

**MANAGING THE VOLUNTEER
WORKFORCE: FLEXIBLE STRUCTURES
AND STRATEGIES TO INTEGRATE
VOLUNTEERS AND PAID WORKERS**

by

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DECLARATION

This thesis contains no material that has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other institution. To the best of my knowledge, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text.

Leonie A. Lockstone

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ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the use of flexible work practices by tourism and cultural organisations drawing upon the partnership model of convergent flexibility as a framework (Lockstone, Deery and King 2003). The proposed model draws from a range of existing flexibility theories (Chapter Two) and takes into consideration a number of other elements that influence the organisational setting within which flexibility may occur. These elements include structure (Chapter Two), strategy (Chapter Three), human resource management (Chapter Three), worker commitment (Chapter Four) and organisational culture (Chapter Four). The partnership model has been developed in part because the existing theories have failed to consider these elements in an integrated way. The researcher also wished to extend the scope of the research beyond the traditional domain of flexibility theory, namely the paid workforce, in assessing whether the practical application of this model is useful for recruitment and retention of volunteers. For this purpose, volunteering theory is also examined (Chapters One and Five).

The partnership model is tested using a two-stage methodology. Stage One involves gathering exploratory data (quantitative and qualitative) on the flexibility practices used by organisations in the tourism and cultural sectors. Respondents included managers and volunteer co-ordinators representing visitor information centres, visitor attractions and museums/galleries in Victoria, NSW and the ACT. Their views help to provide an industry snapshot. In developing these exploratory findings, Stage Two uses similar collection methods to examine the research questions of the partnership model including self-completion mail questionnaires and structured interviews. Managers, non-management paid staff and volunteers from the National Museum of Australia (NMA) and the Melbourne Museum (MM) provided an assessment of the availability and value of flexibility practices. These assessments form the basis for testing the key research questions associated with the model, particularly convergence flexibility (difference between the availability and value ratings for each flexibility practice). It is proposed that the larger the degree of convergent flexibility between available flexibility practices and the

flexibility needs of paid staff/volunteers, the increased probability of positive performance outcomes. In the context of Stage Two testing, these outcomes include job satisfaction and turnover cognitions (intention to leave).

The findings are noteworthy because they provide partial support for the key research question. Of the three forms of flexibility examined (functional, temporal and numerical), job satisfaction is found to increase the greater the convergence between the perceived availability of functional flexibility practices (job enlargement, job enrichment and job rotation) and the value that paid staff and volunteers attach to them. That is to say, when the provision of these practices is considered in light of the flexibility needs of paid and unpaid workers, job satisfaction is enhanced. The positive result does not however extend to the other performance outcome, namely turnover cognitions. In relation to the temporal and numerical flexibility practices studied, the results were mixed results and not, by and large, supportive of the proposed model. There was also limited support for the other research questions of the model. These relate to the varying levels of human resource (HR) investment afforded to and worker commitment experienced by functional, temporal and numerical workers and the equality of treatment provided to paid staff and volunteers.

Extending beyond the specific research questions, further Stage Two testing reveals positive outcomes associated with the availability of certain functional and temporal flexibility practices. Analysis of group differences also provides an indicator of the flexibility practices that are most valued by certain demographic sets (paid staff/volunteer, male/female). As a result of the linkages suggested by the regression analysis that was undertaken, the partnership model has been revised. This progress is complemented by Stage One and Stage Two qualitative data, which provides for a fuller picture of the issues affecting working relations between paid staff and volunteers. Other directions for future research are also evaluated and the significance for management of the current research findings is highlighted.

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CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION TO VOLUNTEER RESEARCH

1.1 Chapter Introduction

Official acknowledgment of the economic and social impacts of volunteering occurred in 2001 with the declaration of the International Year of Volunteers by the United Nations General Assembly. Volunteering is a large-scale phenomenon with an estimated 4.4 million Australians volunteering during the year 2000, 32% of the civilian population aged over 18 years (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001a). These same ABS report identified volunteers as having contributed 704.1 million hours of voluntary work. The estimated economic contribution of voluntary produced Australian goods and services has been calculated to be approximately 8% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 1997 (Ironmonger 2000).

Volunteering offers the prospect of promoting positive social outcomes and community benefits or social capital (Paull 1999). The latter concept has been used to describe the links and connections formed by individuals through the process of volunteering, including the building of trust and reciprocity between citizens (Davis Smith 1999). Individuals who participate in volunteer activities may realise a number of benefits including the acquisition of new social and workplace skills. Self-esteem and confidence may be maintained when volunteers feel they are being valued and contributing members of society (The Volunteer Centre of NSW 1996). In meta-analysis of thirty seven volunteer studies, Wheeler, Gorey and Greenblatt (1998) reported that older volunteers scored higher on quality of life measures than their non-volunteer counterparts, while recipients of their services (vulnerable elders and disabled children) were less isolated and depressed than comparable non-recipients. The hypothesis that volunteer work increases earning capacity has also been subjected to empirical testing. Day and Devlin (1998) found that the return from volunteering amounts to between 6 and 7% of annual earnings. However, the empirical model tested in this study was unable to delineate between competing explanations for this positive return.

A number of trends will continue to influence the availability of volunteers in Australia. These include a growing retired population, a poor image of volunteering among younger people, increasing social inequalities and moves towards the privatisation of services and user-pays systems (ACOSS 1997; Warburton, Le Brocque and Rosenman 1998). The changing dynamics of the workforce also affect the availability of volunteer labour over time (for example, increased part-time work and higher female participation rates).

The following chapter introduces the topic of volunteering, canvasses definitional issues and explores relevant conceptual models. A brief overview of the literature focusing upon relations between paid and volunteer workers is also provided.

1.2 Defining Volunteering

In conducting volunteer research, the concept must first be defined. This is a complex task in view of the considerable scope for defining volunteering in terms of motives (altruism, self-interestedness), activities (leisure-oriented, work-oriented) and setting (voluntary organisations, government bodies). The study of volunteer behaviour draws upon a range of disciplines including psychology and sociology. Researchers and academics that have chosen to remain within their disciplinary boundaries may have missed opportunities to engage in the cross-pollination of volunteer research (Smith 1994). Despite such considerations, a substantial body of research into volunteer behaviour does exist.

Volunteer typologies are fairly developed and many definitions of volunteering have been applied to specific contexts. The terms ‘voluntaryism’, ‘volunteerism’, ‘voluntarism’, ‘volunteering’ and ‘voluntary sector’ have been used interchangeably. In practice, they represent different conceptual strands (Osborne 1998; Van Til 1988). The need to distinguish between these concepts and utilise them in the proper context has been acknowledged (Ellis 1985; Noble 1991). Building on the work of Van Til (1988), a typology of voluntary concepts was

outlined by Osborne (1998, p. 7) that defined 'voluntaryism' as a societal principle or building block for voluntary action in society. The second concept of this typology, 'volunteerism', incorporates two core principles of Van Til's (1988) typology. These two principles involve uncoerced individualism and actions that are deemed beneficial. The concept of 'volunteerism' as defined in this context is therefore focused upon the individual action involved. The final component of the typology proposed by Osborne (1998) is 'voluntarism'. The focus of voluntarism is upon the organisational or institutional aspects of voluntary action.

In his discussion of organised voluntary action, Osborne (1998) acknowledged that "whilst it is true that voluntary and non-profit organisations (VNPOs) may well contain volunteers, it is a mistake to see this as their defining feature", (p. 12). Mode of birth (e.g., member initiated) and method of government may be used to classify such organisations. Failure to recognise this can further blur the lines between the relevant concepts. As both Ellis (1985) and Noble (1991) have commented, it is important to differentiate between the 'voluntary sector' and 'volunteers'. Noble (1991) defined the voluntary sector as "non-government organisations that may or may not involve volunteers in service provision", (p. 7).

The preceding references have not provided an all-encompassing definition of volunteering. A recent background paper prepared for the United Nations (UN) Volunteers (Davis Smith 1999) identified five key elements to developing such a conceptual framework. These elements include rewards, the issue of free will, nature of benefit received from volunteer activity, organisational setting and level of commitment of volunteers. Cnaan, Handy and Wadsworth (1996) incorporated similar dimensions in their volunteer typology. A code of volunteering developed by Volunteering Australia (Cordingley 2000) has acknowledged principles such as:

- "Volunteering is not a substitute for paid work; and
- Volunteers do not replace paid workers and do not constitute a threat to the job security of paid workers", (p. 74).

In discussing the various elements of volunteering, Noble (1991) noted that the activity is done without expectation of monetary reward. The Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001a) study into voluntary work in Australia classified a volunteer as “someone who willingly gave unpaid help, in the form of time, service or skills, through an organisation or group”, (p. 44). The reimbursement of expenses (in full or part) or the provision of small gifts did not preclude people receiving such benefits from being considered as volunteers. These definitional aspects relating to the absence of financial gain and the reimbursement of expenses (to a value less than the work provided) help to distinguish between paid employees and volunteers. The issue of free will is a fundamental element of volunteering (Noble 1991). The willingness of people to give their time to an activity or organisation without compulsion and in consideration of the limited rewards available is a primary research question arising from the study of volunteering. In relation to free will and motivation to volunteer, peer pressure and social obligation factors have been found to exert some influence (Babchuk and Booth 1969; Freeman 1997).

A further aspect in defining volunteering is the nature of the benefit received from the activity in question. This element of the conceptual framework, as discussed in the UN Background Paper (Davis Smith 1999), draws a distinction between volunteering and pure leisure by providing that there must be a beneficiary to the activity other than (or in addition to) the volunteer. The scope to which a beneficiary is defined may be open to interpretation. For example, Darvill and Munday (1984), cited in Parker (1992, p. 2), defined a volunteer as being “a person who voluntarily provides an unpaid direct service for one or more persons to whom the volunteer is not related”.

Prior research has identified similarities between volunteering and leisure. Building upon a concept proposed by Stebbins (1982), Parker (1992) defined volunteering as being a type of ‘serious leisure’, the characteristics of which include a need to persevere with the activity, the tendency to have a career in it, durable benefits, unique culture and participant identification. Henderson (1984) outlined some common features including participant free will and various benefits

sought from both volunteer and leisure activities. The author goes on to suggest that motivation may act as a link to describe the relationship between leisure and volunteerism. Recently Stebbins (1996; 2000; 2001) has added to his seminal contribution and Harrington (2000/2001) has provided a retrospective commentary on volunteering as leisure.

Organisational setting refers to the environment in which volunteering occurs. Such setting may be defined broadly and can range from formal (organised) to informal (one-to-one) volunteer activities. Wilson and Musick (1997) distinguished between formal volunteering as being typically carried out in the context of organisations, with the work undertaken contributing to the collective good. They defined informal volunteering as ‘helping’ and noted that these activities (for example, assisting friends, neighbours and relatives) were more private and unorganised in nature. A number of sectoral differences may also affect the formal setting. With reference to the principles of volunteering established by Volunteering Australia, Cordingley (2000) noted, “there are compelling reasons for volunteer work to be undertaken only in non-profit organisations. Non-profit organisations, variously known as the third sector, non-profit, charitable, benevolent, voluntary, or non-government organisations are separate from both the state and the for-profit sector”, (p. 74). Unfortunately, this perspective of volunteer work does not encompass a variety of roles filled by volunteers within the public sector including museum guides, fire fighters, teacher’s aides, recreation assistants and information guides. Brudney (1999) suggested that the following characteristics apply to public sector volunteering:

- “The volunteer activity is sponsored and housed under the auspices of a government agency;
- As implied by this definition, the volunteer activity takes places in a formal setting, that is, in an organisational context;
- The volunteers do not receive remuneration for their donations of time and labour;

- Volunteers in the public sector are entitled to reimbursement for out-of-pocket expenses incurred in this activity;
- The volunteer's time should be given freely, rather than mandated or coerced;
- The volunteer activity is intended to benefit the clients of government agencies, although participants may certainly reap non-material benefits as well (for example, psychic and social benefits), and almost surely do; and
- Government-based volunteer programs place citizens in positions with ongoing responsibilities for service delivery (for example, client contact) or organisational maintenance (for example, assisting paid staff)", (p. 222).

The final element of the conceptual framework outlined in the UN Background Paper (Davis Smith 1999) is the level of commitment by which volunteer activity can be defined. Definitions such as that utilised by Du Boulay (1996) specify, "a volunteer is a person who, on a regular basis, contributes his or her time and energy", (p. 5). Such a definition may be considered too narrow to encompass one-off or episodic volunteer activities (for example, special event volunteering). In examining the various defining elements of volunteering, it is evident that determining a comprehensive and accepted definition of the concept may not be entirely feasible from an academic perspective. The previous discussion does, however, offer a wide ranging examination of issues relating to volunteering. The way in which each activity manifests itself in practice will now be examined with a view to delineating between specific types of volunteer activity.

Parker (1992) divided the various concepts related to volunteering into two broad categories. These included 'helping others' and 'self help'. Based on this delineation, Parker (1992) included the following types of volunteer activity within the first group: charity, philanthropy, benevolence, helping (similar to Wilson and Musick's concept definition) and caring. Mutual aid, friendship and transactional behaviour were the activities included in the second classification. The UN Background Paper (Davis Smith 1999) suggested a similar typology incorporating mutual aid or self-help, philanthropy or service to others, participation and

advocacy or campaigning. Depending upon the context in which the volunteer activity occurs, it is noted that a degree of overlap may exist between these categories.

Mutual aid activities include resource-exchange networks such as food cooperatives and self-help groups that support their members' efforts (Parker 1992). The UN Background Paper suggested that volunteering as an expression of self-help or mutual aid plays a vital role in enhancing community welfare. Philanthropy is distinguished from self-help activities in that the primary recipient of the volunteering effort is not a member of the group itself, but an external third party. This type of activity is usually well organised, conducted within voluntary organisations and increasingly in the public sector. Participation refers to the role that individuals can play in the governance process (for example, representation on local development bodies). Volunteer activities that involve lobbying for change at government level or performing checks on certain issues are inclusive of the advocacy function that may be performed by volunteers.

A further debate that has contributed to the lack of consensus in defining volunteering is whether only purely altruistic behaviours should be construed as volunteering or if an element of exchange exists in the volunteer relationship. In providing an overview of the relevant literature, Pearce (1993) suggested that a more appropriate term for use in the volunteer context might be 'prosocial' rather than 'altruistic'. As the author noted, altruism may involve a form of self-sacrifice on the part of the volunteer that may not be within their best interests. However, reference to 'prosocial' acts in relation to volunteering may appropriately convey behaviours that assist others while not causing detriment or restriction to the person undertaking them. The concepts of altruism and prosocial behaviour will be examined more closely in the following pages.

In light of the foregoing discussion, selecting an appropriate definition of volunteering may be viewed as a relatively subjective exercise. For the purposes of this study, volunteering is defined as "people exercising their own free will, for no

remuneration at all, in a formal setting to help others”, (Paull 1999, p. 27). This definition has been chosen because it is broad enough to encompass a range of volunteer roles, across various sectors, whilst still embodying the basic tenets of the volunteer concept. Voluntary associations are defined as “groups of people who share an interest and have agreed to pursue it jointly”, (Pearce 1993, p. 18). Smith (1994) referred to participation in voluntary associations and volunteering together as ‘volunteer participation’. The author noted that these concepts “seem qualitatively similar, and they have similar patterns of determinants”, in relation to participation (p. 244). By contrast, voluntary organisations are delineated as being “groups that produce a service or product for outsiders”, (Pearce 1993, p. 18). The proposed research will draw on links between these definitional frames with a view to enhancing explanatory capacity.

1.3 The Origins of Research into Volunteering

The voluntaryism principle has been traced back to the contribution of researcher Alexis de Tocqueville, during the nineteenth century, who commented that America was a “nation of joiners”, (Miller Mc Pherson 1981, p. 705). He identified that together with the state and private economy, democratic societies rely upon citizens acting together or individually for the common good. From a research perspective, the broader social behaviours of altruism and prosocial behaviour provide a theoretical framework for examining volunteering. Eisenberg and Fabes (1991) defined prosocial behaviour as “voluntary behaviour (e.g., helping, sharing and comforting) intended to benefit another”, (p. 36). Quigley, Gaes and Tedeschi (1989, p. 259) defined altruism as “an act that is beneficial to at least one other person, emitted voluntarily, and not motivated by the donor’s expectations of achieving any immediate reward for self”. Eisenberg and Fabes (1991) further delineated altruistic behaviours as including only those prosocial behaviours motivated by other-oriented or moral concerns. The cross-over between behaviours at this broader conceptual level ensures that the task of defining volunteering is even more complex.

Snyder and Omoto (1992) described the links between these social behaviours and volunteering noting that “volunteer acts are prosocial in nature and involve people devoting substantial amounts of their time and energy to aiding and benefiting others”, (p. 218). Despite this basic similarity, Snyder and Omoto (1992) commented that the considerable research undertaken to examine altruism and prosocial behaviour has concentrated on helping situations that are of an unexpected, immediate nature (Carlo, Eisenberg, Troyer, Switzer and Speer 1991; Knight, Johnson, Carlo and Eisenberg 1994). In the case of volunteering, however, people often seek out opportunities to help on a continued basis. Such delineation may be considered in terms of spontaneous or non-spontaneous helping behaviours. Benson, Dehority, Garman, Hanson, Hochschwender, Lebold, Rohr and Sullivan (1980) provide examples of both types of behaviour noting that assisting a person who has fallen may be considered spontaneous helping as compared to volunteering for a charity, where repeated interactions constitute non-spontaneous helping. Snyder and Omoto (1992, p. 217) noted, “the study of helping behaviour speaks to the issue of whether or not there is an intrinsically altruistic side to human nature”.

The internal mechanism that drives individuals to undertake altruistic behaviours is a fundamental research question that has been pursued by sociologists and psychologists over time. Personal norms, values and personality dispositions have all been proposed as a way of addressing the research question. As Callero, Howard and Piliavin (1987, p. 248) noted the “prediction of helping behaviour is generally thought to require consideration of personal and situational factors”. Schwartz and Howard (1981) argued that personal norms, representing internalised values of helping, are one of the significant determinants of altruism. Darley and Latane, 1970, p. 99) noted, however, that “a person’s helping behaviour is too complexly determined by situational factors to be accounted for by norms”. In relation to personality factors, Rushton (1981) considered that there was a consistent “trait” of altruism across situations. The ‘altruistic personality’ concept has been tested to determine in which contexts it is apparent (Carlo et al. 1991; Eisenberg, Milller, Schaller, Fabes, Fultz, Shell and Shea 1989) and the

motivations underlying the trait (Batson, Bolen, Cross and Neuringer-Benefiel 1986). Empathy (experiencing the emotional state of another) comprised one of the underlying drivers of the altruistic personality as proposed by Rushton (1981). Batson et al. (1986) found that empathetic concern together with the variables of self-esteem and ascription of responsibility were associated with increased helping, however, the underlying motivation was egoistic (to avoid shame and guilt for not helping) as opposed to altruistic. These findings provide a disciplinary foundation for the study of volunteering.

1.4 Research on Volunteering

There is a substantial body of research investigating the phenomenon of volunteering from the perspective of the individual. The following section will investigate some of the key research areas including motivations, attitudes and social background factors as they affect volunteering.

Understanding volunteer motives has been a popular subject for research. Wilson (2000, p. 218) likened the role played by motivations in relation to volunteering as being “constitutive of action, part of a discourse giving meaning to and helping to shape behaviour”. Clark and Wilson's (1961) seminal typology of incentives has been applied to understanding volunteer motivations. A study by Caldwell and Andereck (1994) found that over a two-year period, purposive/normative motivations (intangible satisfactions that result from feeling a valued goal is being achieved) were the strongest set of incentives associated with zoological volunteers maintaining their member status. Solidary rewards (defined by the authors as those derived from social interaction and group identification) were reported to be the second most important type of incentive, followed by material/utilitarian rewards (tangible rewards with a transferable monetary value).

Pearce explored the motivations of volunteer and paid workers in comparable organisations and highlighted the importance social interplay to unpaid staff (1983). She remarked that, “volunteers are more likely to report that they work for

the rewards of social interaction than are employees”, (p. 650). Service provision was a further motivational factor identified by Pearce as having greater influence upon volunteers (1983). Other researchers who have explored volunteer motivations include Lammers (1991), Miller (1985), Nichols and King (1998) and Zweigenhaft, Armstrong, Quintis and Riddick (1996).

There is an extensive body of literature concerned with volunteer attitudes. Pearce examined the job attitudes of volunteers and employees across eight organisations (1983). Volunteers were found to experience greater job satisfaction, have less intention of leaving and consider their activities more praiseworthy than the employees studied. Miller, Powell and Selzer (1990) reported that job satisfaction; organisational commitment and satisfaction with the work itself had an indirect effect on volunteer turnover. In their respective studies of organisational commitment and turnover by volunteers, Cuskelly (1994) and Dailey (1986) also applied similar attitude variables. These findings are pertinent in the context of the current study investigating the role of attitudes within a mixed workforce.

In a review of the determinants of volunteering, Smith (1994) noted that considerable research attention has been given to altruistic attitudes. He goes on to surmise that “this variable, when generalised, is sometimes a personality trait”, (p. 251). Bales (1996, p. 212) found that a unified personality trait existed to explain propensity to volunteer in the dimensions of ‘sense of effectiveness’, ‘sociability or generalisation’, ‘idealism or philosophical commitment’ and a ‘feel good’ factor. Allen and Rushton (1983) reported that volunteer participation was higher in the case of community health volunteers with greater efficacy (internal locus of control), empathy, morality, emotional stability and self-esteem.

Social background factors are other variables that have been studied in relation to volunteering. Smith's (1980) definition of this variable category includes demographic characteristics, ascribed social roles (physiological roles related to age and gender) and achieved social roles (those that are purely social and voluntary in nature). Level of education has been found to be a stable predictor of

volunteering (Miller McPherson and Rotolo 1996). Janoski and Wilson (1995) tested support for different pathways to voluntarism dependent upon the type of voluntary participation. In the context of self-oriented organisations (occupational and professional), the authors found that pathways to membership come indirectly from familial roots and were made possible by income and education. By contrast, Janoski and Wilson (1995) reported that pathways to community-oriented organisations (service, community and neighbourhood) were derived from family socialisation practices. With a view to predicting the sustained altruism of adult volunteers in a telephone crisis-counselling agency, Gil Clary and Miller (1986) examined the socialisation practices of parents.

Some previous studies have viewed these social role characteristics in terms of human, social and cultural capital. As Wilson (2000, p. 219) noted “individual-level theories of volunteering founded on behaviorist assumptions argue that the decision to volunteer is based on a rational weighing of its costs and benefits”. Ability to work is determined by resources such as education and income (human capital), family relations (social capital) and religion (cultural capital). Rotolo (1999) and Wilson and Musick (1997) have adopted this productive work approach in their respective studies of voluntary association participation and formal/informal volunteer work. Situational variables, external to an individual's environment, have been examined for their impact on volunteering. In an early study, Babchuk and Booth (1969) found that volunteer participation was strongly influenced by family members or friends asking for assistance, rather than these behaviours being self-initiated. Unger (1987) found that actual time available was unrelated to hours volunteered, whereas perceived time available was negatively related to hours volunteered.

1.5 Conceptual Models of Volunteering

A number of theoretical models have been developed to explain volunteering in recent years. Smith's (1966) psychological model of individual participation in voluntary organisations was an early contribution. In the process of testing this

model, personality traits were found to be the strongest set of variables for discriminating between active and inactive volunteers. It was found that general attitudes and specific attitudes played a role in differentiating between members and non-members of the voluntary organisations studied.

Rohs (1986) applied the model proposed by Smith (1966) to examine the participation decisions of an American volunteer youth group. As defined by “adaptability of thinking and social behaviour and liking for change and innovation”, the personality variable measured was ‘flexibility’ (Rohs 1986, p. 90). The findings of the study did not fully support the path model outlined by Smith (1966). As a consequence, Rohs (1986) suggested a revised model in which both social background and attitudinal factors directly influenced the dependent variable (length of service with the voluntary group).

Harrison (1995) applied the behavioural theories of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975) and planned behaviour (Ajzen 1985) to conceptualise an expanded theory of attendance motivation for episodic (discrete) volunteering. In studying the attendance decisions of homeless shelter volunteers, Harrison (1995) found support for the central proposition of the theory that “taking part in volunteer work at a specified time and place is a direct, positive function of the intention to do so”, (p. 373).

The impact of competing intentions and attitudes towards episodic volunteering on volunteer intentions were found to be moderated by the amount of experience that volunteers possessed. Harrison (1995) reported that perceived behavioural control (self-assessment of the probability of success if task attempted) was also a significant component of volunteer intentions. The author noted, however, that the results of the study may not generalise well to veteran volunteers as the relevant theory presupposes deliberate decision processes and this type of unpaid worker is more likely to be routinised in his or her approach to volunteering and less conscious of alternative activities.

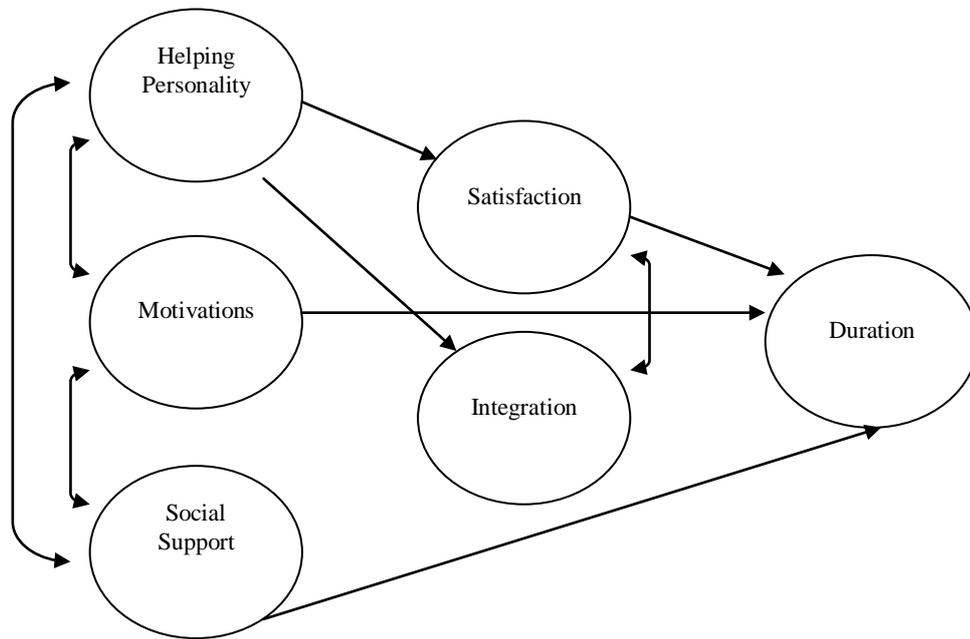
Unlike Harrison's study of episodic volunteering (1995), Omoto and Snyder (1995) tested a model based on earlier work (Snyder and Omoto 1992) to explain sustained helping in the context of AIDS volunteerism. The Volunteer Process Model specifies the psychological and behavioural features associated with the volunteer process as it unfolds over time. Omoto and Snyder (1995) propose the antecedent factors of the model to include personality attributes (that constitute a helping disposition), personal and social needs, motivations and features of peoples' lives that create supportive social climates for engaging in volunteer work. The second stage of the Volunteer Process Model is volunteer experience, and it is posited to include satisfaction and organisational integration. Duration of service and perceived attitude change are the key consequences of AIDS volunteerism defined by the model.

Omoto and Snyder (1995) constructed an inventory of motivations to measure the antecedent factor of the model based on a functional approach. This approach recognises the tenet that "different people can and do engage in the same behaviours for different reasons, in pursuit of different ends, and to serve different psychological functions", (p. 673). As a result of cross-validation, Omoto and Snyder (1995) indicated that the scale items of the inventory included the motivational factors of Values, Understanding, Personal Development, Community Concern and Esteem Enhancement.

In testing the structural model of the volunteer process (see Figure 1.1), AIDS volunteers were found to serve longer if they were strongly motivated (a direct path). Omoto and Snyder (1995) reported that the helping disposition construct directly and positively influenced satisfaction and organisational integration. Of these two items, however, only satisfaction is related to longer length of service. Social support was found to have a negative path to longevity of service. In other words, volunteers with greater access to social support were found to be in active service for shorter periods. To ascertain the generalisability of the model, Omoto and Snyder (1995) tested it in relation to perceived attitude change over the three process stages. It was found that unlike the model version testing length of service,

satisfaction, motivation and social support (marginally) all directly and positively influenced perceived attitude change towards AIDS volunteerism. Omoto and Snyder (1995) provided a significant contribution to volunteer research through the development and testing of the Volunteer Process Model in naturalistic settings using a panel methodology.

Figure 1.1: Volunteer Process Model



Source: Omoto and Snyder (1995, p. 679)

Penner and Finkelstein (1998) later used the Volunteer Process Model (Omoto and Snyder 1995) to examine dispositional and structural determinants of volunteerism. In predicting volunteer-related behaviours, however, the authors applied another model, namely the Role Identity Model of Volunteerism (Callero et al. 1987). The Role Identity Model argues that as people continue to volunteer, their commitment will increase until the volunteer role eventually becomes part of their personal identity. This transition then directly motivates as volunteers strive to match their behaviour to their volunteer role identity (Penner and Finkelstein 1998). The four volunteer behaviours predicted in the study by Penner and Finkelstein (1998) included length of service, amount of time spent volunteering, attendance at organisational meetings and contact with the primary beneficiaries of the

organisation's services. For this purpose, a three-wave panel methodology was employed with decreasing response rates recorded for each subsequent wave of the study.

The study findings supported the application of the Role Identity Model to volunteerism. In relation to the specific behaviours examined, Penner and Finkelstein (1998) found that length of service did not strongly correlate with the other volunteer behaviours that were studied. Penner and Finkelstein (1998) confirmed the earlier finding of Omoto and Snyder (1995) that satisfaction was significantly and positively correlated with length of service. The authors noted, however, that since this affective reaction was measured retrospectively in their study, it could not be ascertained whether satisfaction caused length of service or if length of service caused satisfaction. Of the motives proposed by Omoto and Snyder (1995), the altruistic 'Values' motive was found in the later study to be the only one significantly related to length of service. Contrasting with the results of the earlier research, however, Penner and Finkelstein (1998) found significant associations between the prosocial personality factors of empathy and helpfulness and length of service.

