IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF HOTEL BANQUET STAFF PERFORMANCE: A CASE STUDY IN ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR MANAGEMENT

THESIS

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The banquet staff at a north Texas hotel were responsible for setting up 11 different functions (e.g., buffet dinners) for conferences and meetings. The functions were often set up late and items were often omitted. An analysis suggested that performance problems were the result of weak antecedents, inefficient work procedures, inadequate training and a lack of motivating consequences. An intervention consisting of task checklists, feedback, goal setting, monetary bonuses, training and job aids was designed to enhance the accuracy and timeliness of function setups. Performance increased from an average of 68.8% on the quality measure (accuracy plus timeliness) in baseline, to 99.7% during the intervention phase. Performance decreased to 82.3% during a follow-up phase in which parts of the intervention were discontinued by hotel management. Performance increased to 99.3% with the reintroduction of the intervention phase.

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INTRODUCTION

To stay competitive as a society, we must learn to manage human performance effectively. Gilbert (1978) has estimated that the performance improvement potential of the average plant or store management is greater than 300 percent. Consequently, the organization that is able to isolate effective management processes and procedures and implement them efficiently will have the competitive advantage over those organizations which cannot.

In the hotel and restaurant sector, for example, the first and most important task is to ensure absolute guest satisfaction (Kirwin, 1992). Today's customer is increasingly sophisticated, with more education, leisure time and discretionary income (Kirwin, 1991). Efficient and high quality service is demanded. Those organizations which fail to provide this level of service will find themselves at a competitive disadvantage. Therefore, hotel managers must develop creative strategies to insure that their customers become loyal and satisfied repeat guests. The most important strategy is to ensure that staff can provide the desired level of service to the customer.

The banquet manager at a hotel in Denton reported to me that his staff were providing service which failed to meet hotel standards. The hotel has eight floors, an 18-hole golf course, a restaurant and a bar. The banquet department caters to business and social meetings, weddings, holiday events (e.g., Thanksgiving), plays, etc. On February 3, 1993, the banquet manager mentioned several concerns he had about both the effectiveness and efficiency of the banquet staff. First, he stated that department

functions were being completed well below hotel standards. Second, he noted the absence of any reporting lines. The banquet staff frequently bypassed the captains and went directly to the banquet manager whenever a problem arose (i.e., what to do, how to do it, and where supplies were located). Finally, he stated that while hotel customers rated the banquet service and room setup quality "good" (i.e., in the 80% range on a customer satisfaction rating scale), he was hoping for "excellent" ratings (i.e., in the 90% range). During the three months prior to the study, customer satisfaction ratings averaged 86.7% for banquet service and 87% for banquet setup quality (see Figure 3).

On February 5, 1993, the banquet manager asked me to begin a 2 week diagnostic project of the banquet department. The purpose of the 2 week diagnostic project would be to: (1) gather data to assess any problems that the banquet staff were experiencing, (2) summarize my observations and hypothesize about their apparent causes, (3) include a proposal that explained how I planned to verify my hypotheses, and (4) design an intervention to resolve the departments problems.

Gilbert's (1978) behavioral engineering model was used as the basis for the analysis of staff performance. Gilbert's model is an elaboration of the familiar Antecedent - Behavior - Consequence model widely used by behavior analysts to examine performance contingencies. The model is divided into six cells. In the first cell, the antecedent conditions in the work environment are examined. Are there prompts, standards, feedback and/or direction provided? Do the staff know what to do and when to do it? What type of feedback, if any, does management provide? In the

second cell, the equipment and procedures in the setting are examined. Are the job procedures efficient and do they assure quality? Is there accessibility to the resources and the tools used in the setting? In the third cell, motivating contingencies are analyzed. What are the contingencies for performance (e.g., pay, promotion, reprimand)? In the fourth cell, the repertoires of the individual workers are analyzed. Do they have the proper job skills? Is training adequate and does it match the demands of the job? In the fifth cell, Gilbert examines the prerequisite physical and verbal skills of the individual worker for deficits (e.g., illiteracy) and also asks if there are any competing activities interfering with the job. The last cell analyzes whether or not the programmed consequences function as reinforcers for job performance?

I began by looking at the information and direction provided to the staff. The banquet staff had no performance feedback or prompts. When setting up functions, items were often omitted and setup accuracy was low. Positive feedback was rarely delivered. Work procedures and tools were also examined. Most workers had difficulty locating needed items which delayed function set-ups. There were no procedures detailing how functions should be completed. Items would either be omitted, or in some cases, several staff would be assigned to the same task.

There were also few contingencies that could promote good performance. A bi-weekly paycheck was delivered to each staff member; however little other reinforcement was provided. Although the bi-weekly paycheck did function to maintain a minimum level of performance, there was no contingency between the quality of worker performance and salary or bonuses. On the other hand, verbal

reprimands were delivered quite frequently.

The hotel had no formal training program for the banquet staff. Each new staff member simply followed other more experienced staff around. Thus, it was plausible that some of the performance problems were due to lack of training. There appeared to be no deficiency in the capacity of the staff to complete their jobs. All of the staff possessed the prerequisite physical and verbal skills.

It appeared that deficits in antecedents (e.g., training, information/direction), tools, and consequences (incentives) needed correcting. Several strategies were available to improve performance. One strategy for correcting the deficit of information and direction would be to establish a task checklist system. Task checklists involve changing the antecedents for task completion by specifying the task components or task sequence. Gilbert (1978) suggested that a checklist system is a viable and cost-effective strategy for improving staff performance. The effects of self-monitoring (e.g., via task checklists) have been examined with performance issues such as punctuality and time on task (Lamal & Benfield, 1978), customer assistance (Komaki, Waddell & Pearce, 1977) and cleaning behaviors of hotel employees (Anderson, Crowell, Sponsel, Clarke & Brence, 1982).

Bacon, Fulton and Malott (1983) suggested that task definition, recording responses on checklists, and supervisor review are the three components of a checklist system that are important. The establishment of a checklist system does not necessarily insure performance improvements. It does not even insure that workers will use the checklists. It seems likely, however, that the probability that workers will

utilize task checklists increases if the checklists help to facilitate the completion of the task by clarifying criteria and improving task discrimination. By requiring employees to provide specific information about completed tasks (e.g., employee signatures, completion times) on a task checklist, they may be more likely to complete the job and less likely to provide false information. Furthermore, the probability that workers will utilize a task checklist would seem to be more likely with the addition of supervisor review.

Bacon et al. (1983) examined the effects of task checklists on the performance of staff in a large instructional system. Staff performance was divided into four categories: record keeping, grading, lesson completion, and system maintenance. The percentage of tasks completed ranged from 45% to 60% during baseline and increased an average of 28.8% during the intervention.

Anderson, Crowell, Hantula and Siroky (1988) studied the effects of behavioral checklists and individual performance posting procedures on low-probability cleaning behaviors in a university bar. Behavioral checklists were devised for 11 different work areas of the bar. Some examples of items included in the checklists were: empty trash can, clean beer drain and wipe off all games. Checklists improved performance by 13% over baseline levels.

Another method of ameliorating the deficit in information and direction would be to provide relevant and frequent feedback to the staff. Performance feedback has been defined as information provided to individuals about the quantity or quality of their past performance (Prue & Fairbank, 1981). As many authors have indicated, feedback

is not a concept that specifies a particular behavioral function (Duncan & Bruwelheide, 1986). One does not explain the behavioral functions of the information provided by simply stating that feedback was delivered. Information about an individual's past performance might act as an establishing operation, reinforcer, punisher, discriminative stimulus, conditional stimulus, or play some role in the establishment of rule-governed behavior (Wittkopp, Rowan & Poling, 1990).

Performance feedback is a well-documented procedure that has produced performance improvement in such areas as the completion of production tasks (Emmert, 1978), work-related activities in institutional settings (Brown, Willis & Reid, 1981), safety (Sulzer-Azaroff & De Santamaria, 1980) and reducing machine setup time (Wittkopp, Rowan & Poling, 1990). Literature reviews (Balcazar, Hopkins & Suarez, 1986; Prue & Fairbank, 1981) have suggested that performance feedback is the most commonly used strategy for modifying employee behavior.

Brown, Malott, Dillon and Keeps (1980) investigated the effects of feedback plus training on customer service (i.e., appropriately approaching and greeting customers, being courteous, and properly closing sales) in a department store setting. Employees were trained in the following areas: the company's courtesy standards, how customer service relates to their performance appraisal, listening skills, and handling customer complaints. Graphed performance feedback was also delivered to the employees before and after each session. The rates at which employees performed customer service behaviors rose from 49.7% during baseline to 59.3% during the training phase. However, the rates increased to 84.7% when performance feedback was introduced.

