**Compensation.** A *compensation manager* sets up and maintains the company's pay system and compares the pay rates to other companies to ensure that the pay scale complies with legal regulations. The manager makes compensation decisions based on information from people in the following positions:

- A *job analysis specialist* collects and studies information about job duties to classify positions and develop job descriptions.
- An *occupational analyst* studies the effects of industry and occupational trends on worker relationships and often acts as a technical link between the company and other organizations.

**Benefits.** An *employee benefits manager* handles the company's benefits program, which includes insurance (health, disability, life, accidental death and dismemberment) and pension plans (savings, profit sharing, stock ownership). A benefits manager (and benefits specialist) must know the current laws and regulations that affect employee benefits. An *employee assistance plan manager*, or *employee welfare manager*, is responsible for programs that help employees balance their work and personal lives such as those relating to child care, elder care, transportation and carpooling, physical fitness, and counseling.

**Training and Development.** A *training and development manager* is responsible for programs to develop employees' skills, improve productivity and quality of work, and boost morale. A *training specialist* plans and directs activities that include on-the-job training for new employees, new skills training in response to technological changes, and executive development programs.

### Industrial Relations

A *director of industrial relations* makes labor policy and collaborates with the director of human resources and other managers about personnel policies that affect unionized employees. The director negotiates collective-bargaining agreements and coordinates grievance procedures. A *labor-relations manager* is responsible for implementing industrial labor-relations programs, overseeing the preparation of information for negotiating collective-bargaining agreements, and administering union contracts. The position requires extensive knowledge about labor law and collective-bargaining trends.

### Dispute Resolution

This negotiation process for settling disputes is an alternative to litigation. Resolutions at this level save much time and money, so third-party individuals should be knowledgeable and experienced in the areas of labor law and industrial relations.

- A *conciliator* assumes the responsibility for keeping disputing parties in negotiations until they reach a voluntary settlement. As a third party, the conciliator tries to establish communication between disputants and build the trust necessary for a cooperative solution.
- A *mediator* is an impartial third party who is appointed to help resolve a labor-management dispute. The mediator advises, but has no decision-making authority. An *arbitrator* is an impartial individual who conducts a formal hearing about a labor-management dispute and renders a decision that may or may not be binding on both sides.
- An *administrative law judge* decides cases that cannot be resolved through mediation or arbitration or are so complex and critical that they go directly to court.

### Qualifications, Education, and Training

Entry-level careers in human resources and industrial labor relations generally require a college education with majors in human resources, personnel administration, or industrial and labor relations. A combination of interdisciplinary courses in the social sciences, business, and behavioral sciences plus courses in computers and information systems provide a strong base of knowledge. Candidates with experience from internships or work-study programs have an edge over applicants with no work experience.

For certain specialties such as employment benefits, industrial relations, and dispute resolution, a background in law is necessary. Many labor-relations positions require graduate study. Management positions demand advanced degrees in human resources, labor relations, or business administration.

Human resources workers and labor-relations specialists need good people skills to interact effectively with a culturally diverse workforce. Like dispute-resolution specialists, they should demonstrate the qualities of fair-mindedness, discretion, and compassion as well as the abilities to analyze problems,



interpret statistics, function under pressure, and manage conflicting points of view.

A federal administrative law judge must have experience as a lawyer and pass a competitive examination administered by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management. The judge is appointed (for life) to the bench by one of several federal agencies and then receives judicial training from an organization such as the American Bar Association.

Many conciliators, mediators, and arbitrators have law degrees with a specialization in conflict management. Those affiliated with mediation organizations must complete a training course and an apprenticeship and agree to uphold certain ethical standards.

If you are interested in pursuing one of these careers, consider a summer internship in a personnel or human resources department. You will get on-the-job training in basic administrative duties and gain an appreciation for the field of labor relations.

## Labor-Related Resources

### Scouting Literature

*American Business, Citizenship in the Nation, Citizenship in the World, Communications, Entrepreneurship, Law, Public Speaking, and Salesmanship* merit badge pamphlets

For more information about or to order Scouting-related resources, see <http://www.scoutstuff.org> (with your parent's permission).

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- Organizations and Web Sites**
- American Arbitration Association**  
335 Madison Ave., Floor 10  
New York, NY 10017-4605  
Telephone: 212-716-5800  
Web site: <http://www.adr.org>
- American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations**  
815 16th St. NW  
Washington, DC 20006  
Telephone: 202-637-5000  
Web site: <http://www.aflcto.org>

### Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service

2100 K St. NW  
Washington, DC 20427  
Telephone: 202-606-8100  
Web site: <http://www.fmcs.gov>

### LabourStart

Web site: <http://www.laborstart.org/usa>

### National Labor Relations Board

1099 14th St. NW  
Washington, DC 20570-0001  
Toll-free telephone: 866-667-6572  
Web site: <http://www.nlrb.gov>

### Occupational Safety and Health Administration

200 Constitution Ave.  
Washington, DC 20210  
Toll-free telephone: 800-321-6742  
Web site: <http://www.osha.gov>

### U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics

Postal Square Building  
2 Massachusetts Ave. NE  
Washington, DC 20212-0001  
Telephone: 202-691-5200  
Web site: <http://www.bls.gov>

### U.S. Department of Labor

Frances Perkins Building  
200 Constitution Ave. NW  
Washington, DC 20210  
Toll-free telephone: 866-487-2365  
Web site: <http://www.dol.gov>



## Acknowledgments

The Boy Scouts of America thanks Dr. George Green, professor of history at the University of Texas at Arlington, for his guidance about the significant events in the history of the American labor movement, and the Tarrant County Central Labor Council for its openness and support.

We appreciate the Quicklist Consulting Committee of the Association for Library Service to Children, a division of the American Library Association, for its assistance with updating the resources section of this merit badge pamphlet.

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