The functional approach to examining motivation employed by Omoto and Snyder (1995) has also been utilised by Gil Clary, Ridge, Stukas, Snyder, Copeland, Haugen and Miene (1998). The authors developed and tested a generic instrument of the functions served by sustained volunteer activity. The Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) includes six functional motivations of volunteering, including Values (eg, concern for others), Understanding (new learning experiences), Social, Career, Protective (ego) and Enhancement (ego). There exists some crossover between these aspects and the five motivational items contained in Omoto and Snyder's (1995) Volunteer Process Model. Gil Clary et al. (1998) found that in cross-validating the VFI, "the factor structures are similar regardless of whether one looks at people with or without experience as a volunteer, suggesting that the same motivational concerns are present in different phases of the volunteer process", (p. 1522). The authors further suggested that testing of specific forms of

volunteering may lead to circumstances where fewer or more functions are relevant (or where variations on core functions occur).

Omoto and Snyder (1995) tested satisfaction as a consequence of volunteering and found that the motivation construct had no path to satisfaction. Gil Clary et al. (1998) examined the matching of function-specific benefits to motives and predicted the outcomes on volunteer satisfaction. The authors found support for the proposition that functionally relevant benefits are directly related to the quality of volunteer experiences. A later study by Silverberg, Marshall and Ellis (2001), utilising the VFI, confirmed the importance of functional theory. The authors revealed that “volunteer job satisfaction was shown to be, in part, a result of the interaction between volunteer function and volunteer job setting”, (p. 88). A summary of the measures employed and findings obtained from the preceding research is contained in Table 1.1.

1.6 The Nexus between Paid Work and Volunteering

The current literature examining the role of volunteers in organisations, particularly in relation to employee interactions, is predominantly developed at a practical, as opposed to a theoretical level. Gidron (1984) highlighted the contextual importance of differentiating between paid and unpaid work. He recognised that while both volunteering and paid work requires the expenditure of an individual’s skills and abilities in a specific organisational setting, issues such as the incentives offered and level of organisational compliance (ranging from free will to economic necessity) effectively delineates between the two forms of work.

Table 1.1: Conceptual Models of Volunteering

<i>STUDY</i>	<i>MODEL</i>	<i>MOTIVATION</i>	<i>ATTITUDES</i>	<i>PERSONALITY</i>	<i>SOCIAL BACKGROUND</i>	<i>FINDINGS</i>
Smith (1966)	Sequential Specificity Model		General and specific attitudes to formal voluntary organisations (FVOs)	General personality traits		Attitudes (both general and specific) found to be better predictors of FVO members and non-members
Rohs (1986)	Sequential Specificity Model		Attractiveness and instrumental value of the volunteer organisation	The personality factor of flexibility was measured	Age, gender, marital status, income, education, occupational status, number of children	Social background and attitudinal factors were found to directly influence length of volunteer service
Omoto and Snyder (1995)	Volunteer Process Model	Community Concern, Esteem Enhancement, Understanding, Personal Development, Values	Volunteer satisfaction, organisational integration, perceived attitude change	Helping disposition measure	Age, gender, race, sexual orientation, household income, religious affiliation, education, employment, relationship status	Volunteers were found to serve longer to the extent that they were strongly motivated and satisfied
Harrison (1995)	Theory of Episodic Volunteer Motivation	Volunteer Intention - attendance attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, moral obligation	Attendance attitude - beliefs, evaluation of consequences			Intentions to volunteer episodically were found to have a strong, positive relationship with volunteer attendance
Penner and Finkelstein (1998)	Volunteer Process Model, Role Identity Model (Callero et al. 1987)	Motives developed by Omoto and Snyder (1995) used	Satisfaction with volunteer organisation and activities, organisational commitment	Prosocial Personality Battery (Penner et al. 1995)	Age, gender, income, education, occupational status, sexual orientation	Confirmed Omoto and Snyder's (1995) finding that satisfaction was significantly and positively related to length of service
Gil Clary et al. (1998)	Volunteer Functions Inventory	Values, Understanding, Social, Career, (ego) Protective, (ego) Enhancement				VFI assessed in terms of volunteer satisfaction and commitment. Volunteers to receive benefits congruent with personally relevant functions were found to be more satisfied and committed

Organisations utilising volunteer resources often seek to be able to integrate them into their organisational culture, working in cohesion with paid staff. Numerous guidelines and principles have been developed for achieving this purpose (Bursian 1996; The Volunteer Centre of NSW 1996; The Volunteer Centre UK 1990). Such guidelines recognise that volunteering is a complement and not a substitute for paid work in an organisational context. Volunteers should not be coerced to undertake any action and full consultation between all parties (management, employees and volunteers) should be maintained in order to monitor the level and nature of voluntary activity.

A manual developed for the purposes of volunteer integration (Volunteer Centre Victoria/Australian Council for Volunteering 1997) outlines how the defined volunteer standards can be utilised by organisations:

- “As a management tool for developing best practice for volunteer involvement in service provision;
- To plan, review and improve the accountability of volunteer services; and
- As evaluative criteria to assess the performance and effectiveness of volunteer services” (p. 2).

Volunteer and staff relations have received considerable attention in the relevant management literature at a practical level. Issues examined include achieving a better balance between the influence of volunteers and paid staff (Dunlop 1990) and reducing inter-group conflict at the organisational level (Schroder 1986; Wilson 1981). McClam and Spicuzza (1988) recognised the role of volunteer coordinators in emphasising the structural components of volunteer programs for integration purposes. These components incorporate recruitment, screening, training, supervision and evaluation. Other topics covered include acquiring volunteers, the roles they undertake and termination procedures (Geber 1991; Scott 1996).

In the academic literature, volunteering in organisational settings has been examined from a variety of perspectives. Mausner (1988) referred to the tenets of social exchange theory (MacNair 1981) when suggesting that volunteer-staff relations should constitute a balanced partnership founded on mutual trust. Pearce (1980) developed a placement model for tourism businesses focusing on the satisfaction of volunteer needs as a reward mechanism for unpaid service. The author noted that “in performing a volunteer task, individuals are likely to differ from paid employees in the primary needs they seek to satisfy, and in the skills and abilities they desire to utilise”, (p. 446). He identified various criteria for establishing volunteer roles (Pearce 1980). These included task separability from the domain of paid work, minimal training requirements, flexible scheduling of working hours, independence from the primary workflow and a high degree of performance autonomy. Pearce (1980) considered that the reciprocal nature of the placement model gave it some validity for both paid workers and volunteers.

To clarify productivity concerns, Duncombe and Brudney (1995) developed a model to determine the optimal (least cost) mix of volunteer and paid staff and applied it to the demand for fire services. In developing this model, the authors questioned whether the related costs of managing volunteers can at some point make the use of paid staff relatively cost-effective and if significantly more volunteers are required to maintain levels of service effectiveness comparable to what would be provided by paid staff. The results of the study provide empirical evidence that the demand for volunteer staff is inelastic (limited) and that imperfect substitution exists between paid and unpaid staff. Based on an analysis of municipal fire departments, the optimal (least cost) staff mix indicated that a department with an annual administration cost of less than \$600 (US) per volunteer should remain staffed solely by volunteers. Duncombe and Brudney (1995) suggested that if costs range between \$600 and \$1,500, then it might be more cost effective to integrate volunteers with paid workers. For costs exceeding \$3,500 per volunteer, however, it is thought that an all-paid department may provide “a better quality service despite a harsher service environment and greater service responsibilities”, (p. 369). Whilst this model was tested specifically in the setting

of American fire departments, as noted by Duncombe and Brudney (1995), “the results of this analysis should prove instructive for public administrators in other domains who must evaluate the economic costs and benefits of using volunteer and paid staff options”, (p. 379).

1.7 Chapter Summary

The preceding literature review has provided a comprehensive account of the body of research relating to volunteering. Apart from definitions, this knowledge has included the motives, attitudes, social role characteristics and situational factors that have been examined as variables impacting upon volunteering. Conceptual models that have combined these and other variables include the expanded theory of attendance motivation for episodic volunteering (Harrison 1995) and the Volunteer Process Model (Omoto and Snyder 1995). Whilst the issues raised in relation to organisational volunteering, including recruitment, training, supervision and evaluation, have received substantial attention, certain gaps have been identified in the research. In particular, the literature examining volunteer and employee interactions has been predominantly of a practical nature, with a lack of tested theoretical models that examine these relations.

The literature review provides the backdrop for a refined examination of volunteering in relation to the key elements of the current thesis (see Chapter 5). These elements provide the building blocks of the proposed conceptual model (see Chapter 6) and include aspects of organisational structure (Chapter 2), organisational flexibility (Chapter 2), human resource management (Chapter 3), strategy (Chapter 3), organisational commitment (Chapter 4) and organisational culture (Chapter 4). It should be noted that the theoretical and applied literature pertaining to these subjects has developed almost exclusively with regard to the paid workforce. The subsequent volunteering chapter will tease out the gaps in research relating to these topics from the unpaid perspective in order to provide a sound basis for the proposed research.

CHAPTER 2 – ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE AND FLEXIBILITY THEORY

2.1 Chapter Introduction

As noted in Chapter One, the research agenda examining volunteering could be advanced by drawing upon the concept of flexibility with a view to enhancing working relations between volunteers and paid staff. In clarifying the possible complementary links that flexibility theory provides to the volunteer and paid employee relationship, the theory acknowledges the desire of management to direct workers flexibly according to demand conditions. It also complements the overall relationships that organisations have with their volunteers. In essence, as volunteers are not tied to organisations for economic reasons and freely give their time, organisations have inherently less control over them and consequently must be willing to adopt more flexible approaches to attracting and retaining the services of volunteers.

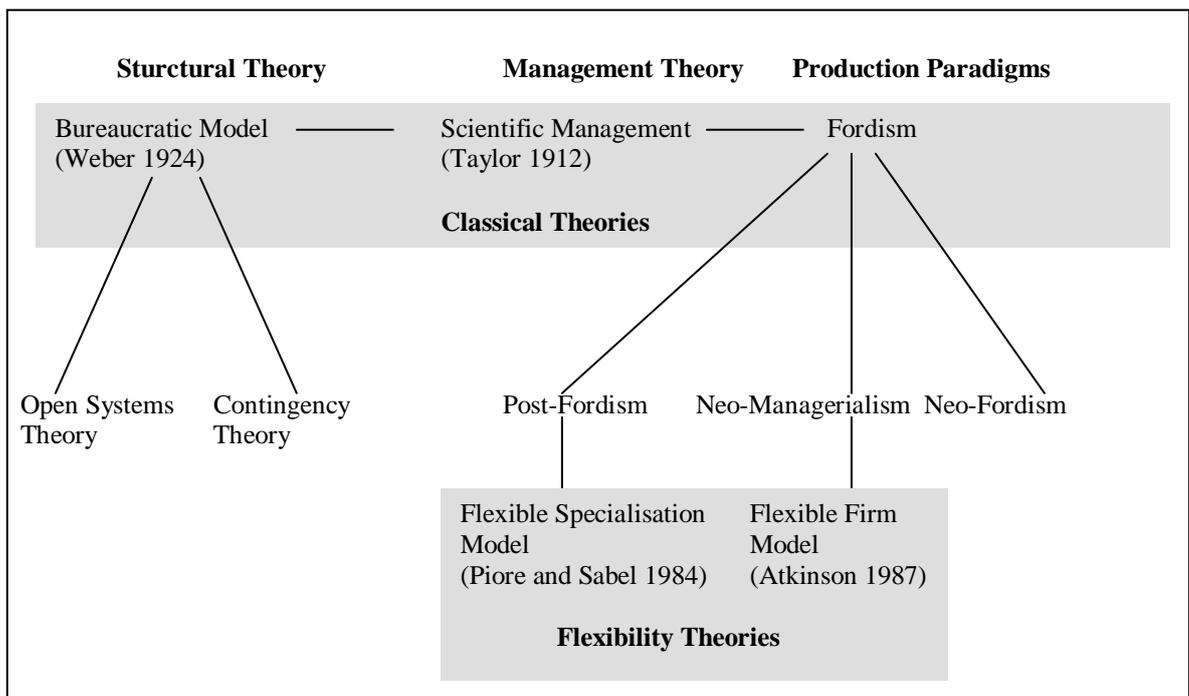
The focus of the current chapter is an examination of theory specifically relating to the flexibility debate. At a broader level, it is a comprehensive account of the research framework from which this debate has emerged (see Figure 2.1). This broader account begins with a review of the development of structural theory. The review provides a basis for exploring the various production paradigms that link organisational structure to the focus of the thesis, namely flexibility.

2.2 What is Structure?

Some structural issues were highlighted briefly in the previous chapter in relation to volunteering. Prior to examining this important concept, definitions of the organisational context and structure are provided. Thompson and McHugh (2002, p. 55) defined organisations as “systems of interrelated parts or sub-units each functioning to mobilise resources towards meeting wider goals”. Mintzberg (1979) described structure in this context as “the sum total of the ways in which it (the organisation) divides its labour into distinct tasks and then achieves coordination

among them”, (p. 2). A starting point for exploring structural theory is the seminal work of Weber originally published in 1924 (Pugh 1990). At the foundation of his work, Weber (1947) recognised three pure types of legitimate authority. These types were based on rational grounds, traditional grounds (established rights of ascendant groups) and charismatic grounds (personal qualities of leaders). It is on the basis of rational grounds, secured due to some legally established impersonal order, that bureaucratic administration was derived as a means of maximising organisational effectiveness.

Figure 2.1: Links Between Structural Theory, Management Theory, Production Paradigms and Flexibility Theory



Before proceeding to examine bureaucracy as a concept, it is important to review certain aspects of the historical era that affected its evolution. As Thompson and McHugh (2002) noted, “mainstream writings largely lack this kind of historical and comparative character”, (p. 20). Burns (1963) considered that the growth of bureaucracy, the social technology of industrialism, was made possible during the late nineteenth century due to the steady development of material technology. Developments in the later area included advances in transport and communications, the growth of free trade, international exhibitions and the

extension of the factory system (as opposed to handicraft based family owned structures) into new areas of production. Burns (1963) noted that the factory system “provided for the conduct and control of many complex series of production processes within the same plant”, (p. 17). Factory systems spurred the growth of organisational structure through the employment of managers and administrative officials to coordinate production activities. Burns (1963) recognised that “under such conditions, not only could a given industrial company grow in size, not only could the actual manufacturing processes be routinised, mechanised and quickened, but the various management functions could be broken down into specialisms and routines”, (p. 18). To a considerable extent, this system effectively divorced business ownership from business management.

2.2.1 Bureaucratic Model

Weber (1947) outlined a number of criteria by which bureaucratic administrations should function. Thompson and McHugh (2002) classified these criteria into two groupings relating to the employment relationship and work structures. Criteria to fall under the former category included full time employment, selection on the basis of technical qualifications, fixed salary, pension rights and the establishment of career ladders. Work structure factors included a clearly defined hierarchy of offices and a chain of command based on circumscribed responsibilities. Weber (1947) noted that this type of organisation “may be applied in profit-making business or in charitable organisations, or in any number of other types of private enterprises serving ideal or material ends”, (p. 9). Thompson and McHugh (2002) supported this view, recognising that Weber’s theories were not as separate from production (as opposed to administration) as they may appear.

Having established the historical perspective from which the theory developed, the comparative perspective draws upon other classical management theorists that influenced the bureaucratisation of the workplace. Taylor's (1947) theory of scientific management, originally published in 1912 (Pugh 1990), established a system of control over work using detailed rules. The theory, born of the same industrial era, had the capacity to complement Weber’s structural model. Principles

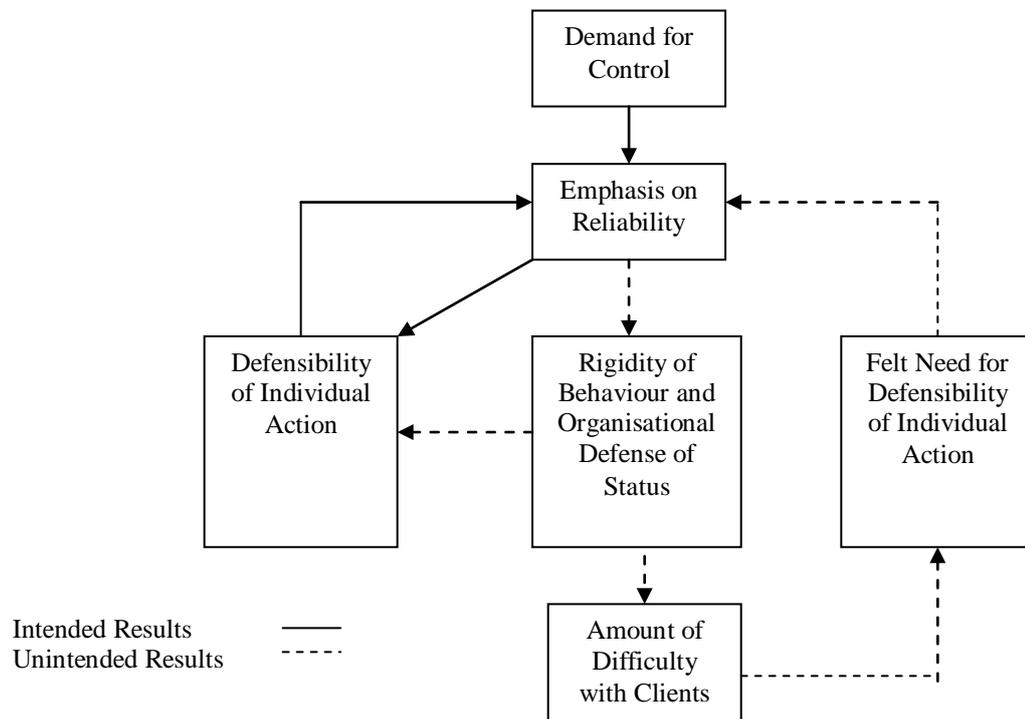
of the theory included developing a science for each individual work element, scientific selection and training of workers and the equal division of work and responsibility between management and workers. Thompson and McHugh (2002) noted some of the operational consequences of Taylor's management system. These consequences included extensive measurement of tasks, the requirements of a fragmented labour system (substitutable and semi-skilled workers) and the employment of non-production employees to monitor the system.

Taylor's (1947) theory of scientific management represented a practitioner work specifically developed to examine the issues at hand. Weber's ideas in relation to bureaucracy were not immediately applied to the context of organisations. Thompson and McHugh (2002) supported the view that the application of scientific management was limited to the shop floor of organisations, as opposed to supervisory levels. In contrast, bureaucratic administration was a more encompassing organisational concept. Motivation is a point of distinction between the theories that may explain these variations in application. In Weber's model, the worker was rewarded with a fixed salary and a clear career structure, compared with the differential piece-rate wages system (subject to production flows) espoused by scientific management. On this point, Taylor's (1947) theory may be likened to the demand driven focus of flexible labour theories (to be discussed in the second half of this chapter).

The merits of the bureaucratic model have been widely discussed in the academic literature. Some of the early debate was examined by March and Simon (1958) who reviewed research by Gouldner (1954), Merton (1940) and Selznick (1949). It was suggested that the theoretical systems espoused by these three writers were similar in that they examined certain dysfunctional consequences of bureaucratic organisation. Merton (1940) explored the repercussions of organisations demanding control over workers versus any employee personality changes likely to arise from structural factors (see Figure 2.2). The potential repercussions identified from an increased emphasis on worker reliability included reduced personalised relationships, internalisation of organisational rules and decreased decision making

choices. These outcomes were suggested to increase the rigidity of worker behaviour. Selznick (1949) also examined control techniques of the bureaucratic model, but unlike Merton (1940), did so from the perspective of delegation of authority (see Figure 2.3). Negative consequences raised in relation to delegation included the increased need for specialised staff training, which subsequently inflated staff turnover costs. In reviewing Selznick’s findings, March and Simon (1958), recognised that “delegation results in departmentalisation and an increase in the bifurcation of interests among sub-units of the organisation”, (p. 41). In such instances, sub-unit goals may be realised at the expense of global organisational goals and ensuing conflicts arise.

Figure 2.2: The Simplified Merton Model

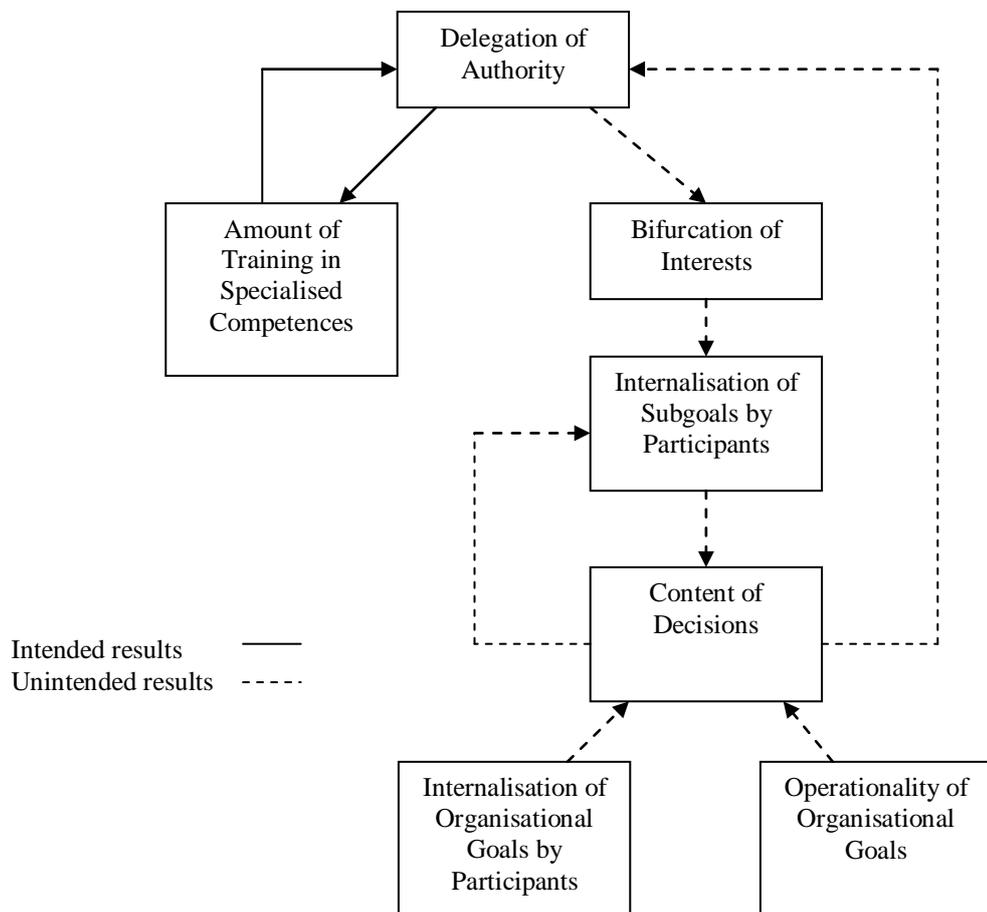


Source: March and Simon (1958, p. 41)

Gouldner (1954) examined the outcomes of the bureaucratic model resulting from the use of general and impersonal rules to regulate work procedures (see Figure 2.4). It was suggested that by defining minimum acceptable behaviour standards in rules, this would encourage workers to depress their behaviour to meet these

standards (at the expense of exceeding them). This being the case, supervisors would subsequently increase the immediacy of their supervision. March and Simon (1958, p. 45) noted “this response is based on the ‘machine’ model of human behaviour: low performance indicates a need for more detailed inspection and control over the operation of the ‘machine’”.

Figure 2.3: The Simplified Selznick Model

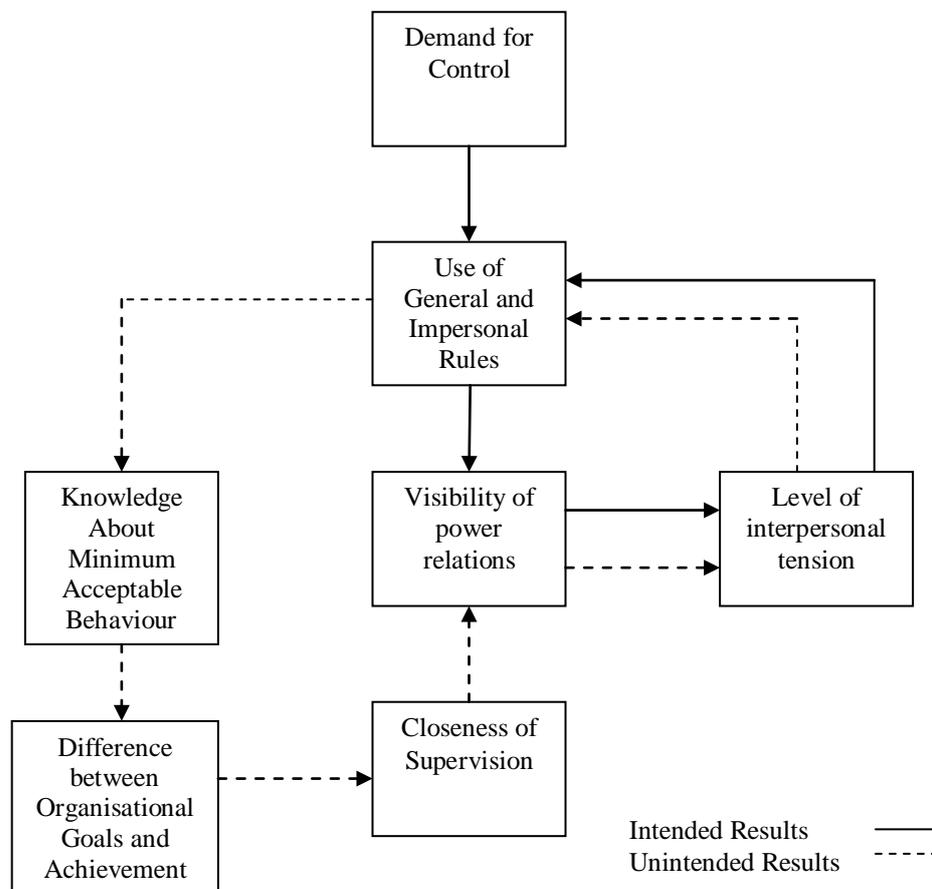


Source: March and Simon (1958, p. 43)

Jaques (1976) examined organisational strata contained in bureaucratic hierarchies and noted some of the problems which occur if optimal manager-subordinate relationships are not achieved in these settings. These problems included excessively long lines of command and increased paper pushing up and down the hierarchy (red tape). Such factors may divert managers from pursuing more long-

term goals. As early as 1963, Burns recognised that “there are signs that industry organised according to the principles of bureaucracy – by now traditional – is no longer able to accommodate the new elements of industrial life in the affluent second half of the twentieth century”, (p. 18). Writers to explore the relationship between efficiency and aspects of the bureaucratic model included Meltzer and Salter (1962) and Sigelman (1981). Meltzer and Salter (1962) reported a curvilinear relationship between the number of supervisory levels and productivity, whereas Sigelman (1981) theorised that a s-curve relationship (a positive slope interspersed with two negative ones) existed between bureaucracy and efficiency, in line with the ability of organisations to adapt to bureaucratic requirements. Armandi and Mills Jr (1985) noted that overall evidence of causal relationships between structural variables (in general) and efficiency is weak, due to the variety of measures used to assess efficiency.

Figure 2.4: The Simplified Gouldner Model



Source: March and Simon (1958, p.45)

Despite criticisms of the bureaucratic model, elements of it still exist in modern organisations. Mercer's (1999) results from a longitudinal study of members of a business school alumni found that the traditional hierarchical structure was still viewed as being overwhelmingly prevalent in organisations. As Thompson and McHugh (2002, p. 41) noted, "if anything, bureaucratic rules have been spreading more rapidly in the service sector", beyond the scope of the manufacturing sector for which they were originally designed.

2.2.2 Beyond the Bureaucratic Model

Organisational theory evolved from the stand-alone perspective of classical theories such as Weber's (1947) bureaucratic organisation to recognise that environmental elements impact upon organisational performance. Thompson and McHugh (2002) noted that the classical theories have retrospectively been named 'closed system theories' because of their treatment of organisations as self-sufficient entities entirely in control of their own futures.

2.2.2.1 Open System Approaches

The work of Thompson (1967) made a pioneering contribution to the development of more adaptive open system approaches. In examining the impact of technology on the social structure of organisations, the author postulated three types of interdependence stemming from technical requirements within organisations. Pooled interdependence occurred when each separate sub-unit provided a distinct contribution to the organisation as a whole. In a serial form, sequential interdependence transpired when the input of one sub-unit represented the output of another sub-unit. Reciprocal interdependence, the final form, occurred where the output of one unit formed the input of another and visa versa.

The adaptive approach of Thompson (1967) is illustrated in the courses of concerted action (coordination) suggested to manage these forms of interdependence. Standardisation, involving the establishment of routines and

rules, was offered as the means of coordinating pooled interdependence. Thompson (1967), however, noted that the operation of these rules “requires that the situation to which they apply be relatively stable, repetitive, and few enough to permit matching of situations with appropriate rules”, (p. 56). Sub-units that were sequentially interdependent faced coordination by plan to manage their activities. This method involved the establishment of schedules to govern work tasks in more flexible environments. The transmission of new information during each process in action (coordination by mutual adjustment) was the method used to coordinate reciprocal interdependence. Thompson (1967) recognised that the burden on communication and decision making resources varied according to the type of coordination employed.

2.2.2.2 Contingency Theory

Open system approaches, while representing an advance from classical theory, did not fully conceptualise the scope of environmental influences on organisations. As Thompson and McHugh (2002) noted “most writers within the general approach treat the organisation itself as the system, and although the wider environment determines the general goals such as economic survival in a stimulus-response manner, the environment still tends to be defined in terms of the single unit of organisation”, (p. 57). An extension of open systems theory encompassing these concerns was contingency theory. Proponents argued that the most effective organisations are those with structures and systems designed to be consistent with or ‘fit’ their environment. Contingency theory represented a move away from the ‘one best way’ thinking of classical theories to an ‘if-then’ approach. As Amis and Slack (1996) recognised “to this end, the organisation theory literature is littered with research attempting to isolate those factors upon which organisational structure is most contingent”, (p. 76).

Contingency theory gained widespread support during the 1970s but as noted by Thompson and McHugh (2002), “as a theory, it rested primarily on research that took place prior to its own development”, (p. 59). Research by Burns and Stalker

(1961) classified management systems and structures according to a range of environments, differentiated by the degree of predictability and stability. The authors posited two 'ideal types' of organisation, these being the 'mechanistic' and 'organismic' organisation. As Burns (1963) noted, "mechanistic systems are, in fact, the 'rational bureaucracy' of an earlier generation of students of organisation", (p. 18). Whereas mechanistic systems are best applied to stable environments, the organismic form allows for a greater degree of flexibility to deal with changing conditions. Structural characteristics of this organisation type included a network configuration of control and authority and a lateral (as opposed to a vertical) direction of communication throughout the organisation. Burns and Stalker (1961) raised organisational commitment as being a further point of difference between the two systems. In line with the reduced amount of control available to them over their work tasks, individuals within mechanistic systems were considered to demonstrate less commitment than their counterparts in organismic systems.