According to Prue and Fairbank (1981), performance feedback can vary along several dimensions, including: the type of mechanism used to transmit the performance data (e.g., public posting of performance information), the content of the feedback (e.g., the comparison of an individual's performance against a standard), the recipients of the feedback (e.g., several employees), the source of feedback (e.g., supervisor), and the frequency of the feedback delivery (e.g., daily). Of these various forms of written performance feedback, public posting appears to be the most popular (Prue & Fairbank, 1981). Several characteristics, such as simplicity and flexibility of implementation, low economic cost, an emphasis on positive consequences, rapidity of effects, and the capacity to be combined with other interventions, make feedback an attractive strategy for improving performance (Fairbank & Prue, 1982).

Another method of correcting the deficit of information and direction is to establish goal setting. Goal setting is an intervention frequently combined with performance feedback. Goal setting has been found to be an effective strategy for improving occupational performance in areas ranging from absenteeism to production rates (see Latham & Yukl, 1975, for a review). In reviewing the literature, Locke, Feren, McCaleb, Shaw and Denny (1980) found that goal setting produced a median increase in performance of 16% across a wide variety of job tasks, with performance improvements ranging from 3% to 58%.

Research that has compared goal setting combined with feedback to goal setting alone has demonstrated that the combined intervention generally has been more effective (e.g., Ivancevich, 1982; Kim & Hammer, 1976; for a review see Balcazar et

al., 1986). Calpin, Edelstein, and Redmon (1988) compared the effects of a feedback condition to a combined feedback and goal-setting condition on staff performance in a mental health treatment setting. The dependent variable was defined as the number of work hours spent in direct client contact. A feedback system (self-monitoring) was established before goal setting was introduced. The goals were assigned by researchers and categorized as difficult. Performance increased across employees ranging from 19.8% to 59.8%.

Several studies have examined the effects of public posting of feedback and goal setting on worker performance (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1984; Stoerzinger, Johnston, Pisor & Monroe, 1978). McCuddy and Griggs (1984) assessed the effects of goal setting and public posting of feedback on the number of errors and missed project completion dates for three engineers in a truck manufacturing plant. Goal setting produced some positive performance improvements but improvements increased dramatically after performance feedback was introduced. The mean number of errors decreased from 5 to 2 during the intervention, while the mean number of missed completion dates decreased from 2.3 to 0.2 after goal setting and feedback were introduced.

The public posting of feedback has also been combined with both goal setting and reinforcement (e.g., Kent, Malott & Greening, 1977, McCarthy, 1978). Silva, Duncan and Doudna (1981) examined the effects of posted feedback, goal setting and social reinforcement on employee absenteeism in an insurance firm. Employee names, attendance records along with the attendance goal for the month were graphed.

Managers were trained to deliver contingent praise. Absenteeism decreased from 4.8 to 2.4% after the posted feedback chart was introduced, but later combinations of goal setting and social reinforcement were not always effective.

Another strategy for improving staff performance is to apply consequences more effectively. Goal setting, for example, has produced effective performance improvements when combined with performance-contingent pay (Huber, 1985). Gaetani and Johnson (1983) studied the effects of group public posting of feedback, praise, and tangible reinforcement (lottery tickets) on the efficiency of 12 stores. Efficiency was defined as the total sales divided by the cash and inventory shortages. Manager verbal praise, public posting of feedback, and their combination each had a positive effect on efficiency; however, combining verbal praise, public posting, and lottery tickets produced the largest and most consistent performance improvements. Huber (1986) suggested that performance will improve more if both a financial contingency and a goal statement are present than when only a goal is set or financial reinforcement is promised but no goal is set. Locke et al. (1980) found a median performance gain of 40% when goal setting was combined with performance-contingent pay.

Balcazar et al. (1986) suggested that the establishment of functional differential consequences is the most effective approach to improving worker performance. In their review of 15 articles that examined tangible rewards such as money, 13 out of the 15 applications produced performance improvements. Frequently, organizations develop feedback systems and fail to establish procedures for reinforcing desired

performance. According to Balcazar et al. (1986), the most effective strategy for improving performance in such cases is to provide graphic feedback at least once a week and to deliver tangible consequences. Mawhinney and Ford (1977) suggested that externally generated stimuli (i.e., assigned goal, task instructions, promises of pay-for-performance) should evoke higher performance when a supervisor has the authority to administer rewards such as pay raises or promotions.

Gaetani, Hoxeng and Austin (1985) used a combination of feedback and a commission system to increase the work performance of two auto mechanics. The amount of work was defined as dollars of work repair completed each day. Johnson (1975) examined the relative effects of antecedents and reinforcement in producing performance change in a laboratory setting. Subjects were preconditioned to high-speed performance on a manual keypunching task under a pay schedule that emphasized quantity. Subjects were then exposed to one of six experimental conditions in a 2 x 3 factorial design. Half of the subjects were exposed to antecedents (i.e., pleas for increases in quality, promises that pay would be influenced by quality) while the other half were not. In addition, all subjects were exposed to one of three kinds of pay contingencies. In the first pay condition, monetary reinforcement was contingent upon high quality performance. The second pay condition was identical to the first condition except for the addition of spoken instructions that described the pay contingency. In the third pay contingency, monetary reinforcement was contingent upon the same high-speed performance as during the preconditioning period. The results showed that the antecedent pleas had

no effect on performance in any of the three pay conditions. The addition of the contingency descriptions for subjects in the second pay condition also had no effect on the quality of performance. The only significant results were obtained from manipulating the pay contingencies. The money reinforced the performance dimension upon which it was made contingent. Daniels (1989) supported these findings. He suggested that antecedents are relatively ineffective if they oppose a previous reinforcement history or if they conflict with an active reinforcer. Antecedents work best if they are specific and paired with an effective consequence.

George and Hopkins (1989) studied the effects of performance-contingent pay on the dollar amount of food sold by waitstaff in restaurants. The intervention consisted of paying the staff 7% of their gross sales as opposed to the hourly wage method of compensation used previously by the three participating restaurants. The staff were also trained in various aspects of their job (e.g., taking orders, serving techniques, discussing menu options). The increases in the means of hourly pay were 30% in Restaurant A, 20% in Restaurant B, and 24% in Restaurant C. Due to the combination of performance-contingent pay and training, the relative effects of the performance-contingent pay could not be determined. However, the study did demonstrate the effectiveness of combining performance-contingent pay and training.

Orpen (1978) examined the effects of monetary bonuses on the absenteeism of 46 South African industrial workers. The total number of workdays possible in a month divided by the total number of workdays lost produced the absenteeism rate. The design in this study consisted of four conditions: baseline, a $.50 bonus condition,

reintroduction of baseline conditions, and a return to the treatment condition (ABAB design). Each employee received a bonus of $.50 for each week in which they were not absent any day during the week. The average weekly absenteeism rate fell from 3.94% to 2.56% during the first intervention period and increased to 3.74% during a return to baseline. The rate dropped again to 2.01% after the intervention was reintroduced. It appears that, under some conditions, even a relatively small monetary bonus can improve employee behavior.

These studies demonstrate that checklist systems, feedback, goal setting and monetary incentives are effective methods of improving employee performance. Based on the analysis of banquet staff performance, a performance improvement plan (Daniels, 1989) was developed for this case study. Performance improvement plans have several critical steps: pinpointing the specific behaviors and results of interest, measuring performance, and developing an intervention. The plan included an intervention package consisting of task checklists, graphic feedback, goal setting, monetary bonuses, staff training and job aids. The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of the intervention package on the accuracy and timeliness of hotel function setups.

METHOD

Employees and Setting

Twenty-six banquet employees (12 females, 14 males) participated in this study. All employees earned an hourly wage. Employees worked shifts ranging from 2 hours

to 12 hours setting up functions and/or serving meals. The banquet manager (male) and three banquet captains (two male, one female) did not engage in setups, but recorded data and helped expedite the project. The study was conducted in a hotel located in Denton, Texas. Banquet functions were conducted in seven different meeting rooms on the ground floor of the hotel. The ballroom, however, could be divided into three separate meeting rooms, thereby bringing the total number of meeting rooms to nine. The kitchen and various storage rooms were located directly behind the ballroom. The storage rooms contained all necessary materials (e.g., tables, chairs, centerpieces, coffee urns, silverware) for the setup of banquet functions. All banquet meals were prepared in the kitchen by kitchen staff.