In studying the electronics industry in Britain, Burns and Stalker (1961) examined certain constraints of organisations moving towards more adaptive systems. Burns (1963) noted that "the ideology of formal bureaucracy seemed so deeply ingrained in industrial management that the common reaction to unfamiliar and novel conditions was to redefine, in more precise and rigorous terms, the roles and working relations", (p. 19). Variations in the mechanistic system that were evidenced as reinforcing formal structures included the spread of branches in bureaucratic hierarchies and the setting up of committees to deal with specific issues. This finding may assist in explaining why the more contingent view of organisations did not gain prominence in organisations until the following decade.

Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) extended the confines of contingency theory beyond the 'ideal types' suggested by Burns and Stalker (1961). By examining three high-performing organisations, the authors sought to acquire an "increased understanding of a complex set of interrelationships among internal organisational states and processes and external environmental demands", (p. 133). Positing that

organisational sub-units were likely to occupy different environments and therefore require different structures, the maintenance of a suitable balance between differentiation and integration was viewed as being of critical importance. Lawrence and Lorsch (1969) found a relationship between certain external variables (certainty and diversity of the environment), internal states of differentiation and integration, and the process of conflict resolution.

In a move away from investigating market environments, Woodward's (1958) seminal contribution to contingency research focused on technology. From the origins of a study examining principles of administrative theory and business success (from which no consistent correlations were found), a relationship was claimed between 'technological complexity' and organisational structure. This relationship was affected by organisational elements including the length of the chain of command and the ratio of managers and administrative staff to production personnel.

Thompson and McHugh (2002) provided that "one of the attractions of the theory generally is that any contingency can be posited as the key to structural variation and business performance", (p. 60). Further to this point, Amis and Slack (1996) noted that "the contingency variable accorded most attention, however, and to which the most importance has been attributed, is organisation size", (p. 76). From a program of research aimed at exploring structure and the influence of context, Pugh (1973) reported that size was the single most important element affecting role-specialisation. Organisation origin and history, ownership and control, location and technology were some of the other contextual factors to be included in the study. Replicating (to a degree) Woodward's (1958) research in relation to technology, Pugh (1973) suggested that "in general, our studies have confirmed that the relationship of technology to the main structural dimensions in manufacturing organisations are always very small and play a secondary role relative to other contextual features such as size and interdependence with other organisations", (p. 32).

Whilst postdating the popular era of contingency theory, the work of Miles and Snow (1984) recognised the basic tenets of this theoretical perspective by espousing the importance of fit. Fit in this context represented the dynamic pursuit by organisations to seek alignment with the environment and to arrange internal resources to match that alignment. The authors noted that, “successful organisations achieve strategic fit with their market environment and support their strategies with appropriately designed structures and management processes”, (p. 10). Miles and Snow (1984) suggested that variations in fit occur between these elements including minimal fit (essential for organisational survival) and tight fit (associated with excellent performance and a strong organisational culture). In relation to the future fit of organisations, a more flexible and comprehensive approach was proposed. Tentatively named the dynamic network organisation, Miles and Snow (1984) suggested that the new form was vertically disaggregated, allowing for a shift in the performance of some traditional internal functions to outside, independent organisations (for example, the franchise system).

Pfeffer (1997) reflected that contingency theory has, over time, faded from prominence in the academic and management literature. Reasons offered for this lapse in status include the complex explanatory structure of contingency theory and the degree of separation it demonstrates from the variables available for control by organisational decision-makers. Mintzberg (1979) noted that the majority of contingency studies are cross-sectional in nature, generating correlational relationships. As the author commented in relation to his own study, “that meant that causation could not be determined: there was no way of knowing whether the contingency factor gave rise to the design parameter, or visa versa”, (p. 220). Other methodological problems raised included the over use of subjective measures (for example, management perceptions of particular concepts) in light of objective alternatives being unavailable and narrow sample sizes. In summary, Mintzberg (1979) suggested that “if there is one theme that runs through these methodological problems, it is that a lack of attention to the building of a solid conceptual framework to understand what goes on in structures has impeded the serious researching of them”, (p. 225). In reviewing the evolution of management theory,

Volberda (1998) acknowledged the insights gained from previous research. While organisations represented open systems faced with uncertain contingencies, they were at the same time subject to rational forces and in need of determinedness and certainty. It is critically important for organisations to achieve and maintain a workable balance between these contradictory pressures.

2.2.3 Reworking the Bureaucratic Model

While not suggesting that academic research has come full circle in re-emphasising the potency of bureaucratic administration, various frameworks have been devised that draw upon and extend Weber's (1947) model. From the findings of contingency research, Pugh (1973) reported on the development of a structural taxonomy of organisations. Full bureaucracy, like Burns and Stalker's (1961) category of mechanistic systems, was the closest type to Weber's ideal of bureaucratic administration. The characteristics of high levels of activity standardisation, impersonal direction and concentrated authority were surmised to exist in the context of central government. Workflow bureaucracies, in contrast, were posited to be located in large manufacturing businesses. These businesses while being highly structured in terms of work scheduling provided more scope for decentralised authority. Personalised bureaucracies, prevalent in the smaller branches of manufacturing businesses and local government settings, demonstrated a tendency towards less structured activities and more personalised methods of control.

Mintzberg (1979) proposed five configurations to account for the structuring of organisations. These configurations were posited to evolve naturally from the study of coordinating mechanisms, design parameters and contingency factors (see Table 2.1). The author suggested that certain coordinating mechanisms exist to explain how organisations arrange their work. This supposition appears to stem from the work of Thompson (1967) who proposed various coordinated actions for managing different types of interdependence. As an example, coordination by mutual adjustment is characterised by informal communication and is advocated by

Mintzberg as being suitable for use in simplified organisations (1979). This view, however, contrasts with Thompson’s position in that he suggested coordination by mutual adjustment was a more appropriate mechanism for complex structures characterised by reciprocal interdependence.

Table 2.1: Mintzberg’s Structural Configurations

Structural Configuration	Coordinating Mechanism	Key Part of Organisation	Type of Decentralisation
Simple Structure	Direct Supervision	Strategic Apex	Vertical and Horizontal Centralisation
Machine Bureaucracy	Standardisation of Work Processes	Technostructure	Limited Horizontal Decentralisation
Professional Bureaucracy	Standardisation of Skills	Operating Core	Vertical and Horizontal Decentralisation
Divisionalised Form	Standardisation of Outputs	Middle Line	Limited Vertical Decentralisation
Adhocracy	Mutual Adjustment	Support Staff	Selective Decentralisation

Source: Mintzberg (1979, p. 301)

In attempting to overcome what Mintzberg (1979) saw as a major flaw in the relevant literature of the time, the author examined organisational functioning prior to describing structure. Five basic organisational parts were considered including the operating core, the strategic apex, the middle line, the technostructure and support staff. As an insight into how these parts were defined, the operating core comprised those workers held to be most directly involved in production activities, including the obtaining of inputs, the transformation of inputs to outputs and the distribution of outputs. Support staff, however, were positioned at varying hierarchical levels comparable with their service beneficiaries. Mintzberg (1979) provided early recognition of the movement by organisations to outsource some of these support services.

Of the structural configurations, Mintzberg’s machine bureaucracy most closely embodied Weber's (1947) ideal of bureaucratic administration with its focus on specialisation, formal operating procedures, centralised decision making power and the accompanying complex administration structure. Thompson and McHugh (2002) noted, however, that “if the five configurations are examined, we can see that all but adhocracy are indeed variations on bureaucracy”, (p. 40). Mintzberg

(1979) acknowledged the distinctiveness of this form as being a more organic structure, with little formalisation of behaviour, coordinated by way of mutual adjustment. He considered that the five structural configurations represented 'pure' types of structure (he compared the term to Weber's 'ideal' types) and recognised that hybrids of the configurations and transitions between them were likely to occur. Mintzberg's (1979) conceptual framework provides a significant contribution to extending the theory related to structure in a cohesive manner.

2.2.4 Research on Organisational Structure – A Summary

Before pursuing a divergent line of research, it may be appropriate to recapitulate and identify some themes in the preceding literature on organisational structure.

Firstly, structural theory from bureaucratic administration through to contingency theory has developed in the context of the manufacturing sector. The work of the classical theorists such as Weber (1947) was justified in adopting this stance due to the prevalence of production processes (spurred by factory systems) at the time. Over time, however, service industries have become more prominent in terms of wealth generation and labour utilisation and the later open system and contingent approaches do not appear to fully acknowledge this shift in terms of the influence on structure. One reason for the lack of recognition may have been the acceptance by theorists such as Pugh (1973) that "in general, there is less formal structuring of activities in service organisations than in manufacturing industries", (p. 26).

Despite failing to recognise the importance of service industries, structural theories did incorporate movement away from the traditional view of structure equating to stable environments. An early contribution in this direction includes the organismic system proposed by Burns and Stalker (1961). The adhocracy configuration outlined by Mintzberg (1979) also emphasises the significance of flexible, organic structures. The comments by Mintzberg (1979) concerning the methodological limitations of contingency theory may be applied further afield to other areas of structural theory. In general, there also appears to be a scarcity of longitudinal and

panel type studies examining the effects of change on structure over time. Exceptions include the work of Mercer (1999) and Woodward (1958). In due course, the thesis will determine the extent to which these concerns apply in relation to flexibility research.

2.3 Fordism, Post-Fordism and Neo-Fordism

Thompson and McHugh (2002) noted that, “for mainstream organisational theory, challenging bureaucratic designs ultimately rests on change in the sphere of structure”, (p. 154). For organisations operating in environments of increasing business uncertainty created by changing economic, political and social conditions, new systems of production evolved that did indeed challenge these designs and subsequently affect structure. It is these systems that will now be reviewed largely in light of the principles and assumptions (paradigms) of Fordism, post-Fordism and neo-Fordism.

The preceding examination of classical theory (bureaucratic model, scientific management) neglected to encompass the contribution to management theory of Fordism. The omission was made at that point because much of the discussion in the related literature about progress towards flexibility appears to stem from the paradigms of post-Fordism and neo-Fordism. Examining the principles of Fordism provides a starting point for tracing this progression. The origins of Fordism have been traced back to Henry Ford’s practices in the mass production of motor vehicles. Defined by Ioannides and Debbage (1997, p. 231) as “the dominant model of industrial production in western society, (circa 1920s – 1970s)”, this model was characterised by the mass production of standardised goods along assembly lines, resource-driven production and labour beset by high degrees of job specialisation. Thompson and McHugh (2002) recognised the links between Fordism and Taylorism noting that some of Ford’s innovations extend Taylorist principles such as job fragmentation. Gartman (1998) outlined the processes by which such fragmentation was achieved including the use of specialised machines and moving lines that linked workers in a precisely timed and controlled system of

production. It is recognised, however, that the trade-off faced by Ford and other mass producers for such specialisation, enforced by expensive technologies, was product standardisation (in Ford's case, one model of car produced, design unchanged from year to year).

A new pattern of consumption developed hand in hand with the mass production capabilities of the Fordist model. Ford instituted a \$5 per day wage, which doubled the income of the majority of his workers at that time, and he encouraged them to spend it by purchasing durable goods such as the company's own product. As Pollert (1991) remarked, "it is supposed to have been a 'virtuous circle' of sustained growth", (p. 6). Boyer (1997) noted some of the structural features of Fordist organisations including centralised decision making, vertical integration and networks of subcontractors providing a cushioning effect for demand fluctuations and cost reduction targets. The author goes on to surmise that "not only was this organisational form consistent with the objectives of Fordism, it was also compatible with the macroeconomic dynamics of the postwar period", (p. 9).

Towards the end of the 1960s, the effectiveness of the Fordist model was being influenced by several factors. As Gartman (1998) noted, Fordism had spread throughout Europe, Asia and Latin America by that time, increasing international market competition for mass-produced goods. Boyer (1997) provided that the model's slow reaction to economic change, loss of contact with user (customer) expectations and neglect of quality were some of the counterproductive outcomes of Fordism. The author further remarked that "it would not be an exaggeration to speak of a crisis of Fordist organisation, given that by the 1980s almost all of its elements appeared to be hampering competitiveness", (p. 15).

After dealing with the inherent rigidities of Taylorism and Fordism, moves were made to adapt to more flexible systems of production. Friedman (2000) and Hyman (1991) outlined some of the elements present during the 1980s that necessitated the transition between modes of production. These factors included the linking of world stock markets by global technologies, realignment of

international capital from traditional western to Asian economies, the introduction of new organisational forms, service work exceeding the contribution of the manufacturing sector and deregulation of labour markets. Within this context “the focus had switched to economies of scope and high levels of product differentiation through small batch production of various specialised commodities targeting a multitude of market niches”, (Ioannides and Debbage 1997, p. 230). Howell (1992) and Hyman (1991) have viewed post-Fordism in terms of the Flexible Specialisation model of production. Aspects of the theory will be subsequently discussed in reference to this flexibility model. Neo-Fordism has been associated with the interpretations of the French regulation school of theorists (Aglietta 1979; Boyer 1988). Hyman (1991) delineated between these two concepts referring to post-Fordism as a fundamental displacement of the Fordist model and neo-Fordism as a significant reformulation. Aglietta (1979) viewed neo-Fordism in respect to the expansion of Fordist labour processes into new areas of productive capacity such as services.

Moving on to examine neo-Fordism, regulation theory draws on Karl Marx’s political economy in its theoretical integration of the workplace and society. For regulationists, however, capitalism is neither automatically stabilised by market fluctuations nor is it destabilised through a series of crises (as according to the writings of Marx). The system develops through a succession of ruptures in the ongoing reproduction of social relations. Neo-Fordism constitutes a flexible accumulation and regulation mode. Gottfried (2000) noted “the regime of accumulation specifies the logic of the production paradigm, that is, the dominant mode of economic growth and distribution, and the corresponding labour process, patterns of consumption, and configuration of inter-firm relationships”, (p. 237). Hyman (1991) argued that a regime of accumulation can only be stabilised by an appropriate mode of regulation, encompassing the social institutions in which production takes place.

As noted above, the new era of flexibility imposed by neo-Fordist production extended to the labour process. Boyer (1987) outlined various dimensions of the

wage/labour nexus in which the pursuit of flexibility was a response to the upheavals of the Fordist model. These dimensions included technology, vertical and hierarchical demarcations, the ability to hire and fire, the ability to vary working hours and elasticity of wages to market circumstances. Hyman (1991) recognised that “the supposed emergence of the flexible firm as a paradigmatic management strategy, the intensification of labour market segmentation, the reduction or removal of state welfare provision, the exclusion of unions from the corridors of power: all can be identified as components of the emerging neo-Fordist mode of regulation”, (p. 275).

In reviewing the tenets of regulation theory, Friedman (2000) has indicated that the treatment of destabilising influences in terms of technical or economic factors only, tends to over emphasise the power of social norms and institutions to stabilise society. Hyman (1991) suggested that the questionable status of the mode of social regulation (as an empirical generalisation or ideal model) and the causal linkage between it and the regime of accumulation indicates that “it is evident that regulation theory is more confident and coherent as a characterisation of the past than an analysis of the present, let alone as a prognosis of the future”, (p. 275). The labour market effects of neo-Fordist flexibility will be briefly discussed towards the close of this chapter.

In discussing the evolution of the Fordist paradigm, Pollert (1991) noted that it is necessary “to break the illusion of stereotyped stages of industrial development, whether from Fordism to post-Fordism or mass production to flexible specialisation”, (p. 22). In a study of travel industry production processes, Ioannides and Debbage (1997) concurred stating “it is inappropriate to discuss a clean break from the standardised Fordist industry of the 1960s and 1970s towards a totally new post-Fordist travel industry form”, (p. 237). Nichols (2001) pointed out “not the least of the difficulty with the Fordism versus post-Fordism dichotomy is that some whole industries and parts of industries were never Fordist in the first place”, (p. 186). Despite these concerns, new paradigms continue to be proposed, it may be suggested, in an effort to augment the existing body of knowledge and

account for change over time. A recent example included Bartezzaghi's (1999) “strategically flexible production” paradigm.

The preceding literature has highlighted the dangers inherent in attempting to provide a linear account of the evolution of various production models. This caution can also be extended to the related examination of structural theory. By covering these topics, however, a comprehensive exploration of the research framework surrounding the flexibility debate has been provided (see Table 2.2). Before refining the theoretical focus of the proposed research, labour market flexibility, the broader concept of flexibility will be defined

Table 2.2: Summary Features of Fordism and Post-Fordism

	Fordism	Post-Fordism
Markets		
	Mass Markets	Niche Markets
	Standard Products	Differentiated Products
	Stability	Volatility
Production Strategies		
	Mass Production	Small Scale Production
	Long Runs	Small Batches
Technology		
	Automated Assembly Line Production	Programmable Computerised
	Specialised Single Purpose Machines	Multi-Use Equipment
Labour Market		
	State Intervention to Stimulate Employment	Limited State Role
	Large Industrial Workforce	Reduction in Size of Industrial Workforce
Work Organisation		
	Taylorist	Participative
	Technical Control	Democratic
	Hierarchical	Dispersed Control
	Extreme Division of Labour	Task Integration
	Repetitive Work	Task Variety
	External Control	Worker Autonomy
	Deskilling	Multi-Skilling
	Management Defined Tasks	Worker Defined Tasks
Industrial Relations		
	Zero Sum	Co-operative
	Adversarial	
Management Techniques		
	Large Inventories	“Just-in-Time”
	Stress on Control	Stress on Rational Efficient Production
	Managerial Prerogative	Worker Participation
	Centralised Management Decision Making	Co-operative Decision Making

Source: Harley (1995, p. 14) (based on Harvey 1989; Lash and Urry 1987; Matthews 1989a; Matthews 1989b; Piore and Sabel 1984)

2.4 Defining Flexibility

The concept of flexibility has been applied to a wide range of issues and levels of analysis (Blyton and Morris 1991; Hakim 1990). Pollert (1991) argued that the notion has become blurred in meaning and that the “new orthodoxy of ‘flexibility’ in descriptions of changing employment and work organisation has caused enormous confusion by imposing a single typology on a diversity of social realities”, (p. 3). As the author of one of the foremost theories of labour market flexibility, Atkinson (1987) noted the inexactness of the concept and argued that “the range of subjects which might be drawn within its ambit is significant”, (p. 88). He further contends that “it means vastly different things to different constituencies; and its use is often blatantly ideological, reflecting our cultural disposition to value flexibility over inflexibility”, (p. 88). Volberda (1998) concurred in noting “managers intuitively understand flexibility to mean mobility, responsiveness, agility, suppleness, or liveness. The term has a positive connotation: flexible organisations are better”, (p. 2). On an applied basis, Brewster, Dowling, Grobler, Holland and Warnich (2000) explored the focus of flexibility between the national level and the organisational level. The rigidities of labour market regulation were the concern of the broader national context, while at the organisational level the emphasis on labour market flexibility is defined as “the integrative use of employment practices and organisational structures to create a capacity to adapt and manage innovation”, (p. 82). These issues raised in relation to defining flexibility, attest to the difficulty in obtaining an adequate, encompassing interpretation of the concept.

Examining flexibility as defined in a particular theoretical context or model, can provide additional insights to the concept. In conducting a review of the flexibility concept from a critical perspective, Pollert (1991) noted that such a review should “take place both inside the agenda set by the flexibility debate, and outside it, in terms of offering alternative interpretations and perspectives”, (p. 18). In providing

an overarching examination of these alternatives, the author considered literature in relation to the manpower policies of the Flexible Firm model (Atkinson, 1987) and the neo-Fordist form proposed by the French regulation school. Pollert (1991) surmised “and for still others, flexibility is part of the option provided by a ‘new industrial divide’ to transform both production and markets from a system based on mass production to one of ‘flexible specialisation’”, (p. 18).

In a review of labour market flexibility in Australian industry, Harley (1995) defined flexibility in relation to the alternatives described by Pollert (1991). In reference to the contribution of post-Fordism to the flexibility debate, Harley (1995) noted that the theory espoused labour process flexibility. In the author’s words, “that is, it is concerned with flexibility in the various processes by which labour power is expended in the production of commodities, most notably the forms of technology and the work organisation employed”, (p. 2). As previously indicated, the Flexible Specialisation model (Piore and Sabel 1984) has been aligned with the post-Fordist school of theory (Howell 1992; Hyman 1991).

Recognising the influence of the Flexible Firm model (Atkinson 1987) in promoting flexibility in industry, Harley (1995) associates the model with the management-driven “neo-managerialism” school of theory (Clegg 1990). This positioning contradicts Hyman's (1991) supposition that the model is a component of the neo-Fordist mode of regulation and Thompson and McHugh's (2002) association of it with post-Fordist perspectives. Despite this confusion over theoretical boundaries, in recognising Harley's (1995) view, it is suggested that the model concentrates on achieving labour market flexibility. This type of flexibility is defined as “the capacity of managers to shift workers between jobs and tasks, to take on and lay off labour and to vary pay rates and working hours in line with the economic needs of the workplace”, (Harley 1995, p. 1). Ursell (1991) noted the ability of organisations to flexibly adjust labour resources is a multi-fold process involving one or many of the following conditions:

1. “For any individual worker, a wider range of tasks and abilities and a willingness to employ them on behalf of the organisation which purchases them;
2. A greater variety in the time periods of employment;
3. A greater ability by the employer to dispense with certain workers when not strictly essential to the production process (an ability which may be grounded in the replacement of traditional contracts of employment by franchise and sub-contractor relations, and/or the greater use of part-time and temporary employees; and
4. A greater capacity among workers (in both external and internal labour markets) to be so deployed, necessitating changed attitudes for all, and skill and time-management change for some”, (p. 312).

The inference from these work practices as Harley (1995) recognised, is that the ‘neo-managerialist’ school, while emphasising the license of management, may sometimes create negative impacts for workers in terms of job security and autonomy.

This critical perspective represents a central theme of the final school of theory that Harley (1995) examined in relation to flexibility. Neo-Fordism was surmised as providing a critique of the neo-managerialist and post-Fordism schools, in which the economic benefits of flexibility accruing to capital (industry, organisations) were acknowledged as being likely achieved at the expense of workers performing deskilled types of work. Harley (1995, p. 26) pointed out that while neo-Fordism does not specifically advocate flexibility, it proposes “a combination of labour market and labour process forms of flexibility” as a solution to the critical issues raised of the other theories. These issues will be expanded upon in the course of outlining the two main schools of theory that “have been responsible for promoting flexibility in industry”, (Harley 1995, p. 1). The examination of the Flexible Specialisation model (Piore and Sabel 1984) and the Flexible Firm model (Atkinson 1987) will also draw upon links to the neo-Fordist literature in

considering labour market effects. Prior to undertaking this examination, the distinct forms of flexibility that can operate in organisations will be reviewed.

2.5 Forms of Flexibility

The capacity for exercising flexibility on the part of organisations has been chronicled by numerous authors (Atkinson 1987; Brewster et al. 2000; Rimmer and Zappala 1988). Tailby (1999) noted that “it has been discussed in relation to the adaptability of wages; the versatility of workers within the production process; the ease of engaging and dismissing employees; working-time patterns; labour’s mobility between firms, industries and geographic regions; employees’ career paths and expectations; and many other issues”, (p. 457). These issues are incorporated to varying degrees in the following recognised types of flexibility: functional, numerical, temporal and financial.

Atkinson (1987) defined functional flexibility as “the ability of firms to reorganise jobs, so that the jobholder can deploy his or her skills across a broader range of tasks”, (p. 90). Organisational environments where employees are required to utilise multiple skills, work jobs at different skill levels or shift between functions may be fostered by product market volatility and blurring of vocational/skill boundaries due to technological change. According to Harley (1995), functional flexibility corresponds to the neo-managerialist school of theory if the flexibility is management driven. The post-Fordist perspective considers functional flexibility to be associated with a return to craft principles of production (as opposed to mass production), requiring multi-skilled workers.

Unlike functional flexibility, numerical flexibility involves adapting the size of the workforce easily and at short notice to the prevailing level of economic activity. In the face of environmental pressures such as short-term demand fluctuations and increasing competition, instituting such flexibility may lead to efficient and sustainable work patterns, and organisations relieved of the costs associated with a fixed labour force (National Economic Development Office 1986). It is typically

casual, part-time and subcontracted workers who are employed to deliver this type of flexibility (Tailby 1999). Factors affecting an organisations' capacity to respond in a numerically flexible manner to workload fluctuations include "(a) the scale, frequency and predictability of these workload fluctuations; (b) the legal, administrative and labour market possibilities for securing additional workers who will not enjoy continuity of employment; and (c) the nature of the jobs in question", (Atkinson 1987, p. 90).

These factors also apply to the closely related concept of temporal, working-time or internal numerical flexibility. Whereas numerical flexibility may require the use of additional workers in order to meet workload fluctuations, temporal flexibility is the process of adjusting the "quantity and timing of labour input without modifying the number of employees", (Rimmer and Zappala 1988, p. 567). Changing work patterns that have contributed to temporal flexibility include the incorporation of traditional work arrangements (overtime, shiftwork) as standard measures not incurring financial penalties and the use of new arrangements such as flexitime, variable hours contracts and zero hours contracts.

Tailby (1999) defined financial flexibility as "a compensation system designed to facilitate the development of flexible patterns of work, in particular numerical and functional flexibility", (p. 83). The author goes on to examine this duality of purpose in recognising that the determination of wage rates by market forces provides for cost-efficient numerical flexibility and the provision of incentives for the core workforce to enhance its skills' base relative to pay is compatible with functional flexibility. Rimmer and Zappala (1988) included a similar component, labelled wage flexibility, in their flexibility typology.

As noted by Holland and Deery (2002), organisational flexibility represents a structural response to the development of work patterns compatible with encouraging functional, numerical, temporal and financial flexibility (examples of which are outlined in Table 2.3). With reference to Atkinson (1984), the author noted that there is little new in the flexible work patterns examined. What is

distinct, however, is the explicit interest by management in developing integrative or multiple forms of organisational flexibility.

Table 2.3: Flexible Work Options

Type	Examples	Definition/Aims
Functional		
	Job Enlargement	Provision of tasks that extend that content or quantity of work (horizontal extension of responsibilities)
	Job Enrichment	Provision of tasks that add to the quality of work (vertical extension of responsibilities)
	Job Rotation	Transferring workers between various jobs or departments to improve work versatility
Temporal		
	Flexitime	Where the hours worked may vary, typically in terms of start/finish times, however, a set number of hours must be worked within a specified time period (usually a month)
	Zero Hours Contracts	A contract where the work hours are not specified, the worker is expected to work at the request of the employer/host organisation
	Variable Hours Contracts	Similar to zero hours contracts, however, a minimum number of working hours to be completed within a particular period is specified (but no maximum is set)
	Shift Working	Working patterns structured to meet demand conditions that extend beyond the normal working day
	Voluntary Reduced Hours	Workers choose to reduce their working week (and pay in the case of employees) to assist with domestic duties or pursue some other interest
	Part-time Permanent Work	Work that comprises less than 35 hours per week with entitlements to holiday and sick leave
Numerical		
	Job Sharing	Usually 2 people share the tasks of one full-time position
	Casual Work	Workers (full-time or part-time) who are excluded from non-wage benefits (holiday/sick leave) and are engaged subject to demand conditions
	Fixed-term Contracts	Worked are contracted for a limited but specified period, often a couple of years

Sources: Friedrich, Kabst, Weber and Rodehuth (1998); Hall, Harley and Whitehouse (1998); Kramar (1998); Reilly (2001); Volberda (1998)

2.6 Organisational Flexibility

Brewster et al. (2000) recognised the importance of organisational flexibility in providing management with a template to adjust and utilise available human resources in response to changing demand. Reference has been made to the two theoretical models recognised as articulating and fostering labour process flexibility and labour market flexibility in industry, with direct and indirect effects for organisations (Harley 1995). These models are the Flexible Specialisation model (Piore and Sabel 1984) and the Flexible Firm model (Atkinson 1987).

2.6.1 Flexible Specialisation Model

The Flexible Specialisation model has been viewed as a post-Fordist production response for suggesting a break in the previously dominant configuration of mass production and consumption (Harley 1995). Piore and Sabel (1984), the American authors of the model, proposed certain external factors as contributing to this rupture. These factors, of a historical nature, included the introduction of the floating exchange rate, social unrest of the 1960s and 1970s, high interest rates, world recession and the debt crisis. Combining these effects, Piore and Sabel (1984) posited that organisations needed to move away from the existing dominant configuration and adopt smaller production cycles and a focus on niche markets.

In describing this position, Smith (1991) provided a definition of the key terms of flexibility and specialisation. The author noted that flexibility “refers to labour market and labour process restructuring, to increased versatility in design and the greater adaptability of new technology in production”, (p. 139). Smith (1991) further highlighted that by concentrating on niche or customised marketing (specialisation), the concept of flexible specialisation “unites changes in production and consumption”, (p. 139). To sum up, Hesmondhalgh (1996) provided flexible specialisation is “a particular strategy of industrial restructuring, one that involves a shift in production back to the forms of skilled, artisanal crafting which were supposedly displaced by the methods of mass production usually associated with Henry Ford”, (p. 470).

2.6.1.1 Flexible Specialisation Model

Piore and Sabel (1984) advocated four organisational types of flexible specialisation could occur. These types included regional conglomerations, federated enterprises, ‘solar’ firms and workshop factories. It is beyond the scope of the current thesis to examine these types individually. However, as Piore and Sabel (1984) suggested, from the four forms of flexible specialisation, namely “it is possible to discern a single model of microeconomic regulation”, (p. 268). The characteristics of the dominant Flexible Specialisation model included flexibility

plus specialisation, limited entry, encouragement of competition and limits on competition. Piore and Sabel (1984) contend that the model underscores the interrelated ties between competition and cooperation in flexible production.

The earlier definitions by Smith (1991) are adequate in the present context to inform about the concepts of flexibility and specialisation. Smith (1991) recognised certain conceptual and physical limitations in discussing the extent of organisational restructuring made feasible by the model. As Dyer (1998) outlined “conceptual restraints arise from the community or industry’s shared sense of product. Physical restraints arise because the associated organisations within an industry are geographically located within the community”, (p. 225). These limitations highlighted the role of the sense of community (ethnic, political or religious) straddling the four separate forms of flexible specialisation, from the competitive and cooperative ties of regional conglomerates to the collaborative relationships between organisations and suppliers demonstrated by solar firms. Piore and Sabel (1984) emphasised that the commitment of individuals and firms to specialised tasks in well-defined industries was possible provided all available resources were fully utilised and the claims of these parties to be included in the community were recognised. As Dyer (1998) contends, this creates a situation where in light of the shorter production runs inherent with flexible production “the community of firms must create ‘safety nets’ to retain staff and resources during temporary displacement arising from reorganisation”, (p. 226).

Limited entry, based on community boundaries, is a further defining characteristic of the Flexible Specialisation model. The provision of ‘safety net’ or social welfare measures act as a barrier to entry to outsiders in order to prevent overburdening of the system. As Piore and Sabel (1984) pointed out “many (though not all) of the restrictions to entry are informal: getting a job depends on whom you know, and whom you know depends on who you are”, (p. 270). Such barriers over time may stifle innovation derived from the injection of expertise from outside the community. To overcome this problem, the third characteristic of the model is encouragement of competition that promotes innovation. Piore and Sabel (1984)

contend that “competitive pressure arises both internally and externally”, (p. 270). Internal pressure results from firms jockeying for a favourable position in the community’s recognised hierarchy and external pressure from the competing industries of flexible specialisation.

The remaining characteristic of the Flexible Specialisation model provides limits on competition in order to “prohibit the kind of competition that distracts from permanent innovation”, (Piore and Sabel 1984, p. 270). Dyer (1998) suggested these limits referred to the setting of wages and working conditions with the aim of avoiding competition based on labour cost cutting measures. Piore and Sabel (1984) noted “corporate limits on labour exploitation are important not only in making competition a spur to innovation, but also in maintaining the organisational cohesion required for flexibility. Without restrictions on placing the costs of readjustment on the weakest groups (the lowest-level workers), the sense of community among workers and employers would be threatened; the vital collaboration across different levels of the official hierarchy would then be improbable”, (p. 272). Certain forms of employment arrangements are suggested as facilitating trust between the parties involved, while indirectly fostering innovation. These arrangements include job guarantees, universal work sharing and broad job classifications. The Flexible Specialisation model incorporates aspects of functional flexibility in recognising the need for broadly skilled, adaptable workers for its successful operation.

2.6.1.2 Labour Effects of the Flexible Specialisation Model

The preceding paragraph has outlined, to a degree, the role of labour within the Flexible Specialisation model. This role is prescribed within the context of the various processes by which labour is utilised in the production of commodities. Concerned primarily with labour process flexibility (see 2.4), the Flexible Specialisation model does not as such represent a specific manpower strategy. Despite the model’s theoretical focus, further insights into labour relations can be gained.

Piore and Sabel (1984) provided an example of the importance of multi-skilled workers to flexible specialisation. In relation to training, the authors pointed out that mass production, with its narrow job descriptions, long production runs and established job hierarchies, can rely on formal and in-house education systems to achieve an adequate return on funds invested in training compared to the company specific knowledge gained. The Flexible Specialisation model, in contrast, requiring broadly qualified workers that can shift rapidly between tasks and collaborate with other workers to solve problems as they arise, dictates that knowledge be acquired from skilled members of the community. Training measures such as knowledge procured from the operation of family run businesses and specialised apprenticeship schemes are compatible with the workings of the Flexible Specialisation model. Knowledge obtained from these sources, however, may take longer to cultivate and training outcomes be of a less standardised nature compared with formal methods. Piore and Sabel (1984) suggested that community ties between collaborating firms and institutions should ensure that competition for multi-skilled workers does not generate wage pressures.

Dyer (1998) suggested, “flexible specialisation weakens the power of labour”, (p. 226). Piore and Sabel (1984), however, considered flexible specialisation provided long-term opportunities for improvements to the working conditions of employees. In comparing the model to the mass production configuration, the authors noted that in contrast to the hierarchical relations inherent in mass production, “flexible specialisation is predicated on collaboration. And the frequent changes in the production process put a premium on craft skills. Thus the production worker’s intellectual participation in the work process is enhanced – and his or her role revitalised”, (Piore and Sabel 1984, p. 278). Whether such claims apply to the reality of labour relations in the workplace is debatable. It is to this debate, and that of the theoretical merits of the Flexible Specialisation model; the present review now turns.

2.6.1.3 Flexible Specialisation: A Critical Review

In terms of its counterpart, the Flexible Firm model (Atkinson 1987), flexible specialisation has been recognised as the more universal theory of industrial renewal (Pollert 1991). It may be partly due to this broadness of scope that criticisms have been raised in regard to its applicability. As Dyer (1998) noted, “many of the underlying assumptions of flexible specialisation have been criticised as being too simplistic”, (p. 226). Hyman (1991) pointed out the one-sided nature of the theory, neglecting “the structure of capital, the role of national and international financial markets and the involvement of governments in economic affairs”, (p. 266). The development of the model solely within the confines of manufacturing environments could also limit its suitability to service industries.

Amin (1991) examined the Flexible Specialisation model in the setting of small Italian firms. The author suggested that “evidence from the country which has inspired so much of the theory tends to demonstrate very few, and only the oldest, of the industrial districts come close to resembling the ‘ideal type’”, (p. 136). Amin (1991) goes on to conclude that much of the flexibility attained by these firms comes not from the technical skills of workers, as espoused by the model, but rather poor working conditions provided by employers and the employment of youth and women workers subject to inadequate union representation.

Returning to the question of whether flexible specialisation represents a rupture with the Fordist paradigm, Hyman (1991) cited Williams, Cutler, Williams and Haslam's (1987) assertion that the model does not provide persuasive evidence of such a transformation. The authors go on to note that the Flexible Specialisation model compares certain aspects (multipurpose machines/differentiated products/short production runs) in light of mass production (dedicated machines/standardised products/long production runs) without justifying how these dimensions correspond. Amin (1991), approaching the question from a different perspective, asserted that small firms and craft production techniques were widely used during the ‘Fordist’ era. Similarly, Wood (1989) maintained “there was

considerable flexibility in Fordism”, (p. 28). These conflicting views would appear to attest to the difficulty in establishing a clear break from the Fordist paradigm.

Tailby (1999) provided a summary of some of the specific criticisms levelled at the theory. Namely that it:

- “Overstates the dominance of Fordist mass production in the twentieth century;
- Exaggerates the rigidities of mass production;
- Relies on mainly impressionistic evidence of the break-up of mass markets;
- Overstates the flexibility of the new production technologies;
- Understates the continuing importance of scale economies”, (p. 464).

Harley’s (1995) findings in relation to flexibility and post-Fordist labour relations in Australian industry provide some interesting insights into the Flexible Specialisation model from the broader perspective of post-Fordist theory. Whilst Harley extends his study to include other post-Fordist theorists (Harvey 1989; Wood 1989), together with the work of Piore and Sabel (1984), the findings should provide some indication as to the applicability of flexible specialisation in the Australian setting. Analysis derived from the 1989/90 Australian Workplace Industrial Relations Survey (AWIRS) indicated a lack of support for the posited relationship between labour process flexibility, skill levels and job autonomy. Harley (1995) subsequently reported a negative association between technical-organisational flexibility (changing production to meet volatile demand, computerised technologies and new forms of management) and the need for skilled and autonomous staff. In recognising the limitations of the data set, Harley (1995) noted that the survey was not specifically designed to collect information on flexibility (composite variables were created) and the collection of data was restricted to workplaces employing 20 or more staff.

Supported by case study findings of the Australian finance sector, Harley (1995) contends that the technological-determinism of which post-Fordism has been accused (Campbell 1990) can be extended to a more general type of determinism.

The author argued, “the theory suggests that economic success will be defined by the ability to introduce appropriate forms of labour process flexibility at the workplace level”, (p. 102). Harley (1995) clarifies this point maintaining clear choices are assumed to be available to firms and it is considered “that once particular forms of flexibility are in place the positive outcomes will emerge almost as a matter of course”, (p. 102). Within the confines of this discussion, Harley (1995) also acknowledged that post-Fordism fails to fully address the nature of relations between employers and employees and ensuing workplace inequality. This particular topic receives extensive coverage in the context of the Flexible Firm model (Atkinson 1987).

Despite criticisms of the Flexible Specialisation model (Piore and Sabel 1984), as Tailby (1999) noted it is a progressive regime that attempts to provide benefits for firms and workers alike. To judge by the measure of debate that has occurred in relation to the model, it has made a significant contribution to the post-Fordist school of theory and flexibility literature in general.

2.6.2 Flexible Firm Model

The Flexible Firm model (Atkinson 1987) has, like the preceding theoretical framework, been an extremely influential (Cappelli 1995) contributor to the flexibility debate. Thompson and McHugh (2002) contend, however, that the theory does not represent “a macro, big picture model”, (p. 158). This view corresponds with the author’s earlier assertion that it is “a management policy model [rather than] a grand theory”, (Thompson and McHugh 1990, p. 215). As Harley (1995) suggested when positioning the Flexible Firm model in the context of neo-managerialism, such thoughts may arise as the theory “has been constructed entirely by one author and is correspondingly rather less theoretically developed”, (p. 6). Despite these considerations, Dyer (1998) maintains the importance of the flexible firm model in addressing the rigidities associated with bureaucratic and scientific organisation designs.

With the focus of the Flexible Firm model being on labour market flexibility (Harley 1995), Atkinson (1987) outlines some background factors that have contributed to the development of this type of flexibility. Many of these factors (such as greater competitiveness in product markets, increased rate of technological change and reduced time spans between market opportunity recognition and capitalisation) have been raised previously in discussion of the supposed shift between production paradigms. Harley (1995) noted, however, that unlike the other major flexibility schools (post-Fordism and neo-Fordism), neo-managerialism does not undertake an extensive analysis of the causes of change in reference to how production and consumption have been arranged in the past (Fordism).

Harley (1995) contends that “the ‘Flexible Firm’ model can be understood both in terms of the labour market strategies employed, and the specific forms of flexibility which result”, (p. 8). Borne of the British industrial experience, as Tailby (1999, p. 467) noted, “the model delineates an organisational response to product and technological uncertainty that is centred on the internal labour market”. For present purposes, the internal labour market is defined as “formal arrangements for managing employees in large firms”, (Cappelli 1995, p. 563). Harley (1995) extends this focus noting that the flexible firm framework moreover recognises external labour markets. Holland and Deery (2002) concurred suggesting that “first, the flexible firm redraws the organisational boundaries to address the dynamics of the deregulated labour market. Second, the model incorporates the changes required within the organisation regarding variations in the employment relationships”, (p. 280).

In place of traditional hierarchical structures, the Flexible Firm model facilitates flexibility by advocating the division of workers into ‘core’ and ‘periphery’ labour market positions. Atkinson (1987) defined core workers as those “employees conducting what firms regard as their most important and most unique activities. These employees tend to be male, full-time, permanent, with long job tenures, and deploying skills which the firm cannot readily recruit outside”, (p. 93). It is noted

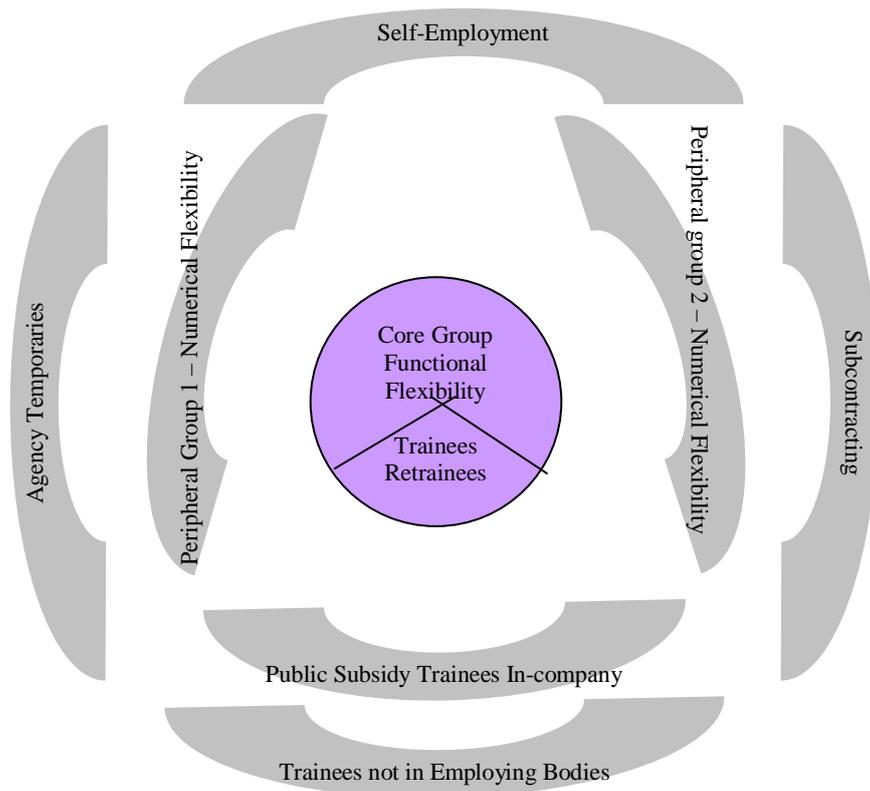
by Tailby (1999) that these employees “are trained and rewarded to supply functional flexibility; they are expected to have polyvalent skills and to acquire new competencies as changes in technology or markets demand”, (p. 467).

By contrast, the peripheral workforce is susceptible to the labour requirements of demand fluctuations and is closely associated with the development of numerical flexibility in organisations. Atkinson (1987) considered that this group of employees were more likely to conduct the routinised and mechanical tasks of the organisation and “be female, part-time, possibly temporary, with shorter job tenures and deploying skills which are readily available on the external labour market” (p. 93). Guerrier and Lockwood (1989) and Tailby (1999) described the further delineation of the peripheral workforce into two groups. Guerrier and Lockwood (1989) outlined, “Peripheral Group 1 employees have permanent contracts but few career opportunities and less job security. The jobs they perform are fairly easy to master, they are not firm-specific and are less central to the organisation’s success. They are, therefore, not expected to be functionally flexible but numerical flexibility is achieved because of the relatively high level of labour turnover in this group”, (p. 10). The authors go on to observe that Peripheral Group 2 is even more numerically flexible and contains workers employed on ‘non-standard’ contracts such as part-timers, job sharers or employees on short-term contracts.

While defined previously within the context of numerical flexibility, the Flexible Firm model recognises distancing (the use of external groups such as subcontractors) as the third tier of the model. Positioned to surround the peripheral worker groups, Atkinson (1987) maintained, “these are not employees at all (though they may be employed by other firms, employment agencies, subcontractors, or be self-employed). They conduct those activities from which the firm has chosen to distance itself. These tend to be either highly specialist or very mundane activities, and these workers are likely therefore to demonstrate the greatest diversity of employment characteristics”, (p. 94). Organisations may choose to utilise distance workers to perform tasks that arise on an unplanned basis

(for example, electricians attending to power blackouts) or that are only required at certain specified times (for example, accountants preparing annual reports), instead of maintaining the necessary in-house resources. Atkinson (1987) suggested that organisations using the skills of distance workers may view these workers as an extension of the numerical workforce. However, the actual employer of the distance worker may regard them in a different light as part of their core workforce.

Figure 2.5: The Flexible Firm Model



Note: Peripheral group 2 includes short-term contracts, part-timers and job-sharers.
Source: Atkinson (1987, p. 94)

The various components of the Flexible Firm model are depicted in Figure 2.5. As Burgess (1997) noted, the model pursues different employment policies for different worker groups, dependent upon the accompanying form of flexibility (for example, core workers are subject to policies directed at attaining functional flexibility). Just as Miles and Snow (1984) recognised the importance of fit, for

Atkinson (1987), the three tiers of the model enabled the close alignment of organisational labour resources with work demand, influencing efficiency by dampening the effects of market volatility, thus increasing effectiveness.

2.6.2.1 Flexible Firm Model: A Critical Review

The Flexible Firm model has been the subject of considerable attention with respect to both theory and application (Tailby 1999). Harley (1995) noted Atkinson's contention that the key elements of labour market flexibility in the context of production are embodied in his model. In developing the theory, Atkinson (1987) surmised that internal labour market flexibility had largely been determined and implemented in the interests of employers due to the reluctance of trade unions to embrace flexible initiatives and public policy becoming less interventionist within employing organisations. Claydon (1997, p. 108) noted, "the advantages of the flexible firm model for employers are said to include:

- Higher productivity from the core workforce;
- Lower wage and non-wage costs from the use of peripheral groups;
- The ability to tailor employment levels to demand conditions and, with this, to reduce the costs of carrying 'excess' staff'.

From the employee perspective, Brewster et al. (2000) examined some of the benefits that can accrue to employees from flexible work patterns in general. Whether employees can attain benefits from the Flexible Firm model such as combining work with outside interests and greater job satisfaction is a matter of contention to be explored in the course of this review.

2.6.2.2 Theoretical Considerations

Prior to examining research that applies the Flexible Firm model, the academic debate regarding the merits of the theory will be outlined.

The Flexible Firm model has been criticised for an inherent lack of conceptual clarity (Tailby 1999) leading to difficulties in interpretation and operationalisation of key components. Pollert (1988), a leading commentator on the model, noted that it was based on selective case study data derived from particular industries that were chosen because of their atypical nature. It should be noted, however, that the author has extended her criticism to the flexibility debate in general, suggesting that flexibility “should be abandoned as a framework for research”, (Pollert 1991, p. 31). Walsh (1991) concurred with Pollert’s views maintaining that the model is predicated on “cursory qualitative data from the service sector and selected observations from manufacturing, and has misleadingly implied a general and substantial change in employment patterns”, (p. 104).

Hyman (1991) provides an overview of some of the issues of theoretical debate raised in relation to the Flexible Firm model. Similar to the assertions made by Amin (1991) and Wood (1989) regarding the existence of flexible specialisation techniques during the ‘Fordist’ era, Hyman (1991) noted, “there is nothing novel about segmentation within the ‘internal labour market’ between a stable core and a vulnerable periphery”, (p. 259). A theoretical example to lend credence to this claim is Mintzberg's (1979) structural model. Predating the flexible firm thesis, Mintzberg incorporates an organisational component labelled the ‘operating core’ in his model. Hyman (1991) further questioned whether the Flexible Firm model, in equating the core as being skilled and flexible, and periphery being unskilled and inflexible, represented a glaring oversimplification of workplace patterns. Guerrier and Lockwood's (1989) finding that the peripheral hotel employees in their study were not necessarily employed on less critical activities than core staff would appear to support this line of questioning.

In providing a summation of the applicability of the neo-managerialist school (associated with the Flexible Firm model) to case study findings of the Australian finance sector, Harley (1995) remarked “the strength of this theory lies chiefly in its recognition of some aspects of the dynamics of capitalist production, and its realistic assessment of the role of management in seeking to cut costs and enhance

profitability”, (p. 104). The author goes on to note, however, that an overly deterministic account of flexibility outcomes and the assumed passive role labour plays in these outcomes, effectively limits the flexible firm to an “under-theorised account of flexibility”, (p 104).

In discussing the theoretical and practical implications of neo-managerialism, Harley (1995) broached the consideration of ‘embeddedness’. The author defined the concept as referring “to the fact that organisations do not exist in isolation, but are constituted within existing national frameworks of cultural and institutional value”, (p. 108). This charge, also levelled at the Flexible Specialisation model by Hyman (1991), contends that the Flexible Firm model fails to adequately account for the effect of external forces such as regulatory practices and industrial relations systems. Gooderham and Nordhaug (1997) examined embeddedness in relation to certain institutional pressures affecting the development of numerical flexibility in the United Kingdom (UK) and Norway. These pressures included trade union power and the relevant national legislative regime. Results of the study indicated that management was less likely to implement strategies for numerical flexibility in light of unions being perceived as powerful. Gooderham and Nordhaug (1997) also found support for the hypothesis that Norwegian firms were less likely to implement strategies for numerical flexibility than UK firms (were the Flexible Firm model originated), with the exception of part-time employment. Increased competitive pressures (in the previous three years) also acted as a spur for firms introducing strategies aimed at developing numerical flexibility. In concluding, Gooderham and Nordhaug (1997) suggested, “our analysis reveals that Atkinson’s thesis that numerical flexibility is a response to market conditions cannot be rejected. However, our analysis also reveals that new institutional explanations must be included in any comprehensive understanding of the processes that generate numerical flexibility”, (p. 578). It is reasonable to expect that this conclusion can be extended to the other forms of flexibility as well.

Burgess (1997) further questioned the status of the Flexible Firm model as a theory. In doing so, the author makes reference to the model’s limitations

acknowledged by Atkinson (1987). These limitations apply to the universal and intentional adoption of the Flexible Firm model. Atkinson (1987) outlined that certain factors including industry type, size of firm and labour market context were capable of influencing workforce reorganisation (subsequently affecting the extent to which the model is universally applied). As to the considered adoption of the Flexible Firm model in industry, Atkinson (1987) posits that while many firms implicitly demonstrate characteristics of the model “it is only a small minority who have explicitly and consciously divided up their workforce in this way”, (p. 94). Compatible with Atkinson’s contention, Hunter, McGregor, MacInnes and Sproull (1993) found in a survey of British businesses that “only in a small proportion of establishments did the employment of non-standard labour appear to be controlled by a set of strategic conditions consistent with the concept of the flexible firm and its core-periphery design”, (p. 397). Additional critical insights into the theory will be gained from the following review of literature examining the Flexible Firm model on an applied basis.

2.6.2.3 Application of the Flexible Firm Model

Various researchers have noted a necessary lack of empirical research to support the workings of the Flexible Firm model (Hakim 1987; Pollert 1991). As Dyer (1998) contends, “empirical research consistently concludes that the flexible firm model is insufficient to explain the changes observed in organisations, and that the theoretical distinction made between core and peripheral workers appears to be unsupported”, (p. 229). Notwithstanding these rather negative accounts made in relation to the model, Burgess (1997) pointed out that “the theory conforms with the evidence of workforce restructuring observed over the past two decades in both Britain and Australia”, (p. 90). Thompson and McHugh (2002) similarly recognised the various critiques made of the Flexible Firm model but noted “for all the unevenness of theory and practice, looking back on the last two decades it is uncontested that functional and numerical flexibility are significant global trends”, (p. 177).

The increasing incidence of non-standard forms of employment broadly compatible with the labour use strategies of the Flexible Firm model (ie, part-time, casual, temporary, agency labour and self-employed contractors) have been well documented (Burgess and Campbell 1998); Hall et al. 1998; Wooden and Hawke 1998). Quinlan (1998) recognised the growth of temporary/casual and part-time work across industrialised societies, accompanied by a decline in permanent full-time employment. Citing OECD (1990) data to demonstrate this growth, the author reported that “by 1995 the proportion of part-time workers exceeded 20% in Australia, Denmark, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden and the UK”, (Quinlan 1998, p. 9). In relation to casual employment in Australia, Burgess and Campbell (1998) reported that “the number of employees who were casual in their main job more than doubled in the period from 1982 to 1997”, (p. 35). These trends are illustrated in Table 2.4. Whether such trends relate to intentional policies aimed at achieving organisational flexibility has been questioned. Burgess (1997), making reference to Hakim’s (1988) findings of growth in distanced forms of employment, noted that the author “is unable to directly link such employment growth to flexibility strategies other than through ex post application of the flexibility typology to the changing workforce composition”, (p. 92).

Table 2.4: Trends in Non-Standard Employment, Australia, 1993-1999

Employment Type	1993 (000)	Share (%)	1999 (000)	Share (%)	Change (000)	Share of Growth (%)
Standard Employment	4385	57.5	4631	53.5	246	23.7
Non-Standard Employment	3238	42.5	4024	46.5	786	76.3
Full-Time Casual	404	5.3	576	6.6	172	16.6
Part-Time Casual	1030	13.5	1355	15.6	325	31.3
Part-Time Permanent	503	6.6	741	8.6	238	22.9
Non-Employees	1301	17.1	1352	15.6	51	4.9
Total	7623	100.0	8665	100.0	1032	100.0

Source: Burgess and Mitchell (2001, p.137) (based on Australian Bureau of Statistics 1998)

Returning to Harley’s (1995) examination of labour flexibility in Australian industry, neo-managerialist effects on peripheral employment, working conditions and gender were investigated. In doing so, the author noted that neo-managerialist theory overcomes a major flaw of post-Fordist theories such as flexible

specialisation (in failing to acknowledge workplace inequalities) by anticipating the implications of dividing the workforce into core and peripheral groups. Harley (1995) reported that analysis of the 1989/90 AWIRS data “is very clearly supportive of the claim that workers in peripheral jobs are likely to fare less well than other workers in terms of rates of pay, job security, training and autonomy”, (p. 70). A strong association between the use of part-time, casual and other peripheral workers and the employment of females was also found. These findings lend support to the precarious nature of female employment, with reduced access to certain job opportunities (training, performance-based pay schemes) that may ultimately affect job satisfaction.

Considering the application of the Flexible Firm model in the broader institutional context, Buultjens and Howard (2001) noted that with support from Australian employer groups, “the desire to ‘free up’ the labour market and promote flexibility emerged as the number one priority of government industrial relations policy during the late 1980s and into the 1990s”, (p 61). Examining the influence of flexibility theories on institutional policy developments in Australia, Harley (1995) suggested, “there is a general correspondence between the post-Fordist model and the policy prescriptions of representatives of labour, and between the neo-managerialist model and the prescriptions of representatives of capital”, (p. 117). The author linked the development of neo-managerialist policies in Australia to moves towards increasing labour market flexibility and deregulation. Thompson and McHugh (2002) contend, however, “there is no automatic link between labour market deregulation at national level and the incidence of non-standard employment”, (p. 177). Notwithstanding this viewpoint, deregulation moves included the dismantling of the centralised wage fixing system in favour of enterprise bargaining and “a corresponding emphasis on the power of management at the local level to impose flexibility on the workforce”, (Harley 1995, p. 118). These moves suggest that Australian organisations would appear to encounter a cooperative policy environment, open to the fostering of strategies compatible with the application of the Flexible Firm model.

From an industry perspective numerous studies have been conducted to examine the Flexible Firm model, especially in the context of sectors that have traditionally required the skills of flexible workers but have been neglected in relation to the development of flexibility theory (for example, service industries such as hospitality and tourism). Kelliher (1989) notes in relation to the labour intensive nature of hotel and catering work “in any industry where significant changes in the level of demand occur, the ability to use labour in a flexible manner is of prime importance to management”, (p. 160). Investigating the effects of competitive tendering on a public service catering organisation, Kelliher (1989) reported widespread use of numerical flexibility by both in-house and external tenderers. Specific undertakings included the rationalisation of staff numbers and reductions in working time for both full and part-time staff in order to more closely match demand to the labour supply. In contrast, functional flexibility was found to be the least pursued type of flexibility. Kelliher (1989) suggested that industry traditions and union pressure to defend job demarcations were possible reasons for this lack of adoption.

As mentioned earlier, Guerrier and Lockwood’s (1989) study of hotel employees found that peripheral workers were not necessarily employed on less critical activities than core staff. Allen (1998), in undertaking case-study research into private hospitals, observed that the organisations studied were attempting to build long-term relationships with peripheral workers in order to maintain service standards. These findings raise questions about the divisional status of the Flexible Firm model. Based on their findings, Guerrier and Lockwood (1989) suggested a revised model, which was differentiated from the flexible firm by the division of core staff into three separate types. Company core staff were recognised by Guerrier and Lockwood (1989) as being the category most closely aligned to Atkinson’s ‘ideal’ core. Within the hotel setting this group comprised management or trainee management staff at all levels that were multi-skilled, geographically and numerically flexible, and willing to work variable hours. The next type espoused by the model was unit core staff. Unlike the company core, these “are staff who have access to career opportunities within a single hotel unit but not the

wider company”, (Guerrier and Lockwood 1989, p. 11). The final category of core staff was the operative core. The authors noted some of the obstacles to building the operative core including easy access by this group (typical roles include receptionist, kitchen and waiting staff) to the external labour market, limited internal career opportunities on offer and tightly supervised jobs that lack responsibility. In concluding, Guerrier and Lockwood (1989) stressed the importance of building core workforces in hotels and noted the consequences of not doing so, namely an increased reliance on peripheral staff for service provision.

Bagguley (1990) also focused upon the hotel and catering industry in undertaking a historical analysis of gender and labour flexibility. In doing so, the author provided some background to the critical review that has evolved in relation to the Flexible Firm model. Commenting on Pollert’s (1988) critique, Bagguley (1990) noted, “in my view, she goes too far in rejecting the flexible firm model. It has performed an important heuristic function in sensitising analysts to the previously little-discussed issues of functional flexibility between clearly defined tasks on the one hand, and the significance of part-time employment on the other”, (p. 738). He also recognised the contribution made by Guerrier and Lockwood (1989) in providing the first empirical assessment of the flexible firm thesis in the hospitality sector. In relation to his own analysis, the British academic considered that there was considerable evidence to suggest that the seeking of numerical flexibility (through part-time employment) by hotel and catering employers was not a recent organisational phenomenon, but dated back to work patterns developed during the 1960s and 1970s. This finding supports Hyman’s (1991) assertion, mentioned earlier, regarding the less than novel nature of organisational segmentation into core and peripheral workers. Bagguley (1990) contends that an implication of this early development of flexibility in the hotel and catering sector is the casting of doubt on claims that the flexibility impetus was derived from economic conditions of the 1980s. A further implication for the sector is that “there is a strict gender division in the form and extent of flexibility”, (p. 743). This division generally involves men undertaking functionally flexible positions relating to hotel management, whilst women occupy operative positions (kitchen, cleaning, waiting

staff). Bagguley (1990), citing the work of Atkinson (1984) and Guerrier and Lockwood (1989), maintained that the major studies of labour flexibility have largely ignored gender issues. Lack of union presence and managerial culture and style, were also suggested by Bagguley (1990) as being contributing factors to the early emergence of flexibility in the hotel and catering sector.

In considering the findings of these and other industry studies, it is worthwhile establishing to what extent the Flexible Firm model is consciously pursued by organisations as strategy. As previously noted, both Atkinson (1987), as author of the theory, and Hunter et al. (1993) suggested that only a small minority of organisations strategically arrange their workforces according to the model. On the basis of case study findings, Hunter et al. (1993) noted, “manpower measures were operated on a much shorter time-scale than the business planning process, so that there was a lack of harmony and integration between them”, (p. 397). Responding to such findings, Purcell and Purcell (1998) surmised “it is clear that the model of the flexible firm was enormously influential and it may be that there is a time lag between the inception of a ‘key idea’ and its widespread adoption, which surveys in the late 1980s and 1990 may have been too early to catch”, (p. 42). The authors subsequently suggested that the critical issue to establish is whether employers are proactively developing considered strategies in relation to flexibility, or are merely being reactive in responding to labour market supply and demand conditions.