Banquet Setup Procedures

Employees were responsible for setting up 11 different functions: morning coffee breaks, plated breakfasts, buffet breakfasts, express lunches, plated lunches, buffet lunches, plated dinners, buffet dinners, dinner/receptions, bars and evening coffee breaks. Some functions (i.e., morning/evening coffee breaks, bars and express lunches) could be completed by only one employee. The remaining functions were usually completed by several members of the banquet staff. Both morning and evening coffee breaks were set up on a maximum of one or two tables. These functions were usually positioned in the corners of the meeting rooms. The portable bars also required a minimal amount of space and were usually positioned in the corners of the meeting rooms. The remaining setups were scattered throughout an entire room or multiple rooms.

Performance Improvement Plan

Pinpointing and Measurement. The critical behaviors and results of interest were pinpointed. The behaviors included all activities involved in setting up banquet functions. There were several critical components of each of the 11 functions (see Appendix). For example, an a.m. coffee break has eight critical components. The specific components were determined with the help of the banquet manager and the food and beverage manager.

Performance checklists served as a measurement system as well as a component of the intervention package. A setup completion percentage was developed using the critical components of each function. Setups were equated by transforming the number of checkmarks for each list into percentages, and these percentages served as the primary dependent variable of the study. For example, if all eight components of the a.m. coffee break were completed 15 minutes before the customer arrived, that employee or employees would receive a 100% job completion rating. Tasks were considered accomplished only if the setup items were arranged accurately, in the proper location at least 15 minutes before the start of the function. The checklists were to be completed for each function and placed in folders which remained in the office. If more than one employee was assigned to set up a function, each employee would receive the final setup completion percentage for that particular function. This was designed to increase the probability that staff would help each other finish the setup, rather than only finishing his or her assigned tasks.

Intervention Package. A program was developed to address the deficits in the information and direction antecedents. The antecedent program included: staff training, a training manual, rearrangement of the work environment (i.e., critical items were rearranged to promote optimal efficiency) and posted job aids. The employees were trained to: (1) locate all required items, (2) properly set up functions and (3) utilize checklists. This also provided an opportunity for the managers and banquet captains to practice checking completed functions.

Both training workshops (conducted before introducing the two intervention phases) lasted 8 hours each. The employees were split into two groups for each intervention phase. Each workshop began with location training. All four groups were required to locate and bring back to the meeting room each one of the critical items listed in the training manual (see Appendix). In addition to their use as a measurement system, the checklists served to clarify the tasks as part of the intervention package. The checklists were explained in detail to the two groups in each intervention phase. The employees were told that the banquet manager (or banquet captain) would now check the setup 15 minutes before a client was scheduled to arrive and determine the setup completion percentage. Function assignments were restructured when two or more employees were required to complete a setup. The manager or banquet captain was now responsible for assigning specific tasks/steps of a project to each employee by writing his or her name next to the tasks/steps that he or she was required to complete. The two groups in the first intervention phase were shown the correct methods for setting up all 11 banquet functions. The two groups in

the second intervention phase were shown the correct methods for setting up four randomly selected functions due to time constraints. The groups were then required to set up sample functions (11 functions for employees in the first intervention phase, and 4 for employees in the intervention phase) utilizing the checklists. Employees were required to sign their name next to each of the assigned tasks that they completed. The banquet manager and captains then checked all completed functions in a separate column. The two groups in the first training workshop received overall setup completion percentages of 99% and 97% respectively. Both groups in the second training workshop received setup completion percentages of 100%. Finally, the entire performance improvement plan was explained to the employees during each of the training workshops.

The training manual had sample checklists, a listing of the critical items for all 11 functions, where they were located in the hotel, and room setup diagrams. Photographs of completed functions were also placed in the training manual. The training manual was readily accessible to all staff in the banquet office. Critical items listed in the training manual (see Appendix) were rearranged or relocated in the various storage rooms located behind the ballroom. Items that were used together were grouped together, and items that were used frequently were moved to the most accessible storage areas. This was designed to promote efficient setups. Lists detailing all contents contained in a storage room were posted as an additional job aid.

The feedback system was implemented following training. This consisted of a large graph posted on the wall near the banquet office. The graph displayed the

department setup completion percentages. The setup completion percentages were graphed daily. The graphed performance posting was combined with a goal-setting procedure. Hotel management assigned a setup completion percentage goal of 85% to each member of the banquet staff. Monetary bonuses were made contingent upon meeting or exceeding this performance goal. Ten dollars were delivered to each employee that had an 85% completion record for all setups attempted in a 1-month period. Each month, the banquet department was provided with 10 dollars per staff member for this incentive program. All extra money (left over from employees that did not reach the goal) was added to the following month's bonus pool.

Case Study Design

A reversal design was employed to evaluate the performance improvement plan. The first baseline phase lasted for 6 weeks during which data were gathered on the performance of 14 employees. Twenty-four functions were chosen at random to be checked by the investigator during this phase. All functions were checked 15 minutes before customer arrival. The training workshop was held the weekend prior to the beginning of the intervention. Immediately prior to the training workshop, I rearranged and relocated all critical items to the most accessible storage areas and posted all job aids. The first intervention phase started the day following the training workshop and lasted for a total of 4 months. Employees were required to use the checklists for every function. A total of 98 functions were checked either by the banquet manager or an on-duty captain during the first intervention phase. Seven of the original employees left at the end of the first intervention phase for various reasons

(e.g., quit, fired, promoted). The end of the first intervention phase coincided with the beginning of summer. I was unable to monitor the intervention package for a period of four months (May through August). During this time period, the hotel management withdrew the intervention package. Several staff mentioned that after the banquet manager was transferred, the new banquet manager did not follow through with the program. The staff continued to use the checklists; however, the feedback, goal setting, and monetary bonus components were discontinued.

In August, I met with both the general manager and the new banquet manager. It appeared that both the efficiency and the effectiveness of the banquet staff were no longer at acceptable levels. It was suggested that 6 weeks of baseline data be taken to determine current setup completion percentages of the banquet staff. Data were covertly gathered on the setup performance of 19 employees (12 new employees combined with 7 original employees) during the second baseline phase. All components of the intervention had been removed by hotel management except the training the original seven employees had already completed. Twenty-four functions were chosen at random to be checked by the investigator during the second baseline. Following the 6 weeks of baseline measurements, the hotel management agreed to reintroduce all components of the original intervention package. All 19 employees attended a training workshop held that weekend. This training workshop was similar to the training workshop conducted before the first intervention. Immediately prior to the training workshop, I insured that all critical items listed in the training manual were in their optimal locations. The following day, employees were required to use

the checklists for all function setups. Although there were some open statements of displeasure from the original seven employees over the reintroduction of the lists, no one refused to participate. Most of the original seven employees wanted assurances that the hotel management would follow through with the feedback, goal setting, and most importantly, the monetary incentive components of the intervention package. Sixty-eight functions were checked by the banquet manager or an on-duty captain during the second intervention phase. This phase lasted a total of 4 months.

Interobserver Agreement

Listed on all function checklists were critical items and two separate columns. Employees were required to sign their name next to all assigned items that were completed to criteria in an employee column. Supervisors checked the accuracy of every checklist by signing their names next to all completed items in the supervisor column. Setup completion percentages were then computed and listed at the bottom of each column. An employee and supervisor were considered in agreement if each of the critical items listed completed by the employee corresponded to the identical items listed completed by the supervisor. Agreement scores were calculated according to the formula (agreements / (agreements + disagreements) X 100). Agreement was achieved on 93.9% of functions (156/166). As a second check, I randomly chose 37 function setups to measure independently during the two intervention phases. Checklists were utilized to measure setup completion percentages 15 minutes before client arrival. Agreement levels between the banquet manager and me were 83.8% (31/37 functions) during the two intervention phases.

RESULTS

Setup completion percentages for the group are displayed in Figure 1 by baseline and intervention phases. Each point on the graphs corresponds to a completed banquet function. Baseline 1 percentages were highly variable, ranging from 42% to 100%. Variability decreased towards the end of the phase. The mean percentage for this phase was 68.8%. Introduction of the intervention package resulted in an abrupt increase in completion percentages to 100% for all but three setups during the first intervention phase. Setup completion percentages were far less variable than in baseline, ranging from 89% to 100%. Completion percentages decreased to an average of 82.3% during the following baseline phase, ranging from 44% to 100%. Reintroduction of the intervention package elevated completion percentages to 100% for all but four setups.