Purcell and Purcell (1998) posited that a possible reason for the lack of evidence to support the strategic use of the Flexible Firm model is the difficulty in defining the elusive concept of ‘strategy’. Hunter, et al. (1993) advocated, “for the purpose of our research, we were more inclined to accept a stronger, more explicit demonstration of strategy”, (p. 385). Purcell and Purcell (1998) subsequently suggested that “it can be argued, an impractically narrow formalised view of what might be construed as strategic, may have hampered the debate”, (p. 42). In a study aimed at defending the Flexible Firm model, Procter, Rowlinson, McArdle, Hassard and Forrester (1994) adopted a broader view of the concept. Citing the work of Mintzberg (1978), the authors note, “a strategy need not be explicitly

stated, nor need it be developed consciously. Even without there being an explicit statement of intent, a consistency in a stream of decisions can be perceived and a ‘strategy’ imputed”, (p. 233). A recasting of flexibility was suggested to take into account strategy over time and at all levels of analysis. This recasting is supported by the conclusion of Procter et al. (1994) that “despite the magnitude, the longevity and the intensity of the flexibility debate, it can barely be said to have changed, let alone developed”, (p. 239). Whether there has been substantial headway made in relation to this debate since the inception of this statement remains a matter of contention.

2.6.2.4 Overview of the Flexible Firm Model

As the preceding discussion illustrates, the contribution of the Flexible Firm model to the flexibility debate has been significant. The model, which was developed approximately 20 years ago in the setting of British industry, has and continues to be examined from both the theoretical and applied perspective across numerous countries, including Australia. Despite its critics, as Brewster et al. (2000) noted “the Flexible Firm Model does provide a framework for analysis, insight and explanation with respect to the development of new patterns of work”, (p. 95). Perhaps, more importantly in light of its counterparts (flexible specialisation and neo-Fordism) being macro models, “the flexible firm offers a framework with which changes in a certain area of firms’ operations, in a certain country, at a certain time, can be analysed”, (Procter et al. 1994, p. 226). Consequently, it is this recognition of the internal control firms possess, or would ultimately like to possess, over their operations that may have contributed to the popularity of the Flexible Firm model.

2.6.3 Neo-Fordist Flexibility

Before drawing to a close the contribution of the major theories to flexibility, the labour market effects of neo-Fordism will be briefly examined. Harley (1995) investigated neo-Fordist theory in the context of his labour flexibility study of Australian industry. Based on the 1989/90 AWIRS data, the author noted that in

reference to neo-managerialism, aspects of this theory “are largely encompassed by neo-Fordist theory which provides a model which is theoretically richer and encompasses a wider range of manifestations of flexibility”, (p. 75). As a predictor of outcomes, Harley (1995) found support for neo-Fordist claims that the introduction of computerised technologies and associated management techniques were likely to be detrimental to labour.

Harley (1995) goes on to explicate a theory of flexibility in relation to organisations. Whilst seeking not to construct a coherent model, the author makes it clear that the neo-Fordist account is better equipped to explain organisational flexibility. Harley (1995) reasons that this stance is justified by the recognition neo-Fordism provides of embedded practices and institutional frameworks, as well as the inherent political nature of organisations. The author noted “it is the failure of post-Fordist and neo-managerialist theories to integrate class analysis into their theoretical frameworks which largely explains their ability to make optimistic claims which fly in the face of the evidence. In contrast, it is the fact that neo-Fordism makes class analysis absolutely central to its framework, which accounts in large part for its superiority as an explanatory framework”, (Harley 1995, p. 112). Despite suggesting this superiority, Harley (1995) acknowledges in line with earlier findings (Bagguley, 1990) that none of the theories (post-Fordism, neo-managerialism, neo-Fordism) adequately address the effects of flexibility in relation to gender.

2.7 Chapter Summary

The foregoing chapter has attempted to provide a comprehensive account of the research framework from which the flexibility debate has emerged. Whilst not intending to present a linear progression, various structural theories and production paradigms that have contributed to the flexibility impetus have been reviewed for their impact over time. The starting point of the chapter was Weber’s (1947) work on bureaucratic administration. This structural theory characterised hierarchical organisations, with strict chains of command; offering employees fixed salaries

and full employment. With the capacity to complement bureaucracies, Taylor's (1947) theory of scientific management was predicated on the use of a substitutable, semi-skilled workforce, the scientific measurement of tasks and a piece-rate wages system to reward workers. These classical theories were subsequently transposed by moves towards open and contingent systems that recognised external factors affecting organisations. Technology played a pivotal role in driving this change as demonstrated by the work of Woodward (1958) and Thompson (1967). Burns (1963) organismic configuration may be credited as an early structural form appreciative of the increasing prominence of the flexibility agenda in organisations.

The prevalence of Fordism, borne of the same industrial era as bureaucratic administration and scientific management, has been acknowledged as stimulating the development of production paradigms and subsequent flexibility theories. This mass production/mass consumption model was beset by high degrees of job specialisation, extending Taylor's principles of job specialisation. Factors that have been universally attributed to the demise of this less than flexible model by ensuing theories include its slow reactionary capabilities to economic change and market needs, the introduction of new organisational forms and the linking of global markets.

The main theoretical schools to emerge espousing flexibility include post-Fordism, neo-managerialism and neo-Fordism. In the context of this chapter, post-Fordism has been examined in relation to Piore and Sabel's (1984) Flexible Specialisation model and neo-managerialism (Harley, 1995) in reference to the Flexible Firm model proposed by Atkinson (1987). The types of flexibility that these theories canvass vary depending upon the particular focus of each school. The American perspective of post-Fordism embraces labour process flexibility, the British perspective of neo-managerialism promotes labour market flexibility and the French perspective of neo-Fordism suggests a combination of both types. In seeking to attain labour process flexibility, the Flexible Specialisation model advocates the use of multi-skilled, functionally flexible employees to respond to

production demands. The Flexible Firm model utilises a fragmented approach, influenced somewhat by Taylor's principles, in suggesting the division of workers into core and peripheral groups, with the aim of simultaneously achieving functional and numerical flexibility.

With both post-Fordism and neo-Fordism accounting for the broader theory of late capitalism (Hyman, 1991), it has been suggested that these schools provide the more conceptually developed, universal theories of flexibility. Various criticisms, however, have been raised in relation to the relevant schools. Post-Fordism and neo-managerialism have been accused of being overly determinant, less than original and ignorant of institutional settings in which organisations are embedded. All the flexibility models have been criticised for neglecting gender issues. Ultimately the circumstances to which a particular model is to be prescribed will contribute to any determination of the appropriateness of the flexibility theory. From the viewpoint of individual organisations, however, it is perhaps the Flexible Firm model that provides the most applicable framework for management instituting and monitoring changes that affect their internal workforces.

Acknowledging that the majority of research has been developed and tested in manufacturing environments, the next chapter will move on from this theory-driven overview to a more generalised discussion of flexibility in relation to human resource management issues and the services sector.

CHAPTER 3 – HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AND FLEXIBILITY IN PRACTICE

3.1 Chapter Introduction

The previous chapter provided a detailed examination of the flexibility debate drawing upon a range of perspectives including post-Fordism, neo-managerialism and neo-Fordism. The current chapter extends this debate to explore the links between labour flexibility and human resource management (HRM). As flexibility theory was largely developed with manufacturing environments in mind, a brief review of some issues relating to flexibility and the services sector will also be covered.

3.2 Flexibility and Human Resource Management

As was noted in the previous chapter, some flexibility models have accounted inadequately for the importance of institutional frameworks external to organisations. The extent to which flexibility initiatives were strategically driven was also questioned. Such issues have the potential to affect how flexibility is translated into organisational settings and as such it is important to understand flexibility in the context of the total organisation. This chapter will acknowledge the critical role of the HRM function in relating the external environment into internal structures and strategies and developing workforce flexibility according to organisational needs. Prior to examining the implications for HRM of the pursuit of flexibility, it is necessary to explore the role of this function within the wider organisational context.

3.2.1 Human Resource Management

The shifts in production paradigm that have occurred over time (post-Fordism, neo-managerialism and neo-Fordism) similarly influenced changes in the treatment of labour resources in organisations. Guest (1987) outlined that the search for competitive advantage in organisations, the decline in trade union pressure and

changes to the composition of the workforce and the nature of work have prompted the consideration of new models which integrate the tenets of human resource management. HRM has been defined as “a way of securing competitive advantage through the strategic deployment of a highly committed and capable workforce”, (Cunningham and Hyman 1995, p. 6).

As a theoretical movement, HRM developed in the USA during the 1980s. Drawing upon the work of Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Quinn Mills and Walton (1985) and Fombrun, Tichy and Devanna (1984), Hendry and Pettigrew (1990) outlined its emergence as an alternative to “personnel management”. Indeed, Guest (1987) noted that “if human resource management is a useful and distinctive approach, it is important to be able to define it and distinguish it from traditional personnel management”, (p.505). The author goes on to identify the principal roles and functions of HRM. Whether it is considered simply as a renaming of the personnel function to capture the new trend or “as a way of re-conceptualising and re-organising personnel roles and describing the work of personnel departments”, (p. 506), these first two approaches fail to consider what is distinctive about HRM. Guest (1987) argued that the concept was distinctive because of its integration of human resources into strategic management. The author provided an overview of the respective stereotypes or assumptions of personnel and human resource management (refer to Table 3.1).

In an early British contribution to the field of HRM, Hendry and Pettigrew (1986) considered the strategic nature of the concept in terms of four elements:

- “The use of planning;
- A coherent approach to the design and management of personnel systems based on an employment policy and manpower strategy, and often underpinned by a ‘philosophy’;
- Matching HRM activities and policies to some explicit business strategy;
- Seeing the people of the organisation as a ‘strategic resource’ for achieving ‘competitive advantage’”, (p. 4).

Table 3.1: Conceptual Differences Between Personnel and Human Resource Management

	Personnel Management	Human Resource Management
Time and Planning Perspective		
	Short-term	Long-term
	Reactive	Proactive
	Ad hoc	Strategic
	Marginal	Integrated
Psychological Contract		
	Compliance	Commitment
Control Systems		
	External Controls	Self-control
Employee Relations Perspective		
	Pluralist	Unitarist
	Collective	Individual
	Low trust	High Trust
Preferred Structures/Systems		
	Bureaucratic/Mechanistic	Organic
	Centralised	Devolved
	Formal Defined Roles	Flexible Roles
Roles		
	Specialist/Professional	Largely Integrated into Line Management

Source: Guest (1987)

Legge (1995) identified communalities between the normative contributions of these early HRM theorists on several issues. This communality recognised that “human resources policies should be integrated with strategic business planning and used to reinforce appropriate (or change an inappropriate) organisational culture, that human resources are valuable and a source of competitive advantage, that they may be tapped most effectively by mutually consistent policies that promote commitment and which, as a consequence, foster a willingness in employees to act flexibly in the interests of the ‘adaptive organisation’s pursuit of excellence””, (p. 66). It is of particular significance to the present thesis that these early HRM theories acknowledged the flexibility impetus.

The shift from personnel management has been further considered in light of the ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ models of HRM. Legge (1995) warned of the risk of oversimplification, where the ‘hard’ model reflected a ‘utilitarian instrumentalism’ view and the ‘soft’ model depicted more ‘developmental-humanist’ principles.

Truss, Gratton, Hope-Hailey, McGovern and Stiles (1997) attributed this classification (hard and soft) to the work of Guest (1987) and Storey (1992). The authors noted that the normative models in question incorporated dimensions titled soft-hard and loose-tight, with the 'soft' version aligned to the work of Beer et al. (1985) and Guest (1987) and the 'hard' version drawing upon the theoretical contribution of Fombrun et al. (1984). Despite this grounding in the American literature, Truss et al. (1997) highlighted that the debates surrounding the terms 'hard' and 'soft' HRM "have taken place exclusively in a British context", (p. 54).

The 'hard' version of HRM has been defined by Cunningham and Hyman (1995) as assuming "a rational, instrumental, manipulation of human resources for the benefit of the organisation, usually through achieving optimum flexibility and deployment of employee numbers", (p. 6). Storey (1992) stressed this approach acknowledged "the quantitative, calculative and business-strategic aspects of managing the 'headcount resource' in as 'rational' a way as for any other factor of production", (p. 29). In differentiating between the versions, Legge (1995) noted the emphasis of 'hard' HRM is on human *resource management*, whereas in the context of the 'soft' HRM, the accent changes to focus upon *human resource management*. The later version has been associated with the human relations movement and the importance of utilising employees' individual talents (Truss et al. 1997). 'Soft' HRM recognises "employees are proactive rather than passive inputs into productive processes; they are capable of 'development', worthy of 'trust' and 'collaboration', to be achieved through 'participation and informed choice'", (Legge 1995, p. 67). Truss et al. (1997) also contend that the goals of flexibility and adaptability are associated with 'soft' HRM.

Acknowledging the relevance of flexibility to both the 'hard' and 'soft' versions assists recognition that these different HRM emphases are not necessarily incompatible. Legge (1995) maintained, "indeed most of the normative statements contain elements of both the 'hard' and 'soft' models", (p. 67). Truss et al. (1997) concurred with this line of thinking and further noted that "the incorporation of both 'soft' and 'hard' elements within one theory or model is highly problematic

because each rests on a different set of assumptions in the two key areas of human nature and managerial control strategies”, (p. 55). At surface level, Legge (1995) asserted that problems with the normative models might have stemmed from the degree of ambiguity that existed in the conceptual language of the ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ versions.

This ambiguity has been raised in relation to strategic integration, a key notion of the ‘hard’ model (Truss et al. 1997). Legge (1995) outlined that the concept, however, can have more than one meaning, complicating the undeviating alignment of it with either the ‘hard’ or ‘soft’ HRM versions. Based on the ‘goal of integration’, incorporated in Guest’s (1987) HRM model (other goals include employee commitment, flexibility and quality), Truss et al. (1997) defined the concept as comprising: “the integration or ‘fit’ of human resources policies with business strategy; the integration or complementarity and consistency of ‘mutuality’ employment policies aimed at generating employee commitment, flexibility and quality; the internalisation of the importance of human resources on the part of line managers”, (p. 57). Legge (1995) highlighted the problem with this scope of definition, noting that “while ‘fit’ with strategy would argue a contingent design of HRM policy, internal consistency – at least with the ‘soft’ values associated with ‘mutuality’ – would argue an absolutist approach to the design of employment policy”, (p. 68).

Flexibility, as it relates to the ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ versions of HRM, is another concept recognised as being subject to definitional contradictions. Legge (1995) suggested flexibility “can express values of employee upskilling, development and initiative (as in the functional flexibility of core employees) or the numerical and financial flexibility to be achieved by treating labour as a variable cost-to-be minimised input”, (p. 69). Reconciling these definitional issues and somewhat disparate approaches to HRM can be problematic for organisations. Findings from recent case study research undertaken in the United Kingdom supported this view. Truss et al. (1997, p. 69) reported, “no single organisation adopted either a pure soft or hard approach to human resource management”. The authors concluded that

whilst the organisations in question were likely to adopt the rhetoric of the 'soft' model, the reality of the situation was that the 'hard' model was more likely to dominate.

Cunningham and Hyman (1995) had previously identified this combined use of 'hard' and 'soft' HRM measures in organisations. The authors of this study defined some of the following measures as soft HRM initiatives: team briefings, performance appraisals for managers and other staff, job evaluation, performance-related pay, employee share schemes and quality circles. Harder HRM approaches were characterised by the use of atypical types of employment including part-time and temporary workers, and sub-contractors. As to the exact mix of 'hard' and 'soft' approaches, Truss et al. (1997, p. 70) in their study noted "the precise ingredients of this mixture were unique to each organisation, which implies the factors such as external and internal environment of the organisation, its strategy, culture and structure all have a vital role to play in the way in which HRM operates".

In recognising intra-organisational links between the HRM and other organisational sections, Legge (1995) pointed out some trends that alluded to managerial levels becoming more directly involved in undertaking HR activities. The trends included downsizing, delayering and the increasing importance of technical initiatives for attaining competitive advantage. Cunningham and Hyman (1995) investigated the HR function in relation to the roles of supervisors and line managers (the two managerial levels, however, are not clearly defined). The survey of HR specialists representing 45 Scottish organisations indicated that 58% of respondents were considering adapting supervisory roles, with approximately 60% of these organisations deliberating as to whether to afford supervisors with enhanced people management duties. The roles of line managers relating to soft and hard HR practices were found to have similarly developed. Cunningham and Hyman (1995) reported that in particular, performance appraisal of non-managerial staff was the most common HR function devolved to line managers, however, a shift towards greater responsibility for disciplinary issues was also evidenced.

Whilst findings (obtained from questionnaires distributed to managerial samples in 9 organisations) indicated that supervisors and line managers viewed themselves as capable of handling some of the harder aspects of employee relations, Cunningham and Hyman (1995) noted that “personnel respondents tend to adopt a substantially different view. They do not appear convinced that those who have experienced a devolution of responsibility in areas such as recruitment, discipline and absence control are especially competent in dealing with these issues”, (p. 14). A similar outcome was reported for the softer HR practices. Cunningham and Hyman (1995) questioned that “given the widespread delayering of management structures evident in the sample, this devolution of responsibility suggests an even greater workload and pressure on management than before, thus, perhaps, limiting what they can actually achieve”, (p. 18). From these insights it would appear that it is perhaps yet too early to dismiss the role of the HRM function in organisations, in overseeing employee training and development needs, recruitment and other areas of employee relations, whilst ensuring a consistent approach is adopted to these issues.

3.2.2 Human Resource Management and Strategy

Having acknowledged the role of strategy in distinguishing between human resource management and the more traditional personnel management approaches, an examination of the HRM function would be incomplete without further articulating the links between HRM and strategy. Given the particular focus of the current thesis, it may be reasonable to assume that an organisation failing to adopt a strategic framework linking HRM with business policy would encounter problems initiating proactive flexibility practices.

The previous chapter briefly considered the question of defining strategy in relation to the flexibility research of Hunter et al. (1993) and Purcell and Purcell (1998). Legge (1995) pointed out that conventional definitions of the concept often differentiate between various levels (first, second and third order strategies), reflecting a top-down approach to the strategy process. Both Hendry and Pettigrew

(1990) and Legge (1995) identified that such assumptions are based upon Chandler's (1962) dictum that structure follows strategy, with organisational inefficiency the likely outcome for firms failing to act according to this sequence. In considering such definitions, Legge (1995, p. 97) advised caution noting that they “are presenting a normative model of what strategy should be rather than a description of the behaviours that are enacted under the loose label of strategy”.

In suggesting that other definitions of strategy should be explored in relation to HRM, Legge (1995) highlighted the contribution of Whittington's (1993) typology. Subject to a positioning on the continuum of outcomes (ranging from profit-maximising to pluralistic) and processes (ranging from deliberate to emergent), four types of strategy emerged: classical, evolutionary, processual and systemic. The classical approach (profit-maximising, deliberate) embodied conventional definitions of strategy and was sourced from the works of Chandler (1962) and Porter (1985). The evolutionary approach (profit-maximising, emergent), based on work into organisational ecology (Hannan and Freeman 1988), suggested that competitive forces would unduly affect strategy formation. From the perspective of the processual approach (pluralistic, emergent), strategic management “is not encapsulated in some ‘grand plan’ aimed at profit-maximisation, but is entrenched in management’s ‘causal maps’, ‘routines’ and ‘standard operating procedures’ that emerge as a result of the political compromise shaped by prevailing organisational culture and subcultures”, Legge (1995, p. 100). Procter et al. (1994) in advocating a broader, less explicit view of the strategy concept be applied to the Flexible Firm model, adopted this processual approach, initially contained in the work of writers such as Mintzberg (1978). The systemic approach to strategy recognised that the social and institutional frameworks within which organisations are embedded, influenced strategic goals (a complementary perspective to the neo-Fordist paradigm).

In considering how these various approaches to strategy development can be integrated with HRM, Legge (1995) maintained that “arguably the act of consciously matching HRM policy to business strategy is only relevant if one

adopts the rationalistic ‘classical’ perspective”, (p. 103). This position is proposed in response to the lack of articulated business strategy according to the processual approach and the dominant role of market forces in determining evolutionary type strategies. Two popular means of matching strategy indicated by Truss et al. (1997, p. 57) include “developing HR policies that ‘fit’ the organisation’s stage of development (life cycle models) or with its strategic orientation”. Legge (1995) further delineated between the life cycle characterisation (Kochan and Barocci 1985) and models that depicted stage of development in terms of the extent of product or geographical diversity achieved (Fombrun et al. 1984). The work of Schuler and Jackson (1987a) based on Porter's (1985) three generic strategy types (innovation, quality enhancement and cost reduction) represented an example of the latter matching approach. Miles and Snow (1984), discussed in the previous chapter from the structural perspective, also adopted the approach of espousing fit according to strategic orientation (defined in terms of defender, prospector and analyser behaviour types).

It is beyond the scope of the present thesis to provide a separate examination of the academic contribution of each of these classical models. Legge (1995) noted, however, that some general themes and criticisms emerge from the literature fitting HRM to strategic behaviour. Notably, he elaborated, “HRM is seen largely as a third-order strategy deriving from second-order strategies (internal operating procedures, relationships between parts of the firm), which in turn derive from first-order strategy (long-term direction of the firm, scope of activities, markets, locations, etc.)”, (p. 113). Purcell (1989) concurred arguing, “personnel policy choices are made in the context of downstream strategic decisions on organisation structure”, (cited in Gunnigle and Moore 1994, p. 63). Empirical testing of the strategic involvement of the HRM function in Irish firms provides mixed support for these assertions. Gunnigle and Moore (1994) reported that while fewer than half of the firms surveyed had a written corporate strategy and only 29 percent had a HRM equivalent, it was still positive to note that 53 percent of respondent firms involved the personnel function from the outset when formulating corporate strategy. Despite these findings, such theoretical and pragmatic positioning is at

odds with Guest's (1987) assertion that human resources must “become an integral component of the strategic planning process”, (p. 512). To this end, Legge (1995) recognised the importance of developing a reciprocal relationship between HR policy-making and business strategy. This viewpoint is articulated in Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall's (1988) model of strategic human resource management. A reciprocally interdependent relationship is posited as being capable of achieving balance between these two processes that by nature are independent and highly complex. Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall (1988) note that such reciprocity is desirable as it “limits the subordination of strategic considerations to human resource preferences and the neglect of human resources as a vital source of organisational competence and competitive advantage”, (p. 455).

Life cycle models (Kochan and Barocci 1985) have been criticised in relation to the stages of organisational development proposed. Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall (1988) suggested that these stages are typified as ‘uncontrollable catalysts of change’; implying management has minimal influence over strategy and is at the mercy of external forces. The authors further noted that most strategic human resource management models “do not recognise the need for lack of fit during organisational transitions and when organisations have multiple and conflicting goals”, (p. 456). Gunnigle and Moore (1994) offered another perspective regarding the question of ‘fit’. In reviewing findings into a study by Schuler and Jackson (1987b), the authors highlighted the lack of empirical support to suggest that personnel policy decisions were being uniformly made in light of particular strategies. Gunnigle and Moore (1994) further noted that there was “no conclusive evidence that personnel policies which fit business strategies contribute to greater organisational effectiveness”, (p. 67). Of particular relevance to flexibility theory, Legge (1995, p. 114) questioned if “the HRM policies proposed in the various typologies (strategy) apply equally to all employees, or only to ‘core’ and/or managerial employees”, and whether the delineation between ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ versions was given adequate consideration.

Based on the findings of longitudinal case study research, Hendry and Pettigrew (1990) recognised certain of the criticisms relating to classical models. To overcome what they considered to be a “prescriptive, rational approach to HRM, which ‘draws off’ HRM systems from strategic models”, (p. 31), they proposed a processual model. As Legge (1995) noted in relation to the findings “the upshot is that ‘matching’ is not the issue. Rather it is a question of being sensitive to the opportunities and constraints afforded for the development of HRM that emerge out of complex patterns of strategic and structural change”, (p. 121). Hendry and Pettigrew (1990) advocated a strong rationale for adopting the processual approach to integrating HRM and strategy, incorporating some of the following reasons:

- “As an antidote to treating strategy as a ready-formed output, to which HRM can be moulded;
- To be aware that structure (and culture, and HRM) change can precede strategy;
- To recognise therefore that HRM need not be simply reactive to strategy, but can contribute to it through the development of culture, as well as to the frames of reference of those managers who make strategy; and
- To be aware that strategic and HRM change often adhere to long time-scales, and therefore the process of HRM change is of as much interest and significance as its content”, (p. 34).

This approach supports Purcell and Purcell's (1998) suggestion, made in relation to the testing of the Flexible Firm model, that a longer time-line is required to determine strategy outcomes.

Aligned to the tenets behind Hendry and Pettigrew's (1990) work, Gunnigle and Moore's (1994) model of strategic management highlighted the importance of the strategy process. The authors suggested that the HRM function had a central role to play in “the organisation and distribution of information relating to strategy; the articulating, communicating and championing both the philosophy and the finer details behind formulation and implementation; regulating the patterns of activity

that emerge during the course of the strategy; and responding to the varying levels of commitment that may arise”, (Gunnigle and Moore 1994, p. 77). As this insight suggests, communication is held to be pivotal to aiding the success of strategic initiatives. The authors also commented upon the issue of strategy outcomes recognising “the results of any strategic process may emerge in a variety of different ways. Outcomes may be intended or unintended, direct or residual, immediate or delayed depending on the context, content and process of the strategy”, (Gunnigle and Moore 1994, p. 80).

In summing up the outlook for the development of integrated business strategies incorporating long-term ‘soft’ HRM practices in the United Kingdom, Legge (1995) pragmatically concludes that a more short-term, ‘hard’ HRM perspective is likely. The research findings of Gunnigle and Moore (1994) relating specifically to the Irish context support this viewpoint. In the light of such literature and given the global trend towards numerical flexibility (Thompson and McHugh 2002), evidenced in the growth of non-standard employment in Australia (Hall et al. 1998; Quinlan 1998), it may be reasonable to assume that the linkages between HRM and strategy in Australia can be similarly described.

3.2.3 The Strategy Versus Structure Debate

As one last detour before addressing literature in relation to the HRM function and flexibility theory, the strategy/structure debate is briefly reviewed to ensure a sufficiently integrated organisational perspective is realised. This debate links the examination of structural theory in Chapter Two with the strategic initiatives explored in the present chapter.

Raised in relation to the classical approach to strategy, of which his seminal work provides a foundation, Chandler's (1962) dictum that structure (decentralised) follows strategy (diversification) is one of the oldest and most studied contingent relationships in organisational theory (Amburgey and Dacin 1994). As Harris and Ruefli (2000) contend, the dictum has been studied in terms of temporal sequence

and the relative importance of the relationship components. In terms of sequencing, Amburgey and Dacin (1994) noted a shift over time from the hierarchical ordering proposed by Chandler (1962) to a reciprocal view of the relationship. This view encompassed the perspective of Mintzberg (1990) who considered that no existing organisation ever starts from scratch when devising strategy but draws upon past environmental and structural elements. Specifically in relation to HRM strategy, it is relevant to note that Hendry and Pettigrew's (1990) processual perspective regarded structural change as preceding strategy, an account at odds with Chandler's approach. In conducting longitudinal testing of the strategy-structure relationship (in 262 large firms over a 28-year period), Amburgey and Dacin (1994) found support for the reciprocal nature of the relationship. However, the results also confirmed a hierarchical link with strategy dominating. Further support for the prevailing status of the strategy component was evidenced in the cumulative effects on efficiency incremental strategic changes produced. In contrast, Amburgey and Dacin (1994) found that only the most recent of structural changes were likely to influence strategic change.

Regarding the question of strategy and structure initiatives and related performance outcomes, Harris and Ruefli (2000) remarked upon the dearth of studies examining the issue (the work of Rumelt (1974) is noted as an exception). Utilising the same data set as Amburgey and Dacin (1994), Harris and Ruefli's (2000) study found no support for the hypothesis that firms that temporally alter strategy, then structure, outperform those adopting the opposite approach. Evidence was found, however, to suggest that firms undertaking only singular structural changes exhibit significant, positive differences in financial performance. In reference to Amburgey and Dacin's (1994) findings, Harris and Ruefli (2000) noted the impact strategic changes can have on organisations, but also maintained that their study indicated the influence of structural changes should not be prematurely overlooked. The authors associated this argument with the work of Amit and Schoemaker (1993), acknowledging the role of structure in harnessing the embedded skills of an organisation's human capital. Harris and Ruefli (2000) outlined several limitations in relation to the data set (Rumelt 1978) used in their study. Firstly, the outdated

nature of the data set (performance data was analysed for the period 1945-1980) was viewed as potentially limiting generalisations to present day. The drawing of the sample from large manufacturing and mining firms also reduced the applicability of results to smaller organisations and service industries. Harris and Ruefli (2000) further recognised “the results of this study specifically refer to the corporate-level strategy/structure debate and do not address the issue at the strategic business unit level”, (p. 599). Given that this emphasis has been adopted by other scholars (Amburgey and Dacin, 1994; Chandler, 1962), the outlook for the strategy/structure debate being widened to incorporate HRM issues, let alone adequately addressing issues at the business unit level, is uncertain.

3.2.4 Human Resource Management and the Pursuit of Flexibility

Having now examined the theoretical issues associated with HRM, it is now possible to relate how the pursuit of flexibility by organisations affects or shapes this function.

In an investigation of implications of flexibility in Australia, Kramar (1998) noted that the HRM function might be called upon to mediate the perceptions of managers and employees about the nature of work, if they are not adequately aligned. Echoing Gunnigle and Moore's (1994) comments on communication, Kramar (1998) maintained that HRM practitioners were “usually responsible for developing and communicating information about changes in employment policies that foster the achievement of senior management’s corporate objectives”, (p. 458). The author noted, however, that this role must be simultaneously managed in light of monitoring policy outcomes such as turnover, absenteeism and employee stress levels. Considering flexibility driven changes to organisational structure and the standard ‘employment contract’, it is noted that HRM has a part to play in informing the workforce that “concepts such as secure jobs, vertical careers and rewards based on work value are no longer appropriate”, (Kramar 1998, p. 458).

Expanding upon the HRM function in relation to Atkinson's (1987) Flexible Firm model, Gooderham and Nordhaug (1997) contend that “in essence, HRM stands accused of having failed to address firms’ needs for forms of flexibility other than that of functional flexibility” (p. 570). This statement would appear reasonable given that the goals of HRM theories such as Guest's (1987) model (integration, flexibility, employee commitment, quality) might not be applied on a commensurate basis to all employees by organisations. Gooderham and Nordhaug (1997) contend that peripheral workers are “subject to a substantially different developmental and managerial regime than that of core employees. Their work is more closely controlled than empowered core employees and payment is either hourly or fixed at a piece-rate. Moreover, training paid for by the firm is limited”, (p. 571). This viewpoint supported Legge's (1995) delineation of HRM theory, with the author suggesting that while “policies of the ‘hard’ version model can be used on employees peripheral to the organisation, those of the ‘soft’ version can be used to reassure and secure ‘core’ employees whose resourcefulness is deemed essential for the achievement of competitive advantage”, (p. 88). Purcell and Purcell's (1998) linking of core employees to policies of high commitment management (Wood and Albanese 1995) similarly endorses this stance.