Most of the low completion percentages in the first baseline phase were obtained during p.m. coffee break setups. These setups are indicated with the letter "C" in Figure 2. Setup completion percentages for p.m. coffee breaks ranged between 42% and 80% with an average of 60.4% during Baseline 1. Coffee break setups increased to 100% during Intervention 1 shown in Figure 1. Coffee break setups produced very high completion percentages during the second baseline phase.

Mean setup completion percentages for individual banquet staff are shown in Table 1. The means are based on performance during the same setups as those shown in Figure 1. If several staff participated in the setup, each individual was given the overall score for the entire setup. The numbers in parentheses indicate the number of

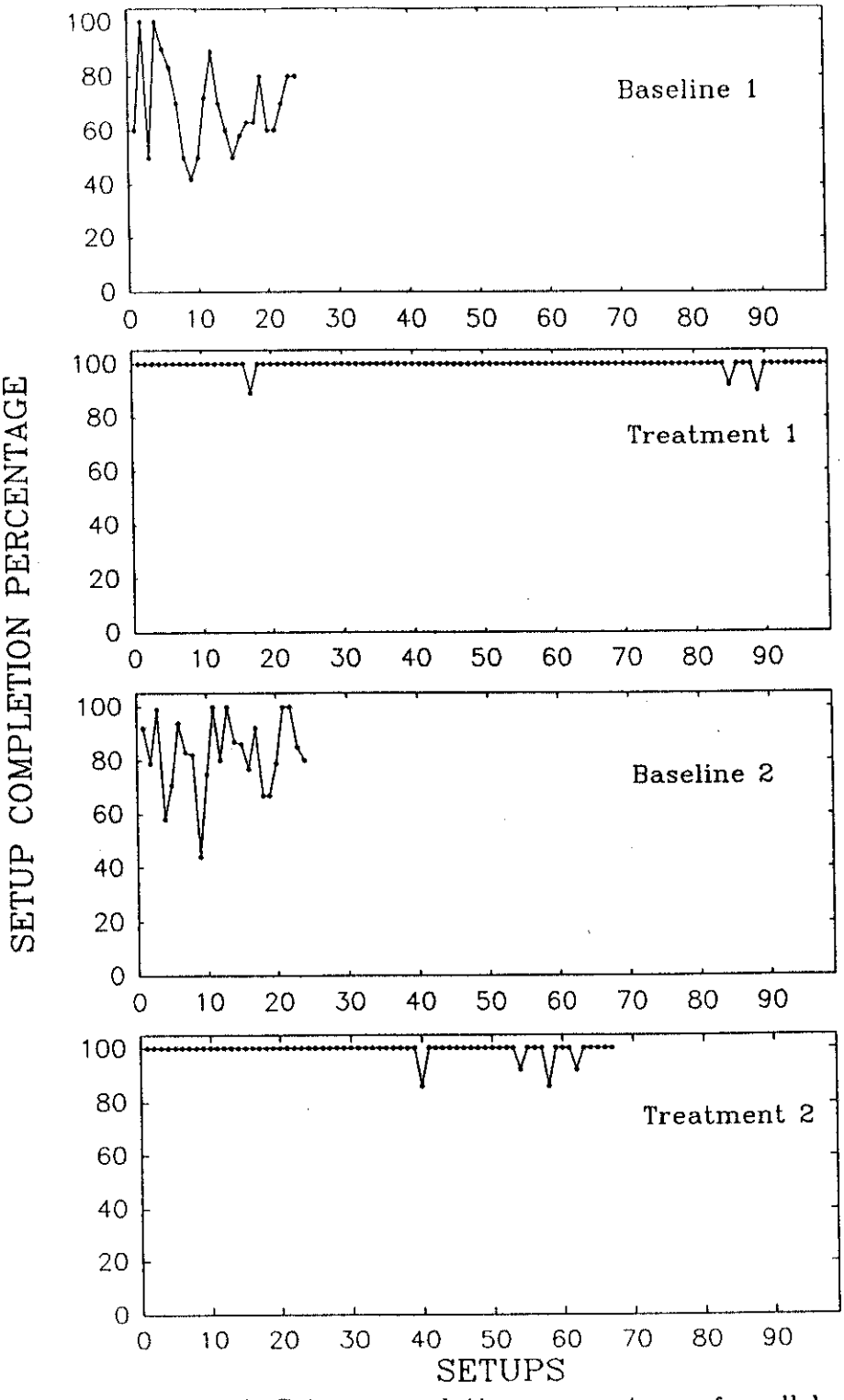

Figure 1. Setup completion percentages for all banquet functions by experimental phase.

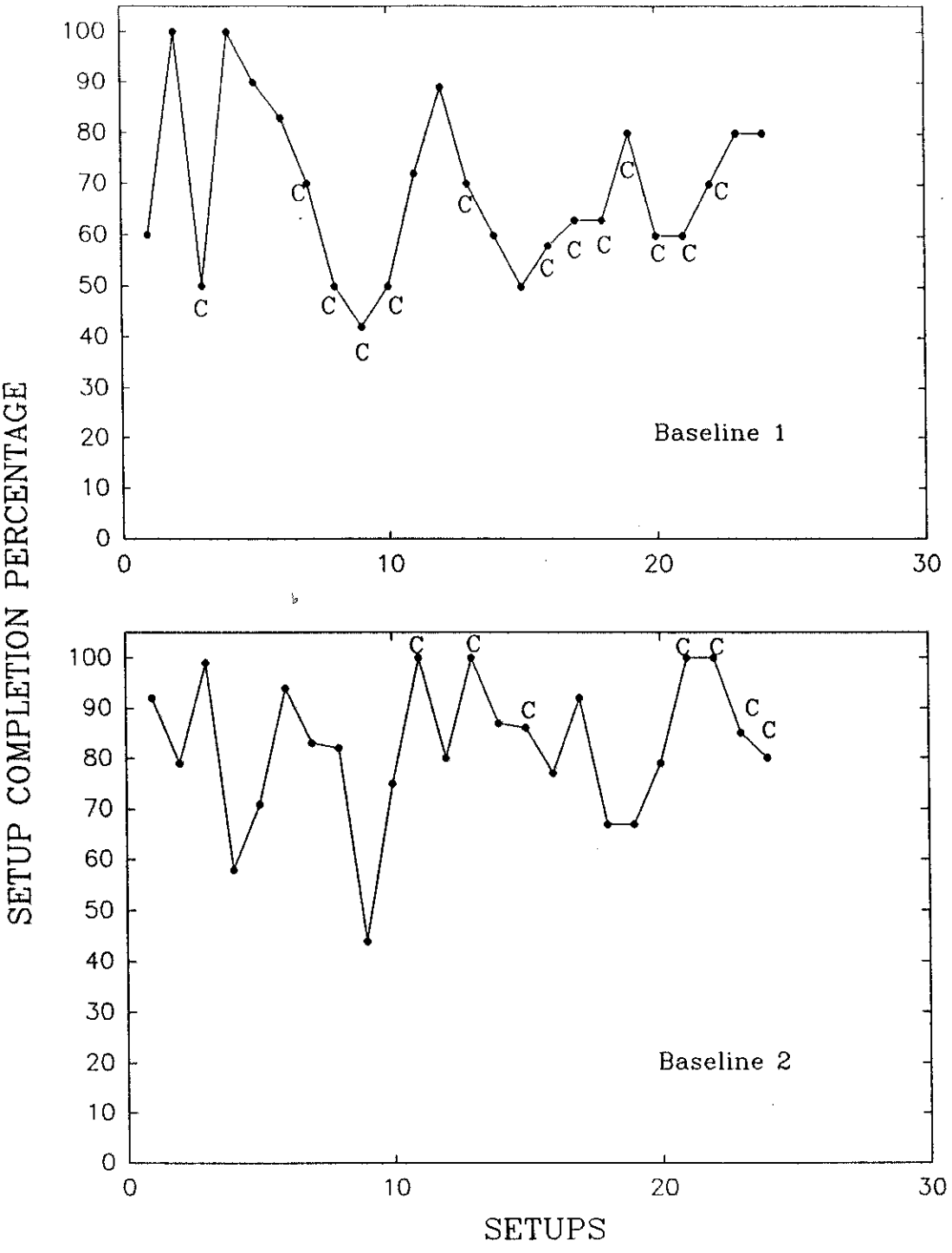

Figure 2. Setup completion percentages in Baseline 1 and 2 with evening coffee break setups indicated by letter C.

function setups used to calculate the mean setup completion percentage. It is important to note that there were several personnel changes during the study. Employees 1-7 participated only during Baseline 1 and Intervention 1. Employees 8-14 participated across all four experimental phases. Employees 15-26 participated only during Baseline 2 and Intervention 2. Completion percentages increased for 11 of 14 employees with the introduction of the first intervention phase. No comparisons were possible for either employee 7 or employee 14 because baseline data were not available for these employees. Employee 9 averaged 100% during Baseline 1, so there was no possibility for improvement in completion percentage. Employee 9 maintained this completion percentage (100%) during Intervention 2. Percentages decreased for all employees during Baseline 2. Percentages subsequently increased for all employees with the reintroduction of the intervention package.

One might have predicted that employees with prior exposure to the training workshop (employees 8-14) would have averaged higher setup completion percentages in the second baseline than those employees who had not been trained previously (employees 15-26). However, there were no differences in setup completion percentages during the second baseline phase between employees 8-14 and employees 15-26. Employees 8-14 were exposed to all four experimental phases. Employees 15-26 participated only in baseline 2 and intervention 2. Employees 8-14 averaged 83% during baseline 2, while employees 15-26 averaged 81% during the same phase. Employees 8-14 averaged 99% during intervention 2, while employees 15-26 averaged 97% during the same phase.

Table 1

Mean Setup Completion Percentages for Individual Staff by Experimental Phase

	Experimental Phase			
Employee	Baseline 1	Intervention 1	Baseline 2	Intervention 2
1	76 (5)	99 (13)	N/A	N/A
2	77 (3)	100 (1)	N/A	N/A
3	83 (1)	99 (11)	N/A	N/A
4	50 (1)	100 (18)	N/A	N/A
5	67 (5)	100 (18)	N/A	N/A
6	60 (2)	100 (10)	N/A	N/A
7	N/A	100 (2)	N/A	N/A

Note. Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of function setups used to calculate each mean setup completion percentage.

Table 1 (Continued)

	Experimental Phase			
Employee	Baseline 1	Intervention 1	Baseline 2	Intervention 2
8	80 (4)	100 (8)	81 (2)	97 (5)
9	100 (1)	100 (10)	94 (2)	100 (4)
10	90 (1)	100 (10)	68 (6)	100 (4)
11	58 (9)	100 (24)	81 (3)	100 (1)
12	66 (1)	100 (2)	87 (2)	95 (3)
13	86 (2)	100 (11)	86 (3)	100 (5)
14	N/A	99 (9)	82 (3)	98 (8)

Table 1 (Continued)

	Experimental Phase			
Employee	Baseline 1	Intervention 1	Baseline 2	Intervention 2
15	N/A	N/A	82 (4)	100 (4)
16	N/A	N/A	75 (1)	86 (1)
17	N/A	N/A	83 (6)	96 (4)
18	N/A	N/A	82 (8)	97 (5)
19	N/A	N/A	84 (8)	99 (22)
20	N/A	N/A	73 (4)	100 (28)
21	N/A	N/A	69 (3)	100 (4)
22	N/A	N/A	83 (3)	98 (7)
23	N/A	N/A	82 (4)	100 (9)
24	N/A	N/A	83 (2)	97 (4)
25	N/A	N/A	87 (1)	97 (4)
26	N/A	N/A	86 (1)	97 (4)

The monetary bonuses were awarded to employees who averaged 85% or higher on setup completion percentages after 1 month had elapsed from the start of each intervention phase. The delivery of monetary incentives continued on this monthly cycle until a intervention phase ended. The employees had three opportunities in each intervention phase to be awarded a $10.00 bonus. All 26 employees received the monetary bonuses for reaching the setup completion goal of 85% at every opportunity during both intervention phases.

Mean guest satisfaction ratings for room setup quality and banquet service are displayed in Figure 3. Satisfaction ratings for room setup quality ranged from 65% to 100% with an average of 87% during Baseline 1. Ratings increased to an average of 90% with a range of 70% to 100% during the first intervention phase. Ratings decreased to 85.6% with a range of 75% to 100% following a return to baseline conditions. Ratings increased to 91.7% with a range of 75% to 100% with the reintroduction of the intervention package. Satisfaction ratings for banquet service ranged from 25% to 100% with an average of 86.7% during Baseline 1 (see lower graph in Figure 2). Ratings increased to an average of 90% with a range of 75% to 100% during the first intervention phase. Ratings decreased to 86.6% with a range of 75% to 100% during Baseline 2. Ratings subsequently increased to 93.3% with a range of 75% to 100% with the reintroduction of the intervention phase. The increases in satisfaction ratings in the intervention phases were consistent but too small to be statistically significant according to a Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA on ranks ($H = 2.123$, 3 df, $p = 0.547$).

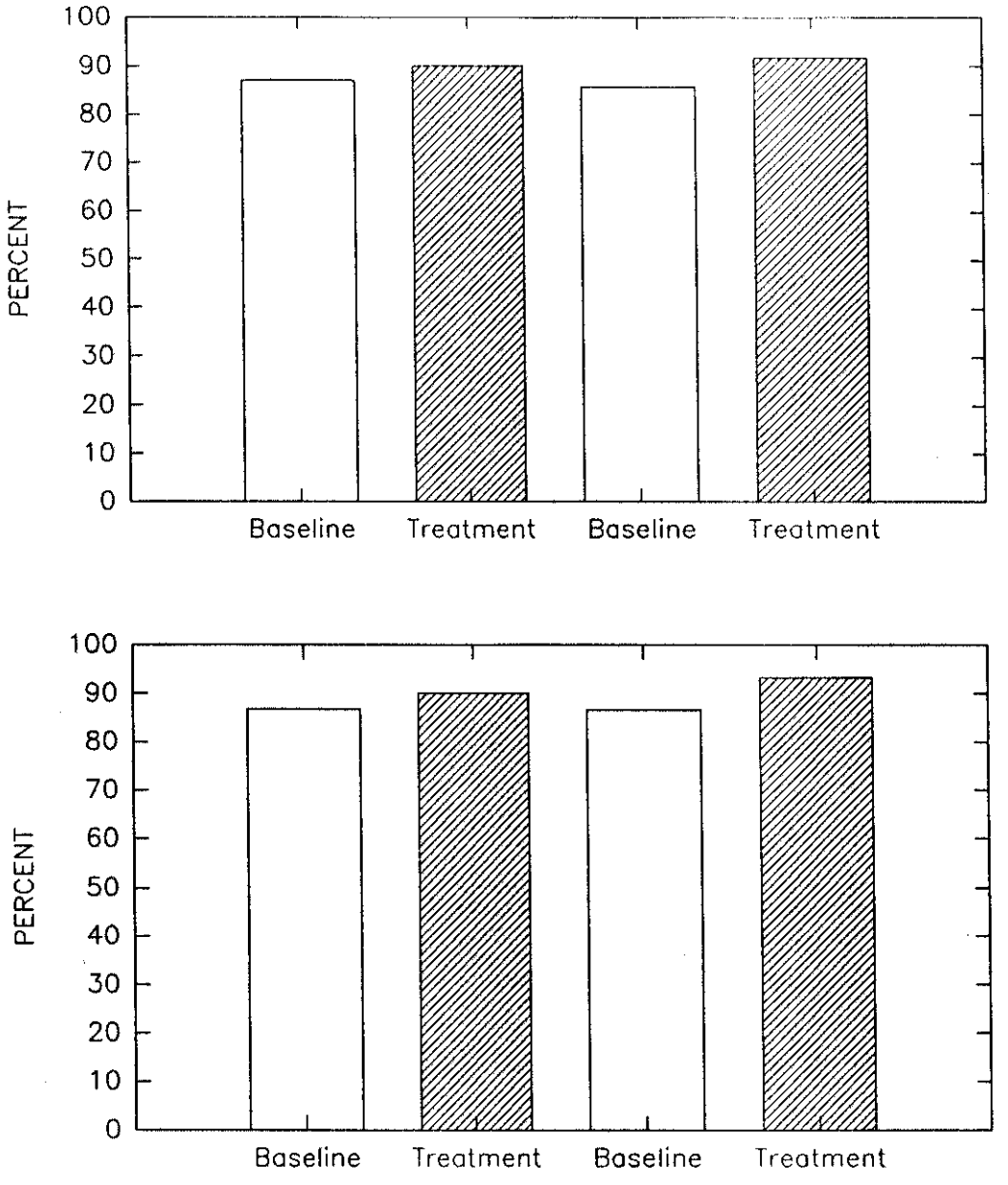

Figure 3. Top graph shows mean guest satisfaction ratings for room setup quality. Bottom graph shows mean guest satisfaction ratings for banquet service.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrated that the accuracy and timeliness of banquet setups increased with the introduction of a behaviorally-based intervention package. Setup completion percentages increased 30.9% following the introduction of the intervention, decreased 17.4% during a return to baseline conditions, and subsequently increased 17% with the reintroduction of the intervention. All 26 employees showed increases in setup completion percentages. Although higher ratings on consumer satisfaction questionnaires corresponded to increases in setup completion percentages, changes in satisfaction ratings may be attributed to chance. Finally, the banquet manager stated that the reporting lines were operating more smoothly. Instead of constantly asking what to do, how to do it, and where it was located, the staff frequently referred to the training manual. Therefore, the strategic intervention was successful in attaining all three of the original goals: increasing setup completion percentages, improving reporting lines, and elevating customer satisfaction ratings to some degree. These findings suggest that the combination of antecedent control, feedback, goal setting, monetary consequences and staff training was effective in producing performance change.