From the standpoint of a HRM theory that specifically integrates flexibility-related goals, Guest's (1987) model viewed flexibility as having three elements: organisational design, job design and employee attitudes and motivations (Legge 1995). The author surmised “that flexible organisation structures together with flexible job content and flexible employees will result in a capacity to respond swiftly and effectively to changes and ensure the continuing high utilisation of human and other resources”, (Guest 1987, p. 515). The impact of the flexibility goal on HRM activities such as job specification and job evaluation was also acknowledged, as an outcome of moves to avoid bureaucratic and hierarchical type structures.

In the context of temporary employment, Geary (1992) examined the ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ versions of HRM and their effects on employee attitudes. At two of the

research sites, the author noted that attempts to attain flexibility were sought firstly from within the firm by way of work reorganisation and the introduction of new technologies. The remaining (third) case-study firm used temporary workers as a buffer against changes in demand, in a manner that could be said to be similar to that espoused by the Flexible Firm model (Atkinson 1987). Geary (1992) goes on to report “management’s recruitment of temporary employees gave rise to conflict and tension. Neither the flexible firm nor the HRM model have given adequate attention to this possibility”, (p. 253). Conflicts were identified as occurring between temporary and permanent staff, with management also showing displeasure in relation to the workings of the recruitment policy. Geary (1992) noted outcomes of this friction included the close supervision of employees, leading in turn to employee resentment and negative impacts on teamwork. In relation to specific HR and line manager activities, Geary (1992) further articulated, “the need for supervision, meant that team briefings, communication meetings and employees’ appraisals were often delayed or dispensed with”, (p. 260). Confirming Gooderham and Nordhaug’s (1997) finding, Geary (1992) also noted that training levels were kept to a minimum in line with the demand driven recruitment policies.

Geary (1992) suggested that such conflicts represented some of the potential reasons why the firms studied would prefer to limit their use of temporary employees. In concluding, reference was made to the particular organisation actively pursuing the policy of recruiting contingent workers. Geary (1992) asserted in this instance “the suggestion that the creation of a core and peripheral workforce could enable management to achieve apparently irreconcilable objectives – the minimisation of labour costs at the periphery and the engendering of employees’ commitment at the core – would seem to be erroneous and misconceived”, (p. 267). The ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ HRM distinction as it applies to flexibility initiatives was similarly questioned. Geary (1992) contends that whilst the theoretical distinction is useful, it may be rendered ineffectual when the practice of HRM tends towards the ‘hard’ version (evidenced in the increasing utilisation of atypical forms of employment) and neglects the ‘soft’ values of

employee development and commitment. As a final charge levelled at both the Flexible Firm (Atkinson 1987) and HRM models, Geary (1992) recognised the tendency of these theories to view flexibility as a positive outcome set on a continuum against rigidity (perceived in a negative fashion). This insight mirrors earlier comments about the positioning of these concepts by flexibility theorists including Atkinson (1987) and Volberda (1998).

Further examination of the organisational implications for HRM adapting to contingent forms of employment can be found in the studies of Hall (2000) and Lowry (2001). Utilising a case-study methodology, Hall (2000) interpreted employer-funded training as a proxy for assessing the extent of human resource development undertaken in organisations that have outsourced business functions. The author reported that within a hospital setting, outsourcing (in the form of competitive tendering) has affected training in terms of the activity being deemed as largely discretionary (subject to budgets and related labour costs) and as a contract input, rather than a contract output liable to ongoing monitoring of activity outcomes. Hall (2000) remarked that in this particular case “there is no doubt that employee trust, commitment and loyalty had been greatly damaged as a result of outsourcing”, (p. 36). These findings add weight to Kramar's (1998) remarks that the HRM function should have a critical role in guiding and re-educating the workforce about changing structural and employment policies as a means of minimising such negative effects.

As Geary's (1992) study had set out to capture employee attitudes to temporary employment, Lowry (2001) also utilised this course to examine casual workers' perceptions of HRM practices. It is noted that a fundamental reason for undertaking this research was to empirically investigate certain assumptions regarding casual employment from the perspective of workers occupying such positions. Providing an example, Lowry (2001) noted, “it is assumed that workers in secondary jobs have low commitment to the firm, and have low expectations of what the firm will offer them. The casualisation of work thus implies that management can obviate the need for certain HRM activities by assuming low

levels of commitment”, (p. 44). As the author goes on to surmise, such thinking within organisations can evolve to become a ‘self-fulfilling prophecy’. Findings from the three-phase study (sampled from the registered club industry in New South Wales) indicated that in general casual employees perceived the HRM function within their organisations was providing either an inferior or inaccessible service. Lowry (2001) found that the reasons behind employees undertaking casual work affected their perceptions of the activity. Whilst nearly two-thirds of the returned sample were involuntarily employed in this manner and demonstrated negative perceptions of casual work, another group of casual employees were identified as having more positive views of the work experience in light of it complementing family or life commitments.

In examining specific HR practices, Lowry (2001) reported that in terms of work scheduling “substantive comments from the questionnaire reveal that flexibility is currently seen to be *employer* flexibility at the exclusion of employee flexibility”, (p. 49). Some of the factors identified as potentially amending this perspective included calls for greater staff consultation in finalising rosters and fairer distribution of shifts that attract premium penalty rates. In relation to training, Lowry (2001, p. 50) noted “the absence of a training and development ‘culture’ within the club environment”, with on-the-job training being the predominant form of instruction for casual employees. Findings regarding the evaluation and rewarding of casual employees’ performance raise further implications for the HRM function. Lowry (2001) reported that a significant relationship existed between voluntary and involuntary casual employment and satisfaction with promotional opportunities. This finding highlighted the vulnerable position of those workers who least wished to be casually employed and at the same time were experiencing the lowest levels of satisfaction with the opportunities available for enhancing their employment status. Further compounding this dilemma was a lack of performance feedback for casual workers (Lowry 2001).

In concluding, Lowry (2001) contends that “HRM practices considered particularly problematic for casual employees included promotional opportunity, access to

adequate training, social integration, recognition and feedback from management and work scheduling congruence (fit between the organisation's demands and personal preferences)", (p. 60). This finding lends support to the authors' assertion that self-fulfilling outcomes may arise by way of confirming management assumptions that casual employees have diminished expectations with respect to the level of organisational investment allocated towards their development. Lowry (2001) goes on to argue that the HRM function needs to be more proactive on behalf of casual and other employees, in this particular instance, in an industry sector (registered clubs) where "HRM strategy and practice is neither sophisticated nor 'advanced' in terms of recognising the needs of workers", (p. 47).

The above-mentioned studies by Hall (2000) and Lowry (2001) have explored HRM issues in relation to the pursuit of numerical flexibility. Similar treatment should be afforded the topic with respect to functional flexibility. Friedrich et al. (1998) questioned whether these types of initiatives were undertaken on a strategic basis by organisations. Using the data set of responses contained in the Cranfield Network on European Human Resource (Cranet-E) Survey (Brewster, Tregaskis, Hegwisch and Mayne 2000), the authors examined the practice of job rotation (transferring employees between various jobs within an organisation) and whether it was indicative of "strategic oriented human resource management in the sense of a coordinated, objective personnel management pattern", (p. 509). The results indicated that only 20 per cent of the European organisations surveyed systematically utilise job rotation as a means of attaining functional flexibility.

Despite this finding, Friedrich et al. (1998) reported a significant, positive relationship between the practice of job rotation and the three variables employed (HR strategy, training policy and proportion of wages and salaries spent on training) as indicators of this strategic approach. The authors noted, "this result sets job rotation fundamentally apart from the rather short-term approach of numerical flexibility", (p. 516). Friedrich et al. (1998) recognised that the implementation of job rotation presented certain implications for the HR function. These impacts included the identification of suitable 'rotation' positions, adjusting employee

remuneration levels, alleviating supervisor and staff resistance to the practice and maintaining employee commitment to the organisation. Careful consideration of such factors supports the suggestion that a more strategic (long-term, integrated) approach is required in relation to this type of functional flexibility. Riley (1992) identified a number of related considerations for promoting functional flexibility in hotel settings.

Friedrich et al. (1998, p. 520) called for “a more far-reaching analysis of the strategic integration of flexibility” in light of some of the limitations of their study. As the authors pointed out, the data set used does not enable analysis of job rotation from the perspective of certain employee groups or consider how the practice is combined with other elements of the HRM function. Despite these limitations, an insight is gained at the aggregate level in relation to this particular form of functional flexibility. In an earlier study by O'Reilly (1992), a case-study methodology was utilised to examine functional flexibility in relation to the retail banking sector. In contrast to Friedrich et al. (1998), who found that company size (measured by the number of employees) exerted a positive influence on the use of job rotation (this finding could potentially be biased by an over representation of large firms in the data set used), O'Reilly (1992) contends that “in smaller work units functional flexibility is more developed, and in larger bureaucratized organisations we could expect to find a more extensive division of labour and task fragmentation”, (p. 374). These discordant perspectives likely arise due to the differing interpretations of functional flexibility employed by the researchers. Friedrich et al. (1998) as we have noted utilised the highly formalised practice of job rotation with which to examine the concept, whereas O'Reilly (1992) employed a broader definition exploring functional flexibility in terms of task variety and expansion.

Comparing the extent of functional flexibility in Britain and France, O'Reilly (1992) reported that the concept is more fully developed in the latter context. The author goes on to note that “in Britain 26% of the sample were categorised as not functionally flexible, ie they were in repetitive jobs and had not experienced any

increase in task variety”, (p. 389). This figure compares to only 12% of respondents in France. O'Reilly (1992) tests for the distinction between functional flexibility and the up-skilling of employees. She outlined, “only 44% of the British respondents and 47% of the French, who could be considered to be functionally flexible, said that their training had increased. This means that less than half the sample could be considered to have been up-skilled”, (O'Reilly 1992, p. 390). Given this finding, O'Reilly (1992) stressed that the trend towards horizontal task enlargement should be viewed separately from up-skilling efforts. Recognising the incremental nature of strategy development, O'Reilly (1992) identified that “a more accurate analysis needs to distinguish where task expansion has led to up-skilling, as distinct from ad-hoc, piecemeal change with the repercussions of intensifying work”, (p. 392). Such findings, as they relate to functional flexibility, raise questions about the extent to which HRM action is being directed towards developing the skills of numerically flexible workers.

O'Reilly (1992) recognised the need for enhanced strategy identification from the perspective of functional flexibility. In a later study, Mayne, Tregaskis and Brewster (1996) examined whether the increased application of flexible working patterns, in the form of part-time and shorter-term working, resulted from either deliberate HR strategy initiatives or reactive operational decision-making. Employing the Cranet-E data set, the researchers split the sample into high (20% of workforce employed on a part-time, temporary or fixed-term basis) flexibility organisations (HFOs) and low (at most 2% of workforce employed according to these patterns) flexibility organisations (LFOs). Acknowledging certain limitations of the data set, Mayne et al. (1996) noted that only firms employing over 200 employees were represented and certain surrogate measures were formulated in order to distinguish between HR strategies.¹ Qualitative interviews were also incorporated into the study to complement the quantitative analysis.

¹ In reference to the other studies (Friedrich et al. 1998; Gunnigle and Moore 1994) outlined in this chapter that have employed the Cranet-E data set, it is perhaps worthwhile noting that the survey has been conducted more than once (for the years 1990, 1991, 1992 and 1995), with different European countries surveyed each time and varying sample sizes achieved (Brewster et al. 2000). This point is made in order to caution against the direct comparison of these studies on any particular HR issue.

Mayne et al. (1996) reported that in relation to organisational demographics, a relationship was found between HFOs and organisations that were growing (in terms of employee numbers). Whilst the authors contend that a link between flexible working patterns and success can be inferred, it may be overly premature to speculate as to the exact nature of the relationship. In respect to organisational policy, Mayne et al. (1996) identified very few differences between HFOs and LFOs in terms of communication, training and employee monitoring. As a partial explanation for this finding, the authors suggested that flexible firm theory (Atkinson 1987) might be “accurate in identifying that peripheral workers, not seen as crucial to the success of the organisation, are much less likely to be the subject of investment of time and resources for either training or communication”, (Mayne et al. 1996, p. 14). Confirming this assessment somewhat, are the findings of an exploratory study of flexible work arrangements in tourism and hospitality organisations. Holloway and Davies (2001) remarked that an “appropriate way to view the workforce in these organisations may be as a seamless continuum of workers requiring different levels of human resource support (particularly in terms of training and development)”, (p. 156).

In terms of organisational strategy, Mayne et al. (1996) reported that HFOs were more likely to adopt a strategic approach to the HRM function. This approach included the involvement by these organisations of their HR practitioners (from the outset) in the development of corporate strategy and the maintenance of documented business and HR policies. Once more a “processual” (Whittington 1993) approach to linking HR strategy and flexibility is suggested, confirming comments by Procter et al. (1994) that Mintzberg's (1978) incremental view of strategy development should be applied when considering flexibility initiatives.

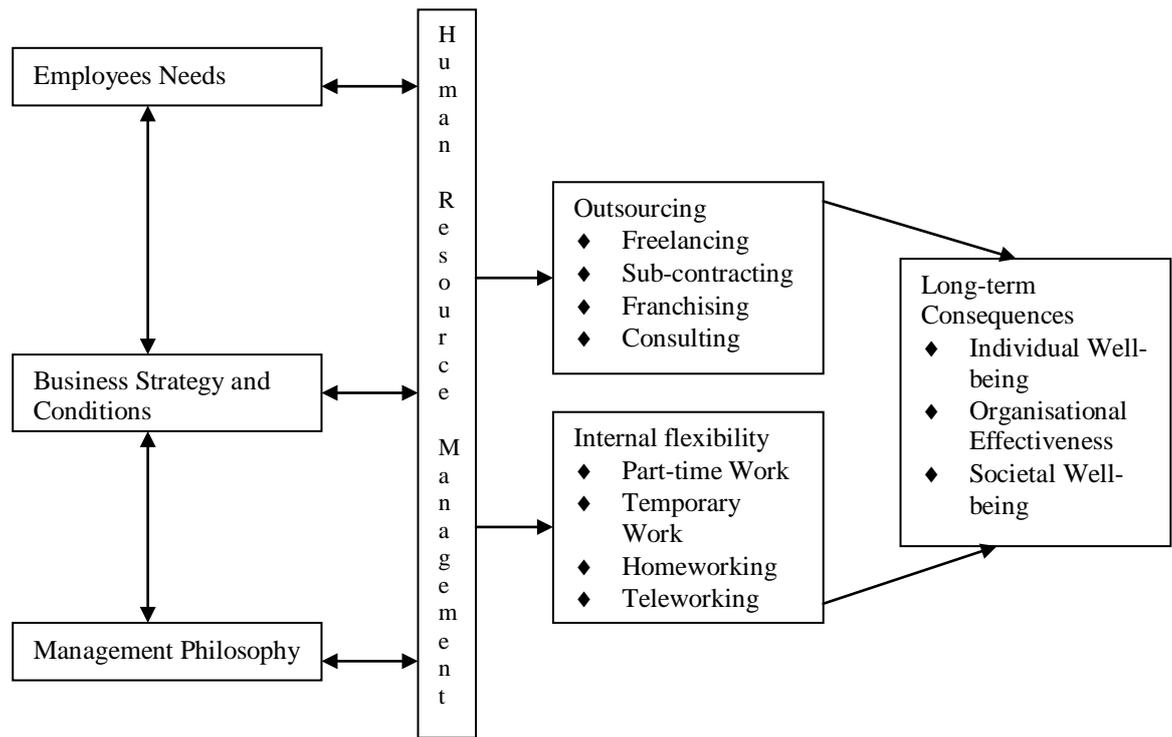
As an overview, the preceding studies provide a less than ideal insight into how firms have been pursuing flexible working patterns and the ensuing implications for human resource management. For those workers considered to be functionally flexible, evidence of up-skilling efforts expended upon them has been less than convincing (O'Reilly 1992). For contingent workers, typically utilised to capitalise

upon the benefits of demand driven numerical flexibility, several studies (Geary 1992; Gooderham and Nordhaug 1997) depict low levels of HR investment allocated towards their development, aligned with employee work perceptions (Lowry 2001). To improve upon this state of affairs with regard to workplace flexibility, recent works from Reilly (2001) and Sheridan and Conway (2001) have advocated the balancing of employer and employee interests.

3.2.5 Balancing Flexibility

In their examination of how the various conflicting needs of flexibility may be reconciled, Walsh and Deery (1997, p. 1) noted that “a major problem with the treatment of flexibility in HRM literature, as well as in the broader debate on the flexible firm, has been the tendency to focus in a one sided fashion on emergent trends in employer strategy and policy”. As it relates to the Australian context, the rationale provided by Sheridan and Conway (2001) for this focus corresponds with that offered by Atkinson (1987) who surmised that labour market deregulation and changing work patterns had accounted for these trends in Britain. Sheridan and Conway (2001) posited that a gap existed between employer (business) flexibility and employee (family-friendly) flexibility in terms of concept definition and execution. The authors subsequently argued that “for the utilisation of more flexible labour to be an effective organisational strategy, greater attention must be paid within the HRM context to exposing the different needs of employees and employers and then negotiating between them”, (Sheridan and Conway 2001, p. 8). An adapted version of the “Harvard” (soft) model of HRM (Beer et al. 1985) is promoted by Sheridan and Conway (2001) as encompassing the necessary revisions that HR practitioners must make in order to more effectively manage flexible working patterns to the compromised advantage of both parties (see Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1: Flexibility as a Strategic HR Issue



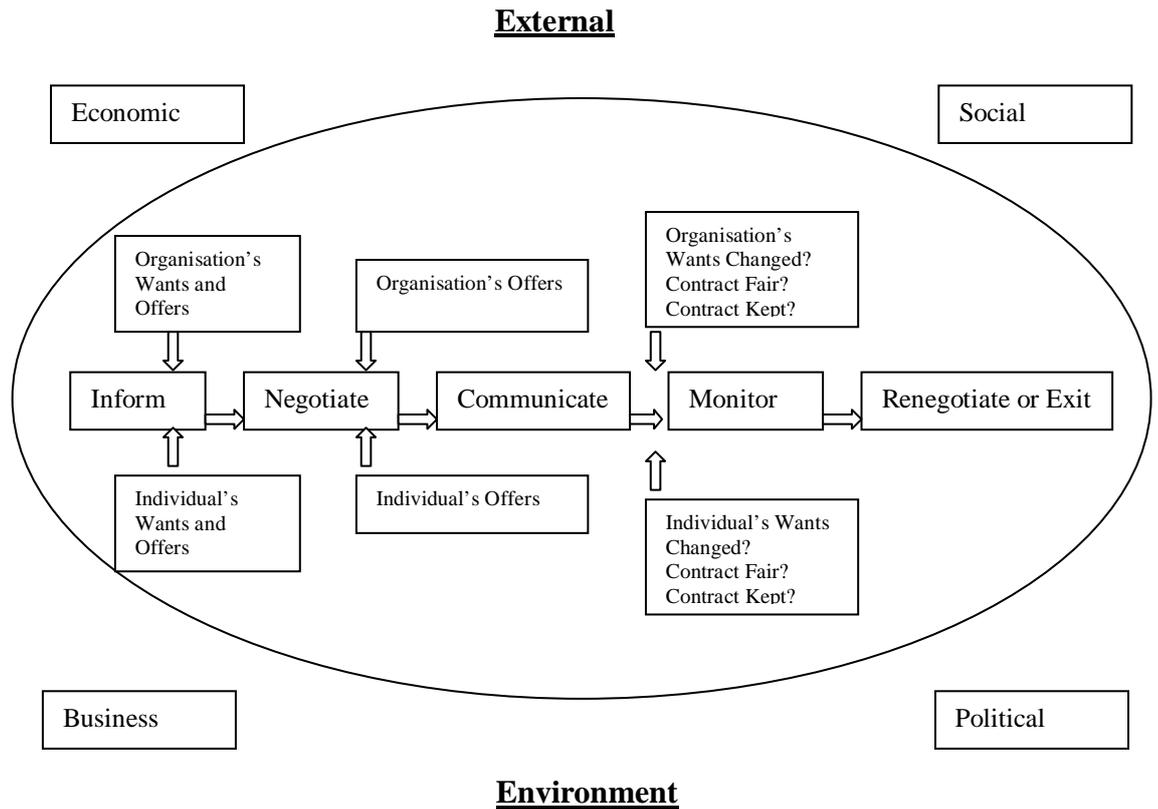
Source: Sheridan and Conway (2001)

Reilly (2001) also emphasised the importance of negotiating between employer and employee interests in his theoretical work on flexibility. Terming the most exploitative forms of employer flexibility as ‘cyclopic’, Reilly (2001) noted several practices characteristic of this type of flexibility. These included organisations “failing to give employees written contracts of employment, the payment of low wages, unilateral variations of contract by the employer, denial of legal rights, dismissal in the face of challenge to such violations or impositions, and avoidance of employment-related costs”, (p. 74). In relation to employee-favoured flexibility options, the author recognised that these may arise by accident (incidental flexibility) or through deliberate effort (mutual flexibility). Reilly (2001) advocated that the following features were representative of the concept of mutual flexibility:

- “It recognises that employers and employees have their own needs to serve;
- It appreciates that these needs are different;
- It respects the importance of satisfying each other’s requirements;
- It benefits both parties;
- It is freely entered into by both sides;
- It acknowledges that circumstances may change and with it the needs of the parties”, (p. 78).

Why should employers consciously consider the implementation of flexibility initiatives that account for the economic and social needs of employees? Reilly (2001) suggested that recognising past success stories and research evidence, responding to external pressures and realising the risks of not doing so, all provide valid reasons for adopting such an approach. In terms of the success stories, the facilitation of organisational change, improved productivity levels and lower rates of absenteeism were noted as being some of the practical benefits derived from mutual flexibility. Reilly (2001) cited (amongst others) research from Huselid (1995) and Tsui, Pearce, Porter and Tripoli (1997) to support this stance. Tsui et al. (1997), in a study of the employee-organisation relationship, found that in those instances characterised by an over-investment in the relationship (by the employer) or mutual-investment, employees performed better on core tasks and demonstrated higher levels of affective commitment. Huselid (1995) reported that positive outcomes (in terms of turnover, productivity and corporate financial performance) could be gained from High Performance Work Practices relating to employee skills, organisational structures and employee motivation. As a possible ramification of ignoring the mutuality agenda, Reilly (2001) referred to the onset of a vicious circle of organisational change, similar to the notion of a self-fulfilling prophecy raised by Lowry (2001) in relation to contingent employment.

Figure 3.2: A Model of Achieving Mutual Flexibility



Source: Reilly (2001, p. 94), adapted from Herriot et al. (1998)

Reilly (2001) embodied the basic tenets of the mutual flexibility approach in a model based on earlier work (Herriot, Hirsh and Reilly 1998). It is noted by the author that as the model represented a two-way process, “it dismisses the HRM assumption of a unitarist vision shared by one and all”, Reilly (2001, p. 94). As depicted in Figure 3.2, the model incorporates several steps arranged from scanning the environment through to re-evaluating the outcomes of mutual flexibility initiatives. Reilly (2001) indicated that the ‘inform’ step of the model involved a mutual exchange between employers and employees in relation to aspects of business strategy. After negotiating what flexible work practices are to be initiated (Step 3), these outcomes are depicted in the model as being communicated (either formally or informally) to organisational participants. With proper monitoring of the work practices involved (Step 5) it may be posited that when it comes to re-evaluation (Step 6), termination of these mutually flexible

arrangements can be avoided and if renegotiation is required, it can be done so in a setting of enhanced employer/employee relations.

Reilly (2001) identified certain prerequisites to be met in order to achieve mutual flexibility. In the context of the present chapter, two prerequisites are particularly relevant. These relate to the role of the HRM function in change facilitation and the importance of ensuring HR policy integration. Reilly (2001) noted aspects of the change facilitation role in reference to the various steps of the model. These included canvassing initial support for change, through to monitoring for consistent policy application and providing management with the necessary tools (labour market intelligence and legal updates) for advising on the re-evaluation process. Complementing Guest's (1987) recognition of the need for mutuality of employment policies (goal of integration), Reilly (2001) acknowledged that mutual flexibility efforts should not represent stand-alone initiatives, but rather an integrated policy framework linking recruitment, career development, rewards and other key HRM functions. As an overview, the author noted "changing the organisation's approach to flexibility should lead to a thorough examination of all HR policies to see whether they remain robust in the new circumstances. And any change should lead to an integrated response", (Reilly 2001, p. 120). In providing a complete picture of the factors that affect the implementation of flexible work arrangements and ultimately, the achievement of mutual flexibility, Reilly (2001) cautioned against neglecting some of the limitations that might apply to these practices (see Table 3.2).

Many commentators on flexibility theory (Brewster et al. 2000; Tailby 1999; Houseman 2001; Junor 1998) have acknowledged the benefits (or costs dependent upon whose perspective is being adopted) of flexibility for employers and employees and in doing so have unmasked the potential incompatibilities of interest. Mutuality is not a new concept (Tsui et al. 1997), however, the models by Reilly (2001) and Sheridan and Conway (2001) explicitly set out to articulate how flexibility can be achieved according to this principle. Given their relative recency, the opportunity exists to empirically test the underlying assumptions of these

models in terms of different types of productive activity (manufacturing, services), across various industry sectors and with different categories of workers (part-time, temporary) in order to expand upon the existing body of flexibility research.

Table 3.2: Solutions and Risks in Using Flexible Work Arrangements

Drivers for flexibility	Possible solution	Potential problems/risks
Reducing Costs	Outsourcing	Contract Monitoring
	Variable Hours Patterns	Complex Administration
	Temps/Agency Labour	Questionable Commitment
Improving Quality/Service	Remote Working	Problematic Communication
	Outsourcing	Loss of Control
	Variable Hours Patterns	Complex Administration
Increasing Productivity	Cross-functional Working	Lack of Real Expertise
	Multi-skilling	Loss of Knowledge/Skill
	Variable Hours Patterns	Complex Administration
Hedging Against Change	Outsourcing	Cost of Early Contract-termination
	Temps/Agency/Contractors	Higher Staff Turnover
	Variable Hours Patterns	Complex Management
Meeting Supply Needs	Remote Working	Questionable Productivity
	Temping	Questionable Loyalty

Source: Reilly (2001), adapted from (Reilly 1997)

3.2.6 Overview of Flexibility and Human Resource Management

An underlying theme to emerge from the preceding discussion of human resource management theory, strategy and structural elements, and flexibility theory is that from the organisational perspective an integrated approach should be adopted to ensure that the implications deriving from these elements are optimally accounted for. Ideally this approach should incorporate the involvement of management and employees at all levels, with the HRM function playing a coordinating role. However, as evidence from this chapter has attested, this ideal is not always met.

3.3 Flexibility and the Services Sector

Several studies of flexibility articulated in the present review of literature have been undertaken in service settings. These settings included hospitality and tourism organisations (Bagguley 1990; Guerrier and Lockwood 1989; Holloway and Davies 2001; Kelliher 1989; Lowry 2001), banking (O'Reilly 1992) and medical institutions (Allen 1998; Hall 2000). It should be noted, however, that the great body of research contributing to the flexibility debate has been developed outside

of such settings. In relation to the structural theory outlined in Chapter Two, it was noted that the overwhelming majority of this literature had been borne of manufacturing environments. The same assertion could be said to apply to production theories (Fordism, post-Fordism, neo-Fordism). Korczynski (2002) noted that “in certain visions we jump from the industrial, Fordist economy, to the post-industrial knowledge economy, with a little flexible specialisation production to tie us gently to the manufacturing past”, (p. 192). However, as Hyman (1991) pointed out, an overall shift in the working population, with service workers exceeding their manufacturing counterparts, acted as a contributing catalyst to new, possibly more flexible forms of production. Examining specific flexibility theories, the Flexible Firm model (Atkinson 1987) was originally developed as a model of change among large manufacturing employers. Tailby (1999, p. 496) noted, however, “it is in manufacturing, perhaps, that moves to develop a peripheral workforce have been slowest”. Korczynski (2002) contends, “many of the dominant concepts and metaphors used to analyse employment are rooted in manufacturing”, (p. 1).

In acknowledging the unique features and extent of service sector employment in several developed economies, Korczynski (2002) provided justification for separately examining how this type of productive activity might affect the HRM function in organisations. Given that the focus of this thesis, flexibility theory, has largely been derived from manufacturing settings, a similar investigation of the nature of service work may be warranted. As a consequence, any underlying themes relevant to flexibility initiatives in service settings may be more clearly explicated and a balanced sectoral view of flexibility obtained.

In the case of service industries, it has been suggested that the need for flexibility arises from the very nature of service work itself (Allen 1998; Allen and du Gay 1994; Buultjens and Howard 2001). Key characteristics of such work include intangibility, perishability (services cannot be stored or stockpiled for future use), variability and simultaneous production (by the service worker) and consumption (by the service recipient) leading to inseparability. Recognising the role of

consumers in the service process, Sosteric (1996) noted, “unlike manufacturing, where the worker is dealing with inanimate nature, workers in the service industry deal with living human beings. This means that social interaction becomes one of the central dynamics along which to characterise various occupations”, (p. 298). Acknowledging the features of service work, Allen (1998, p.65) recognised that they “place strong cost pressures on employers to ensure that labour-use patterns directly correspond to consumer-demand patterns”, likely contributing to the flexibility impetus. Holloway and Davies (2001) highlighted that “the demand for services fluctuates for many reasons including seasonal, economic, social and political factors” (p. 145).

Of the existing literature on service work, Korczynski (2002) reviewed the new service management school of thought and the critical perspectives school as the main sources of theory. From the perspective of his study, specifically examining HRM in front line service work, Korczynski (2002) remarked that the first approach emanates from and uses the tools of general HRM theory (well-developed selection, training and reward practices) in order to create positive outcomes where “customers will receive higher-quality service and will be more satisfied when the front-line workforce themselves are satisfied in their jobs”, (p. 20). Reviewing the research evidence (Ryan, Schmidt and Johnson 1996; Schneider, Parkington and Buxton 1980), the author maintained that this supposition is yet to be empirically confirmed (Korczynski 2002). It may be questioned, in regard to the flexibility research presented in this thesis, whether customers perceive the diminished effects of employee commitment levels (Hall 2000; Lowry 2001) stemming from more atypical-type (casual, temporary) service work and how these insights ultimately influence the service experience. As Lowry (2001) noted in her study, for those casual workers who were so dissatisfied they had chosen not to provide quality service, “this is a potentially serious problem given the dramatic growth of the service sector, where ‘quality service’ provision is the expected employee duty and an anticipated organisational objective”, (p. 59).