Which components of the intervention package, alone or in combination, produced and maintained increases in setup completion percentages cannot be determined because the study did not include a component analysis. A component analysis was not possible during the intervention phases due to time constraints. The hotel management wanted results as quickly as possible and wanted a intervention package

that addressed all of the deficits analyzed in the initial diagnosis. Several points, however, are worth highlighting, especially in regard to the possible behavioral functions of each component.

Gilbert (1978) stated that there are six areas in which interventions can yield large returns in improved performance. An analysis of performance is required to determine which of these areas is causing the problems in performance and thus which interventions will yield the best results. In many cases, not all six areas need improvement. In the current study, there appeared to be no deficiency in the capacity of the staff, physically or verbally, to complete function setups. The introduction of the antecedent components was designed to correct the skills and information/direction deficits. Banquet setup procedures were also improved by assigning specific staff to certain tasks listed on checklists. The accessibility of needed resources was addressed by relocating and rearranging all critical items and posting job aids. The monetary incentive components were designed to differentially reinforce accurate and timely setups. Finally, a training workshop which matched the demands of the job was implemented as a means to achieve greater competence.

The setup completion percentages increased dramatically on the first day of each of the intervention phases. Graphed feedback was not delivered until the following day and the monetary incentives for reaching the assigned goal of 85% were not available for another month. This suggests that the antecedent components (i.e., task checklists, training, training manual, job aids, and goal setting) were largely responsible for the initial increases in performance. However, other components (e.g.,

feedback and incentives) may have contributed to the maintenance of these high setup completion percentages.

Some of the employees may have already known how to set up banquet functions correctly. In this case, the antecedent components may have set the occasion for increasing the frequency of setup behaviors that had in the past produced positive reinforcement (e.g., praise from management or clients) or negative reinforcement (e.g., avoiding reprimands). Bacon et al. (1983) suggested that the effects of the checklists may be a function of a general history of reinforcement for following instructions from authorities. However, such effects usually cannot be maintained without effective consequences. This might explain why the employees' performance decreased during the summer after management no longer provided consistent feedback, goal setting or monetary incentives. Employees did, however, develop and utilize "hand-made" checklists toward the end of the summer. The employees may have found that the checklists helped to clarify criteria and improve the discrimination of required tasks resulting in a greater probability of completing function setups. If the checklists increased the probability of completing function setups to criterion, it is possible that the employees were more likely to receive praise from management and clients. Bacon et al. (1983) also suggested that the outcome of viewing a checklist, recalling details of the task, and recording those details on the list may acquire some reinforcing properties.

Some conclusions about the role of training are suggested by the analysis of individual employee data. Recall that there was little difference in setup completion

percentages during the second baseline phase between employees 8-14 who had been trained previously during Intervention 1 and employees 15-26 who had no prior training. There was also little difference in completion percentages during Intervention 2 between these same two groups of employees. Staff training may be a necessary but not sufficient condition for improving performance. It is necessary to ensure a competent skill level, but without the feedback and bonus money, performance deteriorated.

There was a difference in mean setup completion percentages between employees 1-14 in Baseline 1 and employees 15-26 in Baseline 2. The mean setup completion percentage during the first baseline phase was 68.8%. The mean setup completion percentage during the second baseline phase was 82.3%. The difference in percentages may be accounted for by three factors: the hiring of a new banquet manager at the beginning of the second baseline phase, the hiring of an evening captain, and the observed use of "hand-made" checklists by several of the employees. The new banquet manager appeared to provide much more praise for superior performance than did his predecessor. Also, the hiring of the evening captain may have accounted for the maintenance of high setup completion percentages during the second baseline for the evening coffee break functions. Employees consistently scored low setup completion percentages for this function in the initial baseline. During the second baseline, however, employees scored the highest setup completion percentages for the evening coffee break functions.

There are several alternative interpretations for the effects of each of the intervention components. For example, feedback stimuli are often categorized as reinforcers or discriminative stimuli (Peterson, 1982). However, Agnew & Redmon (1992) stated that feedback would have to be consistently correlated with the presentation of a reinforcer and would have to evoke behavior immediately in order to function as a discriminative stimulus. In their analysis, feedback would have to follow behavior immediately and increase the probability of that behavior in the future for it to be considered a reinforcer. In other words, these contingencies would be considered direct-acting contingencies. Malott (1992) defined direct-acting contingencies as those which immediate consequences directly reinforce or punish behavior. An outcome that is too delayed to directly reinforce or punish the response is referred to as an indirect-acting contingency. These delayed outcomes are often further weakened by being improbable or small but cumulative. According to Malott, indirect-acting contingencies can control behavior only in conjunction with rule-governed behavior.

Several authors (Agnew & Redmon, 1992; Malott, 1992; Peterson, 1982) suggested that many examples of feedback can be explained in terms of rule-governed behavior. Malott, Shimamune and Malott (1992) argued that procedures based on rule-governed analogs to direct-acting contingencies are used more frequently in organizational behavior management research as compared to procedures based on direct-acting contingencies alone. Agnew and Redmon (1992) stated that rules describe behavioral contingencies and that behavior is evoked by the events described

by the rules. Malott (1992) suggested that people follow rules describing indirect-acting contingencies, in spite of the delay, provided the outcomes are sizeable and probable. For example, delayed consequences such as the monetary bonuses combined with the bi-weekly paychecks produced a larger outcome than the bi-weekly paychecks alone.

In this study, the banquet staff were provided rules during training describing the indirect-acting contingencies (e.g., feedback, goal setting, and monetary incentives). For example, employees were told: "The number of correct items set up on each assigned banquet function will be used to calculate a setup completion percentage that will be displayed on a graph the following day." The graphed feedback, the attainment of the 85% goal and the monetary incentives can be viewed as outcomes in indirect-acting contingencies because the delivery of the outcomes was delayed from the behavior of setting up the functions.

Malott (1992) provided an analysis of how rules describing indirect-acting contingencies control behavior. He suggested that in these cases behavior is likely controlled by direct-acting escape contingencies based on the learned aversive condition (e.g., guilt, fear) resulting from stating a rule combined with noncompliance. In other words, a rule creates aversive conditions for not following the rule. For example, employees were told: "If you set up all critical items on an assigned checklist 15 minutes before a client arrives, you will receive a 100% setup completion percentage." Stating a rule about starting to set up a dinner buffet, for example, might function as a conditioned establishing operation. The escape response might be

starting the setup and marking a checklist. In this analysis, the immediate events are primarily negative reinforcing contingencies.

Based on an analysis of rules as contingency-specifying stimuli by Blakely and Schlinger (1987), Agnew and Redmon (1992) suggested that rules enhance the effectiveness of a variety of stimuli in the immediate environment, and it is those altered stimuli which now directly control the behavior. They suggested that rules can alter the evocative function of discriminative stimuli, the reinforcing or punishing function of consequent stimuli, and the function of stimuli in respondent relations. For example, rules such as, "If I average 85% or better in setup completion percentages, I will be awarded a $10 bonus and my supervisor may decide to give me a raise," might alter the function of stimuli associated with superior performance (e.g., the task checklists could function as discriminative stimuli which affect the amount of work done, and completed functions and checklists could function as reinforcing stimuli). According to this interpretation, such stimuli might maintain superior performance after the statement of the rule.

In summary, both interpretations agree that rules work to make delayed consequences more effective. Agnew and Redmon (1992) suggested that rules influence behavior by changing the function of a variety of stimuli. Malott (1992) suggested that rules make delayed consequences more effective through the creation of aversive stimulation that is escaped when the rule is followed.

After the implementation of the training workshop and the introduction of the antecedent components, it is likely that setup behaviors were influenced by the rules

provided in training or by rules the staff developed on their own. These rules specified relations between their performance and the delayed outcomes. The rules also altered the function of a variety of stimuli that exert more direct control over the occurrence of setup behaviors. It appears then, that the increases and maintenance in setup completion percentages were produced by a combination of the antecedent components, the resulting rules, and the indirect-acting contingencies (i.e., the relation between setup behaviors and the delayed consequences). In an analysis of direct-acting contingencies, delayed consequences likely influence the extent to which a rule exerts control; that is, they modulate the effectiveness of rules. This might explain why performance decreased after management no longer provided feedback, goal setting, and monetary incentives during the summer. The absence of the delayed consequences rendered the rules ineffective.

The effectiveness of indirect-acting contingencies appears to depend upon the presence of appropriate rules which augment these contingencies. It is very is important to consider the source of rules. In the organizational setting, rules may be provided by a supervisor, a co-worker, or individual workers may develop their own rules. Agnew and Redmon (1992) stated that workers, if left to develop their own rules, may or may not create rules that effectively support superior performance. Therefore, superior performance may be more likely if rules are provided. Rules were provided to employees during training in this study, and performance levels were superior during intervention. Training sessions, then, may make an ideal format for the presentation of rules relating job performance to delayed consequences

programmed by the organization.

The interpretation of delayed consequences in terms of indirect-acting contingencies can be useful in explaining the effects of organizational interventions such as feedback and monetary incentives. However, analyses of rule-governed behavior are very much in a developmental phase in this field, so these interpretations should be regarded as tentative and accepted only with caution. This issue highlights the importance of continued theoretical work in the area of Organizational Behavior Management.

APPENDIX

A.M. COFFEE BREAK SET-UP

	EMP.INI.	SUP.INI.
ALL COFFEE BREAKS WILL INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) COFFEE		
(2) CREAM		
(3) WATER		
(4) STERNO		
(5) DECAFFEINATED COFFEE (OPTIONAL)		
(6) HOT WATER (OPTIONAL)		
(7) FOOD (OPTIONAL)		
(8) Juices (OPTIONAL)		

	TOTAL PERCENTAGE

ALL COFFEE BREAKS WILL BE COMPLETED 15 MINUTES BEFORE CUSTOMER ARRIVAL !

ALL ITEMS EXCEPT FOOD ITEMS (COFFEE, CREAM, ETC.) WILL BE SET THE NIGHT BEFORE !

P.M. COFFEE BREAK SET-UP

	EMP.INI.	SUP.INI.
ALL COFFEE BREAKS WILL INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) COFFEE MUGS		
(2) WATER GLASSES		
(3) SPOONS (25 PEOPLE AND UNDER)		
(4) COFFEE STIRRERS (OVER 25 PEOPLE)		
(5) NAPKINS (BEVERAGE)		
(6) SUGAR/SUGAR SUBSTITUTE		
(7) BASE FOR COFFEE URN		
(8) WATER PLACEMENT NAPKIN (ARTICHOKE FOLD)		
(9) PLATE W/DOILY (FOR CREAM)		
(10) WARMER FOR COFFEE POTS		
(11) CENTERPIECE		
(12) GARBAGE CAN		
(13) PLATES (OPTIONAL)		
(14) FORKS (OPTIONAL)		
(15) DINNER NAPKINS (OPTIONAL)		
(16) TEA BAGS (OPTIONAL)		
(17) ICE SCOOP (OPTIONAL)		

TOTAL PERCENTAGE		

BREAKFAST

PLATED

	EMP.INI.	SUP.INI.
ALL PLATED BREAKFAST SET-UPS WILL INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) PLATES/FOOD		
(2) SILVERWARE		
(3) COFFEE CUPS		
(4) JUICE GLASSES		
(5) WATER GLASSES		
(6) BREAD/BUTTER PLATES		
(7) SUGAR/SALT/PEPPER/CONDIMENTS		
(8) BREAD BASKETS		
(9) CREAM		
(10) NAPKINS		
(11) COVERED TRAY/TRAYSTAND		
(12) BREAKDOWN STATION [INCLUDES]:		

1. BUCKETS
2. GARBAGE BAGS (FOR LINEN)
3. BUS TRAY (SILVERWARE)
4. BUS CART
5. RACK FOR GLASSES/CUPS

TOTAL PERCENTAGE

ALL BREAKFAST SET-UPS WILL BE COMPLETED 15 MINUTES BEFORE CUSTOMER ARRIVAL !

BREAKFAST

BUFFET

	EMP.INI.	SUP.INI.
ALL BUFFET BREAKFAST SET-UPS WILL INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) PLATES		
(2) ELEVATION/RUFFLED CLOTHS		
(3) CHAFING DISHES/STERNOS		
(4) SILVERWARE		
(5) COFFEE CUPS		
(6) JUICE GLASSES		
(7) SERVING UTENSILS		
(8) SUGAR/SALT/PEPPER		
(9) CREAM		
(10) NAPKINS		
(11) DECORATIONS		
(12) COVERED TRAY/TRAYSTAND		
(13) BREAKDOWN STATION [INCLUDES]:		

1. BUCKETS
2. GARBAGE BAGS (FOR LINEN)
3. BUS TRAY (SILVERWARE)
4. BUS CART
5. RACK FOR GLASSES/CUPS

	TOTAL PERCENTAGE

ALL BREAKFAST BUFFET SET-UPS WILL BE COMPLETED 15 MINUTES BEFORE CUSTOMER ARRIVAL !

LUNCH

PLATED

	EMP.INI.	SUP.INI.
ALL PLATED LUNCH SET-UPS WILL INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) PLATES/FOOD		
(2) SILVERWARE		
(3) ICED TEA GLASSES		
(4) SUGAR/SALT/PEPPER		
(5) NAPKINS		
(6) CREAM (OPTIONAL)		
(7) COVERED TRAY/TRAYSTAND		
(8) BREAKDOWN STATION		
(9) COFFEE CUPS:		
(IF NO COFFEE BREAK IN THE A.M.)		

TOTAL PERCENTAGE

ALL PLATED LUNCH SET-UPS WILL BE COMPLETED 15 BEFORE CUSTOMER ARRIVAL !

LUNCH

BUFFET

	EMP.INI.	SUP.INI.
ALL BUFFET LUNCH SET-UPS WILL INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) PLATES		
(2) ELEVATION/RUFFLED CLOTHS		
(3) CHAFING DISHES/STERNOS		
(4) SILVERWARE		
(5) ICED TEA GLASSES		
(6) SERVING UTENSILS		
(7) SUGAR/SALT/PEPPER/CONDIMENTS		
(8) NAPKINS		
(9) DECORATIONS		
(10) CREAM		
(11) COVERED TRAY/TRAYSTAND		
(12) BREAKDOWN STATION		
(13) CENTERPIECES		
(14) COFFEE CUPS:		
(IF NO COFFEE BREAK IN THE A.M.)		

	TOTAL PERCENTAGE	

ALL BUFFET LUNCH SET-UPS WILL BE COMPLETED 15 MINUTES BEFORE CUSTOMER ARRIVAL !

LUNCH

EXPRESS

	EMP.INI.	SUP.INI.
ALL EXPRESS LUNCH SET-UPS WILL INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) ROLLED SILVERWARE		
(2) GLASSES/DRINKS		
(3) SUGAR/SALT/PEPPER/CONDIMENTS		
(4) DESSERTS (IF ORDERED)		
(5) FOOD		

	TOTAL PERCENTAGE

NOTE: STAFF MEMBERS MUST PICK UP EXPRESS MENUS FROM CUSTOMERS AND BRING THE ORDERS TO THE KITCHEN AT LEAST 1 HOUR IN ADVANCE OF THE SCHEDULED LUNCH !