Korczynski (2002) associated Ritzer's (1996) McDonaldisation thesis with the second school of theory. This critical perspective utilises Weber's (1947) notions of rationality and the bureaucratic organisation (as outlined in Chapter Two). In organisational terms, the concept of McDonaldisation involves the dimensions of efficiency, calculability, predictability and control. Ritzer (1996) asserted the increasing dominance of the concept, however, this view has been questioned. Nichols (2001) surmised "it is really remarkable, when set in terms of capitalist dynamics, that this should be regarded as a revolutionary development, certainly as far as the labour process is concerned. Indeed, it is difficult, on Ritzer's' own account of McDonaldisation, to reject it as evidence of the diffusion of Taylorism and Fordism. It is not the method that is new but the diffusion – the fact that it is put into operation in a new place", (p. 192). A key criticism of the theory relates to the lack of accompanying empirical evidence with which to confirm the extent of McDonaldised jobs in labour force settings (Korczynski 2002).

Korczynski (2002) acknowledged that while McDonaldisation may extend beyond its associated origins, he cited Ritzer (1998, p. 60) that "the services sector, especially at its lower end, is producing an enormous number of jobs, most of them requiring little or no skill". This assertion can be linked to Braverman's (1974) de-skilling theory of work. Rubery and Wilkinson (1994) noted that this theory suggested "the dominant imperative of capital was towards the application of technology and systems of work organisation designed to reduce the scope for discretion and exercise of judgement by labour", (p. 6). In terms of McDonaldised jobs, tight direction exhibited over work tasks and the imposition of service encounter scripts, are offered by Ritzer (1998) as manifestations of such de-skilling. In relation to flexibility research, a study of outsourcing and contingent employment by Purcell and Purcell (1998) similarly noted "information technology allows for de-skilling and the rapid growth in contract labour in a wide range of service and, to a lesser extent, manufacturing companies", (p. 54). An earlier account is at odds with this de-skilled picture of service work. O'Reilly (1992) surmised "the literature on flexibility has suggested that technological change does not inevitably lead to de-skilling in the way suggested by Braverman (1974)", (p.

369). As was noted, however, in the preceding discussion of HRM and flexibility, O'Reilly's (1992) research findings did not fully support the view that functional flexibility and the up-skilling of service workers were equivalent concepts.

3.3.1 Overview of Flexibility and the Services Sector

A crucial point to emerge from the preceding discussion of organisational flexibility and the nature of service work relates to the recognition that economic and social elements of service provision can create dilemmas for organisations seeking to initiate flexible work practices. As Arrowsmith and McGoldrick (1996) noted “the labour-intensive nature of service organisations can imply, for example, relatively low pay and restricted overall career development opportunities. Variability in demand, long trading hours and relatively high labour costs imply that part-time patterns of employment are preferred. Staffing levels are also kept to a minimum in order to reduce costs and maximise productivity. Yet, at the same time, the motivation and commitment of front-line staff can be crucial in delivering a positive perception of service quality”, (p. 47). Allen (1998) likewise appreciated that cost pressures generating the need for numerical flexibility must be weighed against the necessity to provide personalised service, as embodied in the use of a core, reliable and well-trained workforce. With management confronted by these contradictory agendas of cost minimisation and service quality, as Korczynski (2002) contends it may be realistic to expect that some form of fragile order must be maintained, aided by all parts of the organisation.

3.4 Chapter Summary

The current chapter provides an account of flexibility from a more applied perspective, considering the implications of the HRM function and service work upon such initiatives.

An introductory overview of the transition from personnel to human resource management incorporated the basic tenets of the latter concept: seeking competitive advantage through labour and linking HR activities to strategic

business planning. Various models of strategy were presented as underpinning this link (Whittington 1993).

In terms of HR practices, the delineation between 'hard' and 'soft' models has been acknowledged. The hard version was associated with the work of Fombrun et al. (1984) and characterised by the use of atypical forms of employment (Cunningham and Hyman 1995). The soft version, that adopted a more developmental approach to HRM, was aligned to the theoretical contribution of Beer et al. (1985). Truss et al. (1997) surmised that a mixture of soft and hard approaches were likely to occur in individual organisations, influenced by strategic, structural and cultural factors. The author further noted that while firms were likely to adopt the 'rhetoric' of the soft HRM model, in 'reality', the hard model was more inclined to dominate.

Given the outcomes of flexibility research in relation to HRM, the same delineation could be said to apply to flexible work practices. Legge (1995) equated the policies of soft HRM to the development of functional flexibility amongst core employees, whilst the policies of hard HRM were used on employees peripheral to the organisational, in order to achieve numerical flexibility. Indeed, Geary (1992) suggested that the goals of gaining employee commitment from core staff and cost minimisation from peripheral staff were irreconcilable. The nature of service work adds another dimension to this delicate balance as workers associated with all forms of flexibility (numerical, temporal and functional) are expected to provide quality service. The findings of Lowry (2001), however, are in conflict with this assertion, as dissatisfied casual workers were depicted as choosing not to conform to this standard.

This literature suggests that there is no clear path which organisations can take to direct themselves through the flexibility minefield. Classical type HR strategies are generally scarce in practice (Gunnigle and Moore 1994) and may be too rigid to cope with the uncertainties presented by changing business environments. Perhaps a less-formalised, more incremental view of strategy (Hendry and Pettigrew 1990;

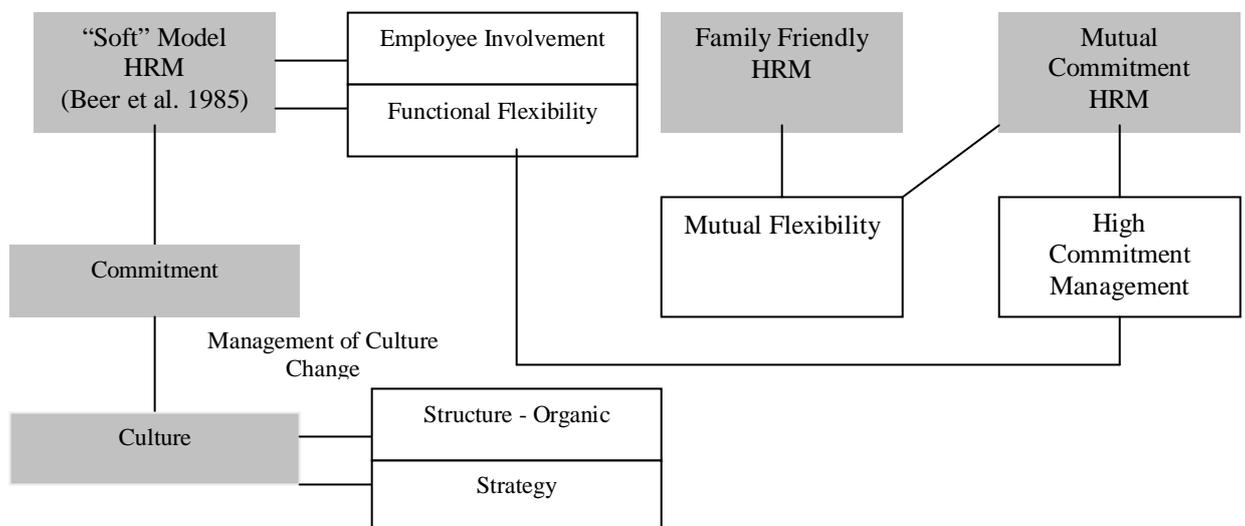
Procter et al. 1994) may best account for the nature of flexible work patterns. This, however, will not be sufficient to ensure an improved implementation of flexible work practices. The very nature of these work practices, which have for a long time subjugated employee interests to the benefit of employers (Lowry 2001; Walsh and Deery 1997), should be adapted to acknowledge and reconcile the needs of both groups (Reilly 2001; Sheridan and Conway 2001). As to whether these changes will be effective in improving upon the current state of affairs regarding organisational flexibility, is a question that requires empirical testing.

CHAPTER 4 – ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

4.1 Chapter Introduction

The present chapter moves beyond flexibility to examine two core concepts of organisational theory that are relevant to both paid employees and volunteers – organisational commitment and culture. The former concept was briefly linked in the previous chapter to the ‘soft’ model of HRM (Beer et al. 1985) and discussed in relation to the effects of numerical flexibility (Lowry 2001). The human resource management literature will continue to offer pertinent insights into the following examination of commitment. In particular, the antecedents, consequences and management of commitment by organisations are explored. The commitment concept has also been related to the management of organisational culture change (Legge 1995). Culture is given substantial attention since there is a significant body of research detailing the concept and its links (Hendry and Pettigrew 1990; Legge 1995; Truss et al. 1997) to many of the other focus areas (HR, strategy and structure) outlined in this thesis. Figure 4.1 depicts some of these links in a conceptual map.

Figure 4.1: Links Between Organisational Commitment and Culture



Source: Author (Based on Armstrong 2001; Beer et al. 1985; Guest 1992; Legge 1995; Meyer and Allen 1997; Sheridan and Conway 2001; Walton 1985a; Wood and Albanese 1995)

4.2 Organisational Commitment

From reading the literature on organisational commitment, there appears to be minimal investigation linking the origins of the concept to the theory on commitment and how commitment may be achieved (the work of Meyer and Allen (1997) provides a notable exception). Providing an adequate definition of commitment is a necessary prerequisite to integrating these elements.

Meyer and Allen (1997) distinguished between organisational commitment and other types of association that may develop within a workplace setting (for example, commitment to a particular manager, occupation or union). The main emphasis of organisational commitment, the committed employee, is defined by the authors as “one who stays with the organisation through thick and thin, attends work regularly, puts in a full day (and maybe more), protects company assets, shares company goals, and so on”, (p. 3). The current review will further elaborate upon this type of commitment and provide an expanded definition developed from a range of conceptualisations.

4.2.1 Origins of Organisational Commitment

Referring to the origins of the concept of organisational commitment, Legge (1995) noted that the human relations school (Mayo 1946), neo-human relations writers concerned with participative leadership and motivation theories (Herzberg 1966; Likert 1961; McGregor 1960) and ‘structural-functional sociologists’ (Gouldner 1954; Merton 1957; Selznick 1949) variously contributed to the commitment impetus. In particular, this contribution encompassed recognition of the social affective needs of employees and questioned the negative effects for workers arising from bureaucratic structures. On a more applied level, Legge (1995) identified the organisational development push of the 1960s and 1970s as being another historical antecedent of the interest in employee commitment. It is

the later work of several HRM theorists and management writers, however, that has most influenced how commitment is viewed. In these cases, it is perceived as being generated and managed in organisations. Particular contributions included 'high commitment work systems' (Walton 1980), the 'high involvement model' (Lawler 1986) and research on organisational excellence (Peters and Waterman 1982). Later work by Walton (1985a) emphasised the importance of mutuality in eliciting employee commitment. Such HRM contributions will be investigated in the following section.

4.2.2 What is Organisational Commitment?

In the process of defining organisational commitment, numerous writers have advanced knowledge concerning the basic nature of the concept. Meyer and Allen (1991) have noted the lack of consensus about definitions. In a later work, Meyer and Allen (1997) acknowledged the widely accepted distinction between attitudinal and behavioural commitment, and the ramifications for studying the development and consequences of these particular concepts. Guest (1992) traced the conceptualisation of attitudinal commitment back to the work of Buchanan (1974). Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) proposed the more widely used definition, which is sub-divided into three elements. These included "an identification with the goals and values of the organisation, a desire to belong to the organisation; and a willingness to display effort on behalf of the organisation", (Armstrong 2001, p. 171). The authors developed the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to measure these elements (Mowday et al. 1982; Mowday, Steers and Porter 1979; Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian 1974). Meyer and Allen (1997) noted that research efforts to determine whether attitudinal commitment is linked to positive outcomes (lower absenteeism and turnover) and/or certain personal characteristics, have for the most part been unable to establish causality as they have "employed cross-sectional designs in which commitment and its antecedents and/or consequences were measured at the same time", (p. 9).

Salancik (1977) summarised the behavioural approach to commitment stating that “the degree of commitment derives from the extent to which a person’s behaviours are binding. Four characteristics of behavioural acts make them binding, and hence determine the extent of commitment: explicitness; revocability, volition; and publicity”, (p. 4). Meyer and Allen (1997) suggested that behavioural commitment to a certain course of action can develop retrospectively in order to lessen dissonance and maintain positive self-perceptions. This position contrasts with the progressive direction in which attitudinal commitment is widely thought to develop. Further comparison by Legge (1995) highlighted that “whilst both forms of commitment assume instrumental or calculative motivations, attitudinal commitment suggests that commitment is exchanged for valued rewards, in contrast to behavioural commitment which involves a calculation of the costs of leaving rather than the rewards for staying with the organisation”, (p. 181). Guest (1992) provided a further definitional distinction in his review of the various approaches to commitment. The author noted that the concept of exchange commitment, contained in the writings of Becker (1960) and Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), “implies that satisfaction and identification with the organisation is less important than a sense of being tied to it through investments such as pay, pensions, promotion expectations and social relationships. Commitment to an organisation will result for as long as an individual believes that membership provides him or her with the best exchange available”, (Guest 1992, p. 116). Legge (1995) has classified this under the heading of behavioural commitment.

A more recent approach taken to classifying organisational commitment is outlined in Meyer and Allen's (1991) ‘three-component model of commitment’. This attitudinal-based model delineates between affective, continuance and normative commitment by describing the nature of the psychological state symptomatic of each form. Differentiating between these concepts, Meyer and Allen (1991) posited, “affective commitment refers to the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs

associated with leaving the organisation. Employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organisation”, (p. 67). Guest (1992) acknowledged, along with the attitudinal aspects, the links between earlier versions of this theory (Meyer and Allen 1984) and exchange commitment. Behavioural commitment was also incorporated into the three-component model both as an antecedent of affective commitment and as part of the feedback loop to on-the-job behaviours. This inclusion recognised the assertion of Mowday et al. (1982) that a reciprocal relationship existed between attitudinal and behavioural commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1991) emphasised the importance of viewing the affective, continuance and normative strains of commitment as components that may be simultaneously experienced by workers. In support of the three-component model, Guest (1992) noted that “one of the reasons Meyer and Allen’s work could be important is their suggestion that each type of commitment has different behavioural consequences”, (p. 116). Based on McGee and Ford’s (1987) findings, the author goes on to assert that affective commitment is linked to effort while continuance commitment is associated with low worker turnover.

In the course of their extensive review of the nature of commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) attach great significance to their three-component model. Given the way this model has been adopted in the literature (Guest 1992; Legge 1995), however, this positioning may well be justified. Meyer and Allen (1997) identified the work of other researchers who have focused upon the multi-dimensional nature of the commitment construct including Angle and Perry (1981) and O’Reilly and Chatman (1986). As a separate direction taken to examining commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) also highlighted research contributions that emphasise the ‘to whom or what’ commitment is focused (for example, commitment demonstrated towards a certain work group, division or the organisation as a whole). Becker (1992), Lawler (1992) and Reichers (1985) are all offered as adherents of this

multiple-constituency tradition. Whilst it is beyond the scope of the current review to examine these contributions separately, further reference will later be made to certain themes that arise from this research direction.

Meyer and Allen (1997) have proposed, “an important goal for future research is to develop a more unified approach to the classification and measurement of commitment”, (p. 15). They combined the multi-dimensional components of the concept (affective, continuance and normative) with the various foci (organisation, top management, unit, unit manager, work team and team leader) to which commitment can be directed, to propose a matrix framework for the integration of these two approaches. Meyer and Allen (1997) asserted that this matrix will better assist researchers to frame their studies in relation to aspects of commitment, a claim which, due to its relative recency of inception, will require time to establish.

4.2.3 Development of Organisational Commitment

As an overview of the antecedents and consequences of organisational commitment, Legge (1995) noted, “it should be said at the outset that virtually all the research conducted on organisational commitment, per se has used the attitudinal conceptualisation and measure offered by Mowday et al. (1982)”, (p. 182). Attesting to its popularity, the OCQ has been used in flexibility studies (Benson 1998; Walsh and Deery 1997) to examine the commitment levels of peripheral workers in Australian industries. Legge (1995) further pointed out that as most commitment studies “are correlational and cross-sectional it is often impossible to establish whether the commitment identified (or lack of it) is a cause or effect”, (p. 182). As previously noted, Meyer and Allen (1997) concurred with this assessment. They suggested that despite these limitations, gaining insight into how organisational commitment develops is essential considering the behavioural consequences associated with the concept. Guest (1992) reviewed the antecedents of high organisational commitment and paid particular attention to those studies employing longitudinal methodologies (the findings of which are presented in italics in Table 4.1). The results are arranged according to the causes of

commitment as classified by Mowday et al (1979), with the additional category of personnel policies added to the mix (which Legge (1995, p. 182) later termed ‘HRM policies’).

Table 4.1: Antecedents of High Organisational Commitment

Categories	Factors
Personal Characteristics	<i>Work Involvement</i>
	Lower Education
	Age (Older)
Work Role	<i>Job Scope/Responsibility</i>
	<i>Opportunity for Self-expression</i>
	Low Role Stress
Experiences in the Organisation	<i>Confirmed Expectations</i>
	Positive Leadership/ Supervision
	Commitment Norm
	Feeling Socially Involved
Structural Characteristics	Scope for Ownership
	Decentralisation
	Interdependence within Organisation
Personnel Policies	Security/Ability to Count on Organisation
	Fair Treatment/Equitable Pay

Source: Guest (1992, p. 119)

Based on this review, Guest (1992) suggested that the variables that offer policy implications for the development of commitment related to worker expectations and the work role itself. The author goes on to question the extent to which employee involvement policies can influence the level of commitment that is shown. Legge (1995) maintained that “nevertheless the ‘soft’ HRM model of true functional flexibility and multi-skilling and of employee involvement policies does seem a way forward to generating commitment – in theory”, (p. 182). Various researchers (Bagozzi 1980; Bartol 1979; Reichers 1985) have also suggested that the work attitude of job satisfaction is an antecedent of organisational commitment. This relationship is not clear, however, as research has also revealed that job satisfaction is an outcome of commitment (Bateman and Strasser 1984), while other studies (Curry, Wakefield, Price and Mueller 1986) have reported a lack of causal linkages between these attitudes. Regardless of whether job satisfaction is an antecedent to commitment or a consequence of it, Guest (1992) maintained that these attitudes “are strongly correlated, but the causality is not clearly from

satisfaction to commitment”, (p. 121). Having already noted Bateman and Strasser’s (1984) findings, job satisfaction is not included in the upcoming examination of the consequences of organisational commitment.

Confirming its widespread use, Meyer and Allen (1991) also employed the OQC (Mowday et al. 1982) to cross-validate the antecedents of the affective component of their commitment model. In the authors’ later review of commitment literature, they noted the extensive body of research addressing how this form of commitment is developed, with lesser attention to continuance commitment and the least towards the normative component. As the purpose of the present chapter is to provide a brief overview of commitment theory, it is considered that in this instance Guest's (1992) review (see Table 1) provides an adequate account of how commitment can develop, aligned to the most studied component of Meyer and Allen's (1991) model, affective commitment.

4.2.4 The Consequences of Organisational Commitment

Determining the behavioural consequences of organisational commitment is a topic of interest for researchers, managers and HR practitioners. Guest (1992) noted, “the consequences of commitment are usually considered in terms of the impact on labour turnover, absenteeism and job performance”, (p. 120). Legge (1995) contends, “generally speaking, the longitudinal research studies show that the link between commitment and labour turnover is indirect. In other words, commitment is an important predictor of intention to quit, which is invariably the best predictor of actual labour turnover”, (p. 183). This view concurred with an earlier caution provided by Guest (1992) about the relationship between commitment and this behavioural consequence.

Both Guest (1992) and Legge (1995) cited Steers and Rhodes 's (1978) attendance model in commenting upon commitment and absenteeism. The authors noted that the model held attendance to be a function of motivation and ability to attend. In relation to commitment, both authors questioned the weight commitment could

have upon the latter element of attendance. Guest (1992) identified that “more research is clearly called for, but at this stage the evidence does not support any link between organisational commitment and absence”, (p. 122). Noting a small positive relationship between job performance and commitment, Legge (1995) remarked, “the link between effort and performance is mediated by a range of intervening and potentially disruptive variables”, (p. 183).

Examining the consequences of commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) concluded that “taken together, considerable evidence across a wide variety of samples and performance indicators suggests that employees with strong affective commitment to the organisation will be more valuable than those with weak commitment”, (p. 38). Whilst similar, albeit weaker, effects were reported for normative commitment, the evidence reviewed by Meyer and Allen (1997) depicted a set of dissimilar consequences for those employees with strong continuance commitment. These consequences included poorer performance and lower rates of participation in organisational citizenship behaviours. The findings together would appear to confirm Guest's (1992) evaluation of the three-component model as importantly recognising that each type of commitment incurred different behavioural consequences.

Guest (1992) maintained that “in summary, the research on the outcomes associated with commitment is disappointing for those who believe that commitment should be a positive influence on employee behaviour”, (p. 123). Meyer and Allen (1997) suggested consideration of the following factors: the degree of latitude employees have with which to express their attitudes; potential situational factors that may moderate the links between commitment and particular consequences; and the constituency (for example, work team or unit) to which the commitment is directed.

4.2.5 How is Organisational Commitment Generated and Managed?

The words 'generated' and 'managed' in the above context may be overly deterministic given the literature presented to date. The following discussion will explore more closely the theoretical and applied literature on managing commitment. In doing so, a similar approach to that employed by Meyer and Allen (1997) will be adopted. In reviewing the "two areas of management research where commitment has been examined as an outcome variable: human resource management (HRM) and the management of change", (p. 66). In the current context, as the basic tenets of HRM were discussed in Chapter Three, only certain theories with a particular focus on organisational commitment will be covered. The brief insight offered into the management of change literature will serve as a link to examining culture later in the chapter.

As previously noted, the 'soft' model of HRM has been aligned to the concept of organisational commitment. One of the authors of this model is considered to be a seminal contributor to the commitment literature. Coinciding with the advancement of HRM principles during the 1980s, Walton (1980) defined a high-commitment work system as being "one that is designed to generate high commitment, to fully utilise commitment for gains (human and business), and to depend upon high commitment for its effectiveness", (p. 209). The author argued that this system is achieved through a participative work structure allowing for mutual trust and open communication to develop (tenets that form the basis of later flexibility models proposed by Reilly (2001) and Sheridan and Conway (2001)). Walton (1980) recognised four levels embodied in the commitment concept. Based on the earlier work of Etzioni (1961), these levels ranged from 'moral' involvement through to 'calculative' involvement and the most negative type, 'alienative' involvement. Walton (1980) added the category of 'spontaneous-expressive', relating to involvement of a positive but less intense nature (positioned between the moral and calculative levels) and characteristic of high-commitment work systems.

In a later work, Walton (1985b) contrasted the approaches to workforce management reflected in “a strategy based on imposing control and a strategy based on eliciting commitment”, (p. 78). Some of the differences between the more traditional control system, associated by Walton (1985b) with Taylor's (1947) theory of scientific management, and the newer commitment strategy, were incorporated in a review by Guest (1992) (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Control and Commitment Strategy

	Control	Commitment
Psychological Contract	Fair Day's Work for a Fair Day's Pay	Reciprocal Commitment
Locus of Control	External	Internal
Employee Relations	Pluralist	Unitarist
	Collective	Individual
	Low Trust	High Trust
Organising Principles	Mechanistic	Organic
	Formal/Defined Roles	Flexible Roles
	Top-down	Bottom-up
	Centralised	Decentralised
Policy Goals	Administrative	Adaptive/Effectiveness
	Standard Performance	Improving Performance
	Cost minimisation	Maximum Utilisation

Source: Guest (1992, p. 113)

As noted in the above review, organic structures and flexible roles comprise key elements of the commitment strategy. As early as the 1960s, Burns and Stalker (1961) recognised that individuals within organic systems were more likely to demonstrate commitment than their counterparts in mechanistic systems, commensurate with the expanded degree of control over their work tasks. In questioning why the commitment strategy has in recent years been viewed as a viable alternative to the control system, Guest (1992) maintained that “for an increasing proportion of organisations, the environment has become less stable, requiring a capacity for rapid adjustment and an ability to respond flexibly to specific and varied customer demands”, (p. 114). Therefore, by this account it would appear that similar factors that have driven the flexibility impetus (post-Fordism, neo-managerialism and neo-Fordism) have also complemented the promotion of employee commitment in organisations. Guest (1992) further articulated that the assumptions forming his model of HRM (Guest 1987), of which

commitment is presented as being one of the four essential goals (the others including strategic integration, flexibility and quality), were based on the commitment strategy (outlined in Table 2).

Continuing on Walton’s contribution to commitment theory, another work by the author emphasised the theme of mutuality (Walton 1985a). “The new HRM model is composed of policies that promote mutuality – mutual goals, mutual respect, mutual rewards, mutual responsibility. The theory is that policies of mutuality will elicit commitment which in turn will yield both better economic performance and greater human development”, (cited in Legge 1995, p. 64). Kochan and Dyer (1993) adopted this approach and provided a set of generic principles (see Table 4.3) with which to characterise ‘mutual commitment’.

Table 4.3: Principles Guiding Mutual Commitment Firms

	Guiding Principle
Strategic Level	Supportive Business Strategies
	Top Management Value Commitment
	Effective Voice for HR in Strategy Making and Governance
Functional Level (Human Resource Policy)	Staffing Based on Employment Stabilisation
	Investment in Training and Development
	Contingent Compensation that Reinforces Cooperation, Participation and Contribution
Workplace Level	Selection Based on High Standards
	Broad Task Design and Teamwork
	Employee Involvement in Problem Solving
	Climate of Cooperation and Trust

Source: Kochan and Dyer (1993, p. 572)

In reviewing their multi-tiered model, Kochan and Dyer (1993) posited that in relation to the HR policy level, “staffing policies must be designed and managed in such a way that they reinforce the principle of employment security and thus promote the commitment, flexibility and loyalty of employees”, (p. 573). The flexibility referred to here may be interpreted in light of an employee’s personal willingness to adapt for the organisation, rather than the more defined functional, numerical and temporal forms (that may operate at odds with secure employment). As was noted in Chapter Three, Sheridan and Conway (2001) adjusted the

“Harvard” model (Beer et al. 1985) of HRM (of which Walton was a contributor) with the aim of achieving mutual flexibility. The author noted that in doing so “flexibility strategies which have been pursued for their cost cutting run contrary to the growing body of evidence that high commitment management practices, including attentiveness to employees’ needs, impact positively on an organisation’s bottom line”, (p. 8). On the same concept, research presented by Reilly (2001) in reference to his flexibility model also reported a link to between organisational commitment and mutual flexibility; however, the author in this instance did not make the connection to Walton’s seminal work on mutual commitment. Given the relative recency of these contributions, and in consideration of the different operational timelines and human resource investments that may be associated with these concepts, there is definite scope to expand upon the linkages between the various forms of organisational flexibility and organisational commitment in both theory and applied research.

Armstrong (2001) asserted that, in light of Kochan and Dyer's (1993) principles, “a mutual commitment strategy will be based on the principle of high commitment management”, (p. 176). As Sheridan and Conway (2001) noted above, considerable research attention has been directed towards the outcomes of high commitment management (HCM). Gallie, Felstead and Green (2001), Kinnie, Hutchinson and Purcell (2000), MacDuffie (1995), Wood (1996) and Wood and Albanese (1995) are some of the recent contributors.

Research by Wood and Albanese (1995) provides some insight into Guest's (1992) suggestion that the enhanced viability of the commitment strategy is associated with the decreasing stability of environments in which organisations operate. The authors noted that “according to contingency theory we would expect to find organisations which adopt the commitment strategy to be only in environments demanding high levels of responsiveness and flexibility; the control model thus remaining appropriate to other situations”, (p. 217). Wood and Albanese (1995) termed those practices associated with the commitment model ‘high commitment practices’ (adapting the terminology of Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills and Walton

(1984)). The authors surmised “the word high is significant for two reasons: first because, as we applied at the outset, a minimum of cooperation and commitment is required for the control strategy to work; and second, because the use of particular practices is aimed at inducing more than average levels of commitment”, (p. 220). Summarising the ‘classic statements’ of how to achieve high commitment by Beer et al. (1984) and Walton (1985a), Wood and Albanese (1995) outlined these practices as including:

- “The development of career ladders and emphasis on trainability and commitment as highly valued characteristics of employees at all levels of the organisation;
- A high level of functional flexibility with the abandonment of potentially rigid job descriptions;
- The reduction of hierarchies and the ending of status differentials at least between white-collar and manual or blue-collar workers, if not between managers and workers; and
- A heavy reliance on the team structure for disseminating information (team briefing), structuring work (team working) and problem solving (quality circles)”, (p. 222).

For the purposes of their study Wood and Albanese (1995) also contributed the following practices:

- “Job design being something which management consciously does in order to provide jobs which have a considerable level of intrinsic satisfaction;
- A policy of no compulsory lay-offs or redundancies and permanent employment guarantees with the possible use of temporary workers to cushion fluctuations in the demand for labour;
- New forms of assessment and payments systems and more specifically merit pay and profit-sharing; and
- A high involvement of employees in the management of quality”, (p. 223).

Analysis undertaken by Wood and Albanese (1995) of a returned sample of 135 British manufacturing plants indicated that the factors of trainability and commitment as selection criteria, career ladders and team working, were afforded greater effect as components of HCM than the other items studied. The authors contend that as such these results represent a pattern of usage that “should be differentiated from one that is more rooted in either performance-related pay (as perhaps in the ‘excellence’ thesis of Peters and Waterman (1982)), or Atkinson's (1988) core-periphery model involving permanent employment and the segmented labour force”, (p. 242). Further analysis by Wood and Albanese (1995) identified that the internal factors employed (organisational size, extent of integration of the personnel department, unionisation) were better predictors of HCM than the external measures examined. Given this outcome, the authors noted that as HCM “does not appear to be a simple response to changes in the environment”, (p. 242), the contingent argument receives less support than does the more universalistic theories of Guest (1987) and Walton (1985a). This finding also negates Guest's (1992) suggestion that environmental uncertainty contributed to the commitment impetus. As to the extent of use of these practices, Wood and Albanese (1995) reported that while there was some evidence to support the increased popularity of HCM, this evidence points only to the diffusion of already relatively accepted practices rather than the adoption of newer methods of generating commitment.