DINNER (PLATED)

	EMP.INI.	SUP.INI.
ALL PLATED DINNER SET-UPS WILL INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) PLATES/FOOD		
(2) SILVERWARE		
(3) CHINA (B & B, COFFEE CUPS/SAUCER)		
(4) SUGAR/SALT/PEPPER		
(5) WATER GLASSES		
(6) NAPKINS		
(7) CENTERPIECES		
(8) BUTTER		
(9) BREAD (IN THE WARMERS)		
(10) COVERED TRAY/TRAYSTAND		
(11) CREAM		
(12) COFFEE		
(13) TEA		
(14) BREAKDOWN STATION		

1. BUCKETS
2. GARBAGE BAGS (FOR LINEN)
3. BUS TRAY (SILVERWARE)
4. BUS CART
5. RACK FOR GLASSES/CUPS

TOTAL PERCENTAGE

ALL PLATED DINNER SET-UPS WILL BE COMPLETED 15 MINUTES BEFORE CUSTOMER ARRIVAL !

DINNER

BUFFET

	EMP.INI.	SUP.INI.
ALL BUFFET DINNER SET-UPS WILL INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) PLATES		
(2) ELEVATION/RUFFLED CLOTHS		
(3) CHAFING DISHES/STERNOS		
(4) SILVERWARE		
(5) COFFEE CUPS		
(6) ICED TEA GLASSES:		
(WATER GLASSES IF AN UPSCALE FUNCTION)		
(7) SERVING UTENSILS		
(8) SUGAR/SALT/PEPPER/CONDIMENTS		
(9) NAPKINS		
(10) DECORATIONS		
(11) CREAM		
(12) COVERED TRAY/TRAYSTAND		
(13) BREAKDOWN STATION		
(14) CENTERPIECES		

	TOTAL PERCENTAGE

ALL BUFFET DINNER SET-UPS WILL BE COMPLETED 15 MINUTES BEFORE CUSTOMER ARRIVAL !

DINNER

BUFFET/RECEPTION

	EMP.INI.	SUP.INI.
ALL BUFFET DINNER SET-UPS WILL INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) SALAD PLATES		
(2) ELEVATION/RUFFLED CLOTHS		
(3) CHAFING DISHES/STERNOS		
(4) SALAD OR COCKTAIL FORKS		
(5) SERVING UTENSILS		
(6) NAPKINS (BEVERAGE)		
(7) BUTTER		
(8) DECORATIONS		
(9) COVERED TRAY/TRAYSTAND		
(10) BREAKDOWN STATION		
(11) CENTERPIECES		
NOTE: IF WITH A PUNCH OR BEVERAGE STATION, INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) CHAMPAGNE/WATER GLASSES		
(2) COFFEE CUPS (IF NEEDED)		
(3) SUGAR		
(4) BEVERAGE NAPKINS		
(5) CREAM		
(6) SPOONS OR STIRRERS		
	TOTAL PERCENTAGE	

ALL BUFFET DINNER SET-UPS WILL BE COMPLETED 15 MINUTES BEFORE CUSTOMER ARRIVAL !

BAR

	EMP.INI.	SUP.INI.
ALL BAR SET-UPS WILL INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:		
(1) WATER GLASSES		
(2) WINE GLASSES		
(3) ROCK GLASSES		
(4) PORTABLE BAR/TRAY STAND		
(5) MIXES/JUICES		
(6) BAR FRUIT/OLIVES		
(7) BEVERAGE NAPKINS		
(8) STIRRERS		
(9) LIQUORS/BEER/WINE		
(10) ICE/ICE SCOOP		
(11) CASH BANK (IF CASH BAR)		
(12) GARBAGE CAN		

	TOTAL PERCENTAGE

ALL BAR SET-UPS WILL BE COMPLETED 15 MINUTES BEFORE CUSTOMER ARRIVAL !

LOCATION OF KEY ITEMS

1. BAR FRUIT/OLIVES - A. WALK-IN B. BAR
2. BAR MIXES - A. LIQUOR ROOM B. BAR
3. BASE FOR URN - STORAGE ROOM
4. BEVERAGE NAPKINS - STORAGE ROOM
5. BREAD BASKET - STORAGE ROOM
6. BREAD - KITCHEN
7. BUCKETS (BREAKDOWN) - DISH MACHINE AREA
8. BUS TRAY - DISH MACHINE
9. BUTTER - WALK-IN
10. CHAFING DISHES - BACK AISLE
11. CHINA/CREAMERS - A. KITCHEN B. DISH MACHINE AREA
12. CLOTH NAPKINS - STORAGE ROOM
13. CLOTHS (RUFFLED) - STORAGE ROOM
14. COFFEE/DECAF - UNDER COFFEE STATION
15. COFFEE FILTERS - UNDER COFFEE STATION
16. COFFEE MUGS - KITCHEN
17. COFFEE POTS - COFFEE STATION
18. COFFEE STIRRERS - STORAGE ROOM
19. COFFEE URN - STORAGE ROOM
20. COFFEE WARMERS - STORAGE ROOM
21. CONDIMENTS - A. WALK-IN B. PANTRY
22. CREAM - A. WALK-IN B. ROOM SERVICE REFRIGERATOR
23. DECORATIONS/CENTERPIECES - STORAGE ROOM
24. DOILIES - KITCHEN
25. EXPRESS MENUS - FILE CABINET (#4)

LOCATION OF KEY ITEMS

26. GARBAGE BAGS - A. UNDER COFFEE STATION B. DRY STORAGE

27. GARBAGE CANS - BACK AISLE

28. GLASSES - KITCHEN

29. GLASS RACKS/ELEVATIONS - DISH MACHINE AREA

30. HOT WATER - COFFEE STATION

31. ICE BUCKETS - STORAGE ROOM

32. ICE SCOOPS - FILE CABINET (#1)

33. ICED TEA - A. COFFEE STATION B. DRY STORAGE

34. ICED TEA FILTERS - UNDER COFFEE STATION

35. JUICES - DRY STORAGE

36. LEMONS - WALK-IN

37. PITCHERS - A. COFFEE STATION B. DISH MACHINE AREA

38. PLATES - KITCHEN

39. ROLLS -FREEZER

40. SALAD DRESSING - A. WALK-IN B. DRY STORAGE

41. SERVING UTENSILS - A. PANTRY B. DISH MACHINE AREA

42. SILVERWARE - A. KITCHEN LINE B. DISH MACHINE C. RESTAURANT

43. SODAS A. LIQUOR ROOM B. STORAGE ROOM

44. STERNOS - STORAGE BOX IN HALLWAY

45. SUGAR/SALT/PEPPER - STORAGE ROOM

46. TEA BAGS - A. STORAGE ROOM B. DRY STORAGE

47. TRAY - KITCHEN

48. TRAYSTAND - BACK AISLE

LOCATION OF KEY MATERIALS (SET-UP)

1. A. V. CARTS - A. V. ROOM
2. BAR PRICE SHEET STANDS - STORAGE ROOM
3. BLACKBOARDS - STORAGE ROOM
4. BUBBLE BALLS - STORAGE ROOM
5. CANDLES - STORAGE ROOM
6. CHALK/WHITE BOARDS - BACK AISLE
7. CORDLESS LAV. MICROPHONE - MANAGER'S DESK (LOWER LEFT DRAWER)
8. CORKBOARDS - STORAGE ROOM
9. DUCT TAPE - MANAGER'S DESK (LOWER RIGHT DRAWER)
10. EASELS - A. V. ROOM
11. ERASERS/ERASETTES - STORAGE ROOM
12. EXTENSION CORDS - FILE CABINET (#1)
13. EXTENSION CORD COVERS - A. STORAGE ROOM B. A. V. ROOM
14. FLAGS/FLAGSTANDS - STORAGE ROOM
15. FLIP CHARTS - A. V. ROOM
16. MARKERS - STORAGE ROOM
17. MASKING TAPE - STORAGE ROOM
18. MICROPHONES - FILE CABINET (#2)
19. MICROPHONE STANDS - STORAGE ROOM
20. MIRROR CENTERPIECES - STORAGE ROOM
21. MUSIC/MICROPHONE POWER SWITCHES - BREAKROOM
22. LATTICE - BACK AISLE
23. NUMBER STANDS - STORAGE ROOM
24. OVERHEADS - A. V. ROOM
25. PAPER - STORAGE ROOM

LOCATION OF KEY ITEMS (SET-UP)

26. PENCILS - STORAGE ROOM

27. PILLARS/PEDESTALS - DRY STORAGE

28. PINS - STORAGE ROOM

29. PODIUMS - BACK AISLE

30. SCREENS - A. V. ROOM

31. SKIRTS - BACK AISLE

32. SLIDE PROJECTORS - A. V. ROOM

33. STAGE SKIRTING - STORAGE ROOM

34. TABLE CLIPS - STORAGE ROOM

35. TABLE CLOTHS - STORAGE ROOM

36. T. V./VCR - A. V. ROOM

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