Gallie et al. (2001) assessed the growth of organisational commitment in Britain over the period 1992 to 1997. In doing so, the authors sought to address what they considered to be a neglect of the employee perspective on commitment by utilising data sets derived from two nationally representative (moderately comparable in design) worker surveys. Gallie et al. (2001) noted “despite the discussion about the importance of employee commitment for effective performance and the need to develop new types of policy that would generate such commitment, our evidence suggests that British employers did not secure stronger allegiance from their employees. Only a very small minority of employees showed strong commitment in the early 1990s and there had been no significant change in this by 1997”, (p. 1087). The authors went on to investigate whether certain factors associated with

HCM had affected this lack of overall change in commitment levels. Gallie et al. (2001) identified a positive relationship between skill development and employee commitment and that “there was a strong linear trend in which those with greater task discretion had higher scores for organisational commitment”, (p. 1092). Unfortunately, however, it was found that employees were reporting lower levels of task discretion in 1997 than 1992. The impact of certain involvement policies (for example, regular meetings) was also associated with stronger organisational attachment by employees.

Gallie et al. (2001) suggested that speed of structural and technological change, together with downsizing and work intensification measures, were potential drivers behind the employee-perceived organisational push for tighter control over performance. The findings of a study by Kinnie et al. (2000) similarly recognised that the operation of high commitment practices were not automatically associated with extensive employee discretion. In this instance, the research was conducted in relation to call centres, a service setting typical of tightly scripted work (Ritzer 1998) and the dominant usage of contingent labour. In the two case-study organisations examined, a mixture of control and commitment management strategies were found to be simultaneously operating. In relating these findings to broader discussions of HCM, Kinnie et al. (2000) postulated that most dialogues “are based on research in the manufacturing sector and suggest that such practices are associated with scope or task flexibility for employees. The paradox in call centres is that, even where high-quality service levels are required for market success, we find tightly controlled, heavily monitored, and scripted work is combined with these high commitment practices. It would appear, in these environments, that these HCM practices were adopted to ameliorate a tightly controlled work environment”, (p. 982). This assessment confirms comments by Arrowsmith and McGoldrick (1996), noted in Chapter Three, regarding the tenuous nature of associations between service quality, flexibility and worker commitment.

Before progressing to examine organisational commitment from the perspective of management of change issues (reviewed as a link to culture), two additional topics of HRM literature that have been associated with commitment outcomes will be briefly examined. Reference has been made in the present chapter to Guest's (1992) affiliation of the antecedents of commitment and employee involvement. The term 'employee involvement', as the author noted, refers to a rather loosely defined set of company practices and procedures. As such, it might be reasonable to assume that some crossover exists between the 'employee involvement' policies that Guest (1992) and later Legge (1995) make reference to and the high commitment practices noted by Beer et al. (1984), Walton (1985a) and Wood and Albanese (1995). Guest (1992) contends that "five main forms of involvement can be distinguished: improving the provision of information to employees, for example through briefing groups and company employee reports; improving the provision of information from employees, for example through suggestion schemes and quality circles; changing the structures and arrangements of work, perhaps through greater delegation and the redesign of jobs; changing the incentives, typically through employee share ownership programs or performance related pay; and finally, changing relationships through more participative leadership and greater informality", (p. 127). Legge (1995) likening employee involvement to 'soft' HRM, echoed comments by Guest (1992) about the lack of empirical research linking employee involvement and organisational commitment. Both authors go on to outline some of the problems found to be related to these initiatives including ad-hoc introduction and implementation, lack of employee choice regarding participation and employee distrust of employer motivations behind such schemes (Kelly and Kelly 1991).

The other pertinent topic with potential ramifications for organisational commitment, family-friendly HRM, was raised in relation to Sheridan and Conway's (2001) mutual flexibility model. Chiu and Ng (2001) delineate these type of support policies from more work-oriented ones in an examination of women-friendly (WF) HRM and organisational commitment. The authors noted that a commonality of wants and needs amongst women is often assumed in the

relevant literature, regardless of varying demographic statuses. Adopting items of Meyer and Allen's (1991) commitment questionnaire, it was found that the work-oriented WF policies (comprising the dimensions of formalised HRM, anti-sex discrimination, training and development and equal opportunity measures) can affect higher affective commitment among single women employees without children. Family-oriented WF policies including maternity benefits and flexible work arrangements (job sharing, voluntary reduced working hours) were reported as being related to the continuance commitment of these employees. Chiu and Ng (2001) aptly concluded that “organisations wrongly assuming that all their women employees desire and demand the same benefits might find that their WF policies have very little tangible positive results if they do not match the demography of the female workforce”, (p. 1360). Apart from the immediate relevance of this remark to the successful operation of commitment programs, its substance can also be related to other organisational policies including flexibility-driven practices.

In relation to the management of change literature and organisational commitment, Meyer and Allen's (1997) recent review focused primarily on the effects of downsizing and other forms of work reorganisation (mergers and company acquisitions). The authors emphasised, based on this research, the importance of communication throughout the change process and monitoring employee's perceptions of fairness over any actions taken. Iverson (1996), examining organisational change in the context of an Australian public hospital, acknowledged that the results supported Guest's (1987) model “which posits that organisational commitment should be considered as a determinant, as well as a mediator of factors in the change process”, (p. 143). Approaching change issues from a divergent perspective, Legge (1995) asserted that the aims of culture change programs were “to achieve employee commitment to those values senior management considers are facilitative to improved organisational performance”, (p. 191). Whether such program outcomes can be accomplished requires an adequate exploration of the concept of culture, a topic to which the present chapter now turns.

4.3 Organisational Culture

Culture has been a concept broadly associated with the full range of topics (structure, flexibility theory, human resource management, strategy and organisational commitment) contained in the present literature review. For example, in focusing upon the socialisation effects of core employment, Purcell and Purcell (1998) noted that it was necessary to determine “what features of corporate culture are important, how are they created and reproduced over time, and how long it takes for a new recruit to become fully effective”, (p. 41). In remarking upon the effects of worker commitment on labour turnover, Legge (1995) recognised that “it is impossible to build a strong corporate culture without stability of membership”, (p. 183). Based on coverage afforded to strategic factors in the flexibility literature, Mayne, Tregaskis and Brewster (2000) contend that incremental decisions (akin to the processual model of strategy) together with culture, are responsible for defining organisational direction. Reilly (2001) similarly noted that recognition of culture factors can impact upon any understanding of the environmental context affecting the operation of mutual flexibility initiatives. Again making the strategic link, Gunnigle and Moore (1994) suggested, “culture is a means of achieving competitive advantage and should match the organisation’s business strategy. Culture is thus seen as a means to an end, not an end in itself”, (p. 65). Truss (2001), building on earlier comments (Truss et al., 1997), highlighted the shaping role culture, together with structure and administrative heritage, had on HRM practices in organisations. This diversity of application, as evidenced in the literature, is bound to ensure that there is a reasonable degree of confusion surrounding the basic tenets of the culture construct.

4.3.1 What is Organisational Culture?

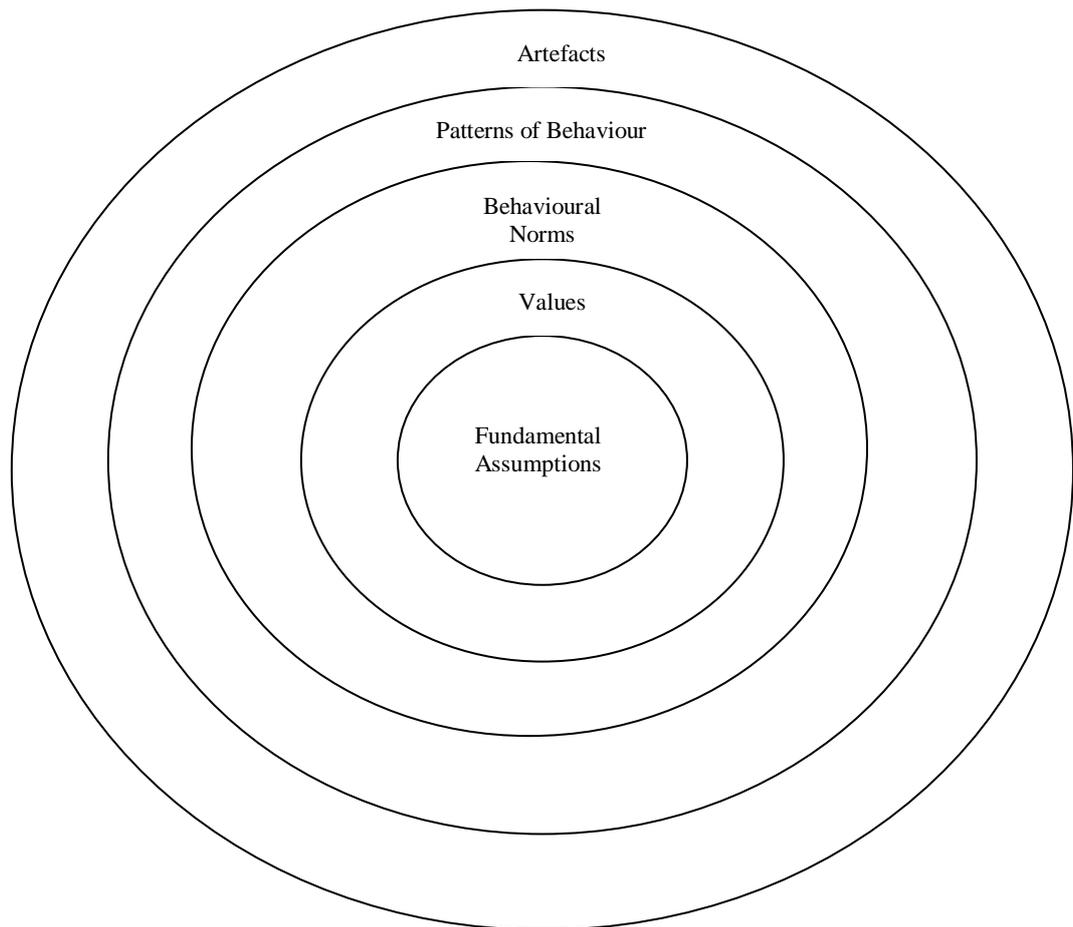
Several theoretical streams including anthropology and organisational theory have contributed to the body of culture research. Rousseau (1990) noted that culture is typically defined “as a set of cognitions shared by members of a social unit. These cognitions are acquired through social learning and socialisation processes that

expose individuals to a variety of culture-bearing elements”, (p. 154). Much of the literature focusing upon organisational culture has attempted to differentiate it from the closely aligned concept of organisational climate (Denison 1996; Pettigrew 1990; Reichers and Schneider 1990; Verbeke, Volgering and Hessels, 1998) as well as delineating between the different elements that comprise the culture construct (Rousseau 1990; Schein 1990).

The ‘epistemological’ issue, as to whether culture is something that is open to manipulation, frames any discussion of the concept in the organisational context. Legge (1995) outlined the seminal delineation made by Smircich (1983) between “organisational culture as a variable, something an organisation ‘has’, or as a process of enactment, a ‘root metaphor’, something an organisation ‘is’”, (p. 185). Legge (1995) associated the common treatment of culture in management studies either as an independent variable or an organisational by-product of operation (in the form of values, language and rituals) to the ‘has’ distinction. Reichers and Schneider (1990) noted “this approach encourages the investigation of the causes (that is, the founder; the societal context) and effects (that is, organisational performance; problematic mergers) of organisational culture”, (p. 22). The ‘is’ distinction, evolving from social interaction and the sharing of cognitions, knowledge, beliefs and symbols is posited as being less suited to manipulation. Legge (1995) contends that “as there are likely to be competing voices, the process of social production and reproduction may spawn a variety of cultures, given people’s different experience of reality. Corporate culture – that shared by senior management and presented as the ‘official’ culture of the organisation – may be only one of several sub-cultures within the organisation, and may be actively resisted by groups who do not share or empathise with its values”, (p. 187). This perspective may ultimately challenge the effectiveness of organisational efforts promoting cultural change for commitment or other desired outcomes. Reichers and Schneider (1990) argued that qualitative research, capable of providing more in-depth descriptions, has for the most part been utilised to investigate this view of culture.

Regardless of culture being perceived as something susceptible to management influence or not, several researchers have examined the issue of inclusivity in relation to the concept. Rousseau (1990) provided an account of the elements comprising culture (see Figure 2). In light of contemplating the methodological issues associated with these elements, the author noted that they are “layered along a continuum of subjectivity and accessibility. More objective elements become vehicles for transmission of less tangible, more subjective facets of culture”, (p. 158). At the more apparent extreme, Legge (1995) commented that artefacts “are the surface level of culture, easy to identify but difficult to interpret without an understanding of the underlying logic”, (p. 189). In elaborating upon the next layer, patterns of behaviour, Rousseau (1990) recognised the role structure plays in reflecting patterns including “decision making, coordination and communication mechanisms, and so on – that are observable to outsiders and whose functions help solve basic organisation problems, such as coordination and adaptation”, (p. 157). Progressing towards the subjective side of the continuum, behavioural norms were considered to represent those beliefs formed by members regarding acceptable and unacceptable behaviours. The ‘values’ layer further acted to enhance understanding of the culture concept by allowing for examination of “the ‘why’ of how a group behaves” (Legge 1995, p. 189). Armstrong (2001) delineated between implicit and espoused values, the former being deeply embedded in the organisation and reinforced through appropriate behaviours, the latter being more idealistic in nature. Legge (1995) noted that “values, being identified through interviewing key members of the organisation and content analysing artefacts such as documents, are likely to represent accurately only the manifest and espoused values of organisational culture”, (p. 189). As depicted in Figure 4.2, the final element of Rousseau's (1990) model refers to the fundamental assumptions or unconscious drivers behind culture. As would be expected, based on the inaccessible character of information at this level, Rousseau (1990) contends that the requirements of any compatible methodology to assess this element would include “researcher-member interaction over time”, (p. 157).

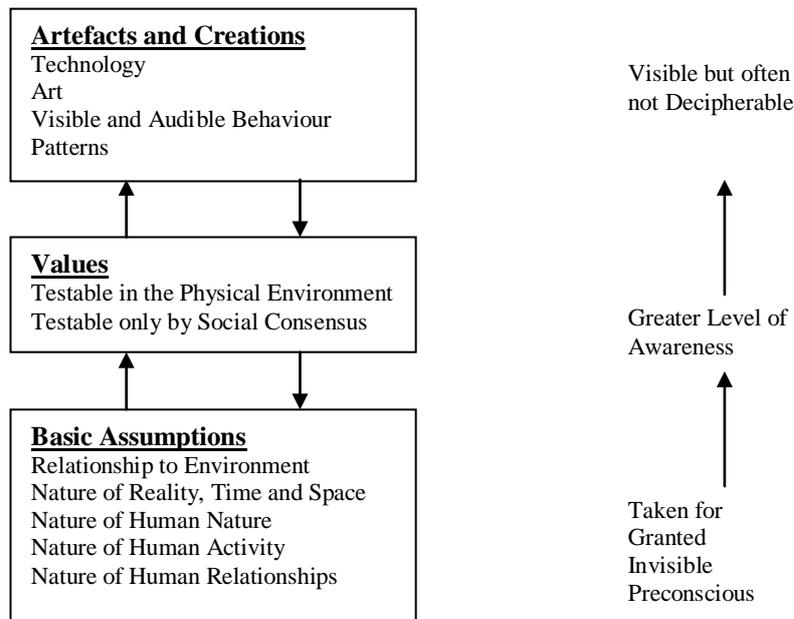
Figure 4.2: Layers of Culture



Source: Rousseau (1990, p. 158)

The view of culture offered by Schein (1985; 1990) is closely aligned to Rousseau's (1990) version, however, the model in question (see Figure 4.3) is reduced to contain only three elements of culture: artefacts, values and basic assumptions. Due to its similar composition, Schein's (1985) model can be described in terms that Rousseau (1990) utilised for her own work, acknowledging the multi-dimensional nature of these models. In reference to the 'epistemological' issue, Rousseau (1990) pointed out that a culture model "linking multiple elements, describing transmission of one facet through the use of others, is consistent with the notion that culture is something an organisation is rather than has", (p. 157).

Figure 4.3: Schein's Levels of Culture



Source: Schein (1985), cited in Legge (1995, p. 188)

4.3.2 Culture v Climate

As noted earlier, another approach taken to substantiating the construct of culture has been to differentiate its definitional boundaries from the closely related concept of organisational climate. In relation to the culture layers advocated by Rousseau (1990), the author noted that “in this continuum from unconscious processes to highly observable structures and patterns of activity, the concept of climate in organisations becomes relevant”, (p. 159). Framing this statement by providing a brief comparative definition, Rousseau (1990) contends that “climate as a product of individual psychological processes (and the individual’s potentially idiosyncratic experience of the organisation) and culture as a unit-level phenomenon that is derived from social interaction are distinct constructs”, (p. 159).

Reichers and Schneider (1990) provided a noteworthy contribution to this differentiation perspective by tracing the evolution of the culture and climate

constructs. The authors reviewed the relevant literature in the context of a three-stage model of conceptual development. As an outcome of this review, Reichers and Schneider (1990) noted the dearth of effort afforded to defining and legitimising the climate concept (introduction and elaboration stage) compared to the abundance of research identifying critical issues (evaluation and augmentation stage). Pre-dating organisational culture, Reichers and Schneider (1990) attributed the roots of organisational climate to the fields of industrial and organisational psychology and organisational behaviour. Seminal works ascribed by the authors to the development of the construct include Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939), accredited with the first citation of the term 'climate', Argyris (1958), who provided a leading definition of the term and Litwin and Stringer (1968) and Tagiuri and Litwin (1968), whose writings both respectively marked the beginning of the contemporary view of organisational climate. Given this history, Reichers and Schneider (1990) remarked that despite early recognition (Lewin et al. 1939), the climate construct has evolved through to the final stage of conceptual development (consolidation and accommodation stage) over an extended period of approximately 30 years.

In contrast, the body of literature on the culture construct was described by Reichers and Schneider (1990) as being more exploratory in nature (akin to stage 1 of the development model) and less prone to incorporating measures of concept validation (stage 2). The inception of this concept has been traced back to the writings of Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Pettigrew (1979). Reichers and Schneider (1990) attributed the considerable attention directed towards concept elaboration to the 'borrowed' nature of the culture construct. The authors go on to note that "articles and books on culture that do appear in stage 2 tend to elaborate the construct through application to other organisational problems or theoretical domains rather than evaluating or critiquing the construct per se", (p. 21). Denison (1996) provided an overview of certain contrasting aspects of the climate and culture constructs (see Table 4.4), that apart from enhancing understanding of inherent compositional differences, may further complement Reichers and

Schneider's (1990) insights into why these concepts have evolved over different paths.

Table 4.4: Contrasting Organisational Culture and Organisational Climate – Research Perspectives

	Culture Literature	Climate Literature
Epistemology	Contextualised and Idiographic	Comparative and Nomothetic
Point of View	Emic (Native Point of View)	Etic (Researcher's Viewpoint)
Methodology	Qualitative Field Observation	Quantitative Survey Data
Level of Analysis	Underlying Values and Assumptions	Surface-level Manifestations
Temporal Orientation	Historical Evolution	Ahistorical Snapshot
Theoretical Foundations	Social Construction; Critical Theory	Lewinian Field Theory
Discipline	Sociology & Anthropology	Psychology

Source: Denison (1996, p. 625)

In light of the developmental differences between climate and culture, stemming from separate theoretical backgrounds, the constructs have been subject to often divergent methodological considerations (as indicated in Table 4). Denison (1996) surmised that previous distinctions between the concepts were rather uncomplicated in that “studying culture required qualitative research methods and an appreciation for the unique aspects of individual social settings. Studying organisational climate, in contrast, required quantitative methods and the assumption that generalisation across social settings not only was warranted but also the primary objective of the research”, (p. 621). Reichers and Schneider (1990) had earlier recognised this lack of cross-fertilisation of method and remarked “we believe that shared meanings and assumptions can be accurately assessed through questionnaire methodology”, (p. 25). Outlining two of the better known instruments for assessing organisational culture, Armstrong (2001) makes reference to the work of Cooke and Lafferty (1989) and Harrison (1972). In light of such survey methods being applied to the study of culture, Denison (1996) asserted that “quantitative culture studies have become virtually indistinguishable from research in the older and now neglected tradition of organisational climate”, (p. 620).

Further challenging the distinctiveness of the culture and climate concepts, Reichers and Schneider (1990) outlined certain areas of common ground. These included the overlapping focus of both on how organisational members interpret their environments, the learned nature of the concepts and the combined monolithic and multidimensional levels at which the constructs can exist. Whilst acknowledging this high degree of conceptual conformity, Reichers and Schneider (1990) maintained that “culture is probably a deeper, less consciously held set of meanings than most of what has been called organisational climate”, (p. 24). Based on his review, Denison (1996) remarked “the analysis in this article has led me to conclude that these two research traditions should be viewed as differences in *interpretation* rather than differences in the *phenomenon*”, (p. 645). The author suggested that the potential consequences of failing to acknowledge the synthesis between the climate and culture constructs included a tendency to overplay implications deriving from each perspective and researchers expending greater effort justifying their particular methodology rather than discussing the organisational environment under examination. Denison (1996) posited that organisational social contexts would benefit from “the continued integration of quantitative and qualitative methods in the study of organisational culture and the continued borrowing of theoretical foundations, epistemological arguments, and research strategies from either tradition in order to serve future research”, (p. 645).

4.3.3 Subcultures

As the preceding review has highlighted, the concept of organisational culture can be quite elusive in meaning, viewed as comprising several elements and overlapping to a certain degree with the climate construct. Complicating conceptualisation further, is the question of whether culture is perceived as being an unitary whole or derivative of certain subcultures. Legge (1995), as previously mentioned, raised the possibility that subcultures existed in organisations and that they could complement or compete against the corporate culture promoted by management. Hofstede (1998) and Sackmann (1992) have explored the

organisational implications resulting from subcultures. Sackmann's research effectively acknowledged that within the context of a single organisation several independent and overlapping cultural subgroupings can exist in unison with an overarching culture.

Hofstede (1998) added a quantitative dimension to his study of organisational subculture. Using the technique of hierarchical cluster analysis, three distinct subcultures were identified within the insurance organisation (3,400 employees) examined. The results further indicated a rift between the culture map of the organisation, with one particular subculture acting as a 'counter culture' (Martin and Siehl 1983) to another subculture grouping. Discussing the implications of such a finding, Hofstede (1998) contends that "from the top, wholesale solutions for organisational problems look appealing, in terms of strategy, structure and control systems. Complex organisations often contain culturally deviant sub-units poorly served by such company-wide solutions", (p. 11). This consideration may be particularly relevant in light of a failure by organisations to incorporate employee input from all levels into company policies.

Meyerson and Martin (1987), in their framework of culture and cultural change attributed nested subcultures, such as those identified by Hofstede (1998) and Sackmann (1992), to the differentiation paradigm of culture. This perspective varies from the integration paradigm of which Meyerson and Martin (1987) and Wilson (1996) acknowledged has been the primary focus of much of the research on culture and its effects on performance. Meyerson and Martin (1987) contend that from this commonly held view of a unitary, monolith culture "a picture of harmony emerges. Because of this promise of clarity and organisational harmony, according to many paradigm 1 researchers, culture offers the key to managerial control, worker commitment, and organisational effectiveness", (p. 626). The remaining paradigm of the framework "views ambiguity as the norm, with consensus and dissension co-existing in a constantly fluctuating pattern influenced by events and specific areas of decision making", (Wilson 1996, p. 90). This fragmentation perspective represents the least studied view of culture. Meyerson and Martin

(1987), whilst explicating these concepts separately, acknowledged that all three paradigms (differentiation, integration, fragmentation) can exist simultaneously in the organisational context. The difficulty then of understanding and determining control in relation to culture issues is magnified when “there maybe organisation-wide consensus on some issues, consensus only with certain subcultures on other issues and an ambiguous state on the remainder”, (Wilson 1996, p. 91). It is to the topic of culture control and management to which this review now turns.

4.3.4 The Management of Culture

The discussion on organisational culture to date has been conducted at a more theoretical than applied level. Leaving aside the epistemological, inclusivity and constituents debates, attention will now turn towards literature that examines the effect of culture on organisational outcomes including commitment.

Cultural change programs, as noted by Legge (1995), have been a particular focus of this literature base. Citing the contribution of Ray (1986), the author posited that “cultural change strategies may be seen as an addition to other forms of control which organisations have tried to implement”, (p. 191). Unlike the bureaucratic and humanistic (derived from the human relations tradition) forms of control, Thompson and McHugh (2002) contend “the difference is that normative control works less thorough formal structures and mechanisms than through informal processes, value systems and the management of emotions”, (p. 203). A study by Orbonna (1992) confirmed the manipulation of culture control by such means. Culture control was ultimately thought to influence the internalisation of espoused organisational values, with subsequent implications for the generation of employee commitment. Legge (1995) remarked that “in theory this internalisation is only likely to occur if the individuals involved feel they have some choice and discretion over their new behaviours and that the consequences of engaging in them are positive”, (p. 197). Thompson and McHugh (2002) concurred, maintaining that “employees may comply with demands for adherence to the language of mission statements, appearance and demeanour in the sales process, or

participation in quality circles without internalising the values and therefore generating the ‘real’ commitment”, (p. 205). Both Legge (1995) and Thompson and McHugh (2002) have acknowledged the lack of research emphasising the links between between culture and commitment.

The question of whose responsibility it is within organisations to drive and manage culture control efforts is one to which minimal research effort has also been expended. Whilst acknowledging that the impetus for culture change is often attributed to leader effects (Legge 1995), the present discussion will focus upon the role the HRM function plays in relation to culture. As already noted, this function has been linked to strategy, flexibility and commitment issues. In respect to culture, Thompson and McHugh (2002) identified two key associations with HRM. The authors contend that “if the managerial role is seen as shifting towards the symbolic sphere, HR managers are the central resource and functional gatekeeper of these processes”, (p. 195). The development of human capital, fostered through the generation of commitment, was also acknowledged as being aligned to the practices of ‘soft’ HRM. Orbonna (1992), in noting the lack of research examining the culture and HRM connection, contends that “organisations wishing to generate and sustain ‘strong cultures’ would need to pay particular attention not only to their HRM policies to ensure they are supportive of the culture they wish to develop, but should also ensure that they are consistent and feed through to strategic planning”, (p. 80). Legge (1995) suggested that such supportive management strategies, underpinned by Lewin's (1951) change model (unfreezing, changing and refreezing), might include re-education (e.g., training and development), replacement (e.g., selection, promotion and redundancy) and re-organisation (e.g., new structures, reward systems). Orbonna (1992) posits that of these, selection is the “the most widely cited HRM policy that facilitates the management of culture”, (p. 81).

Orbonna (1992) utilised a case-study methodology to examine certain HRM dilemmas in relation to the management of culture. Using the setting of a UK supermarket chain, the author indicated that attempts at culture change had only

succeeded at the more visible levels of the construct (e.g. patterns of behaviour). Providing an explanation for this finding, Orbonna (1992) surmised “it is possible that overt behaviour may generate deep-rooted values over time but attributing this to the initial change program may be an over-simplification”, (p. 90). Furthermore, the lack of effect on value internalisation may be ascribed to the forced nature of the culture control methods used. As Orbonna (1992) attested, “employees are being requested to suppress their private emotions and offer the customer a friendly smile”, (p. 85). Focusing on specific HRM goals, Orbonna (1992) noted that an “area of contradiction is HRM’s emphasis on generating trust and commitment based on the mutuality of interests (Walton 1985a)”, (p. 92). Specifically, the policies of employing older women (whom are likely to maintain other, stronger forms commitment (e.g. to their families)) and close employee surveillance, were found to be contradictory to this HRM ideal. In relation to selection practices, Orbonna (1992) posited that low industry wages, relatively high turnover rates and the routine nature of the work involved, were likely to discourage workforce stability, and subsequently affect the development of a strong culture (Legge 1995). Other factors suggested as potentially influencing culture management included a lack of awareness by organisation members of the pervading culture and any change effects. This is due to the subliminal level (e.g., basic assumptions) at which the culture concept can operate and its potential for producing inexact and unexpected outcomes. Given these dilemmas, Orbonna (1992) concluded that “managing culture is no more than an ideal which is difficult to attain”, (p. 94).

A recent Australian study that examined the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment, incorporating subculture effects, was undertaken by Lok and Crawford (1999). A sample of hospitals formed the backdrop of this study. The authors utilised the recognised attitudinal scale of Mowday et al. (1979) to assess commitment and Wallach's (1983) organisational culture index (OCI) to measure the culture construct along three dimensions (bureaucratic, innovative and supportive) at both hospital (representing organisational culture) and ward (representing sub-culture) level. Within the

confines of these structural boundaries, Lok and Crawford (1999) reported “it was observed that subculture had a stronger association with commitment than organisation culture, with the two subculture variables: ward innovative; and ward supportive being among the variables displaying the highest correlations with commitment”, (p. 371). In contrast to the positive nature of these correlations, the bureaucratic dimension at ward level, demonstrated a slight negative relationship with commitment. Unfortunately, as this study does not represent research “of an in-depth and longitudinal kind” (Thompson and McHugh 2002, p. 200), it is not possible to establish causality between the links examined.

Together with the epistemological, inclusivity and constituents debates outlined earlier, this preceding research has highlighted some of the problematic issues concerning the management of culture in organisations. Given these findings, it seems reasonable to side with Thompson and McHugh's (2002) contention that “even within those organisations that do implement cultural controls, they are intended to complement not eliminate the need for bureaucratic, technical or other systems”, (p. 204). The desired outcome of any culture control effort is assumed to be the creation or maintenance of a ‘strong’ cultural environment. Legge (1995) has questioned the extent to which such outcomes are beneficial noting that “strong cultures allow for a rapid response to familiar conditions, but inhibit immediate flexibility in response to the unfamiliar, because of the commitment generated to a (now) inappropriate ideology”, (p. 205). Considering the potential negatives of rigidity and complacency over time and the amount of effort required to generate real cultural change, Legge (1995) surmised that “developing a ‘strong culture’ for peripheral employees may be an ineffective use of resources”, (p. 205). This position must be heeded in light of the potentially stifling effects on the attitudinal commitment and performance of a section of the workforce increasing in number (Burgess and Campbell 1998; Hall et al. 1998; Wooden and Hawke 1998).

4.4 Chapter Summary

From the preceding literature review, it is clear that any attempts at attaining organisational flexibility do not represent stand-alone initiatives, but rather are influenced by a number of factors. In the context of the present chapter, organisational commitment and organisational culture are the two particular elements of this recipe examined. As has been highlighted, flexibility efforts can exert complementary (e.g., functionally aligned) or contradictory (e.g., numerically or temporally aligned) drives on worker commitment. Culture, integrated with the structure and strategy dynamics of an organisation, plays a shaping role in regard to how such work practices are defined.

The preceding review explored the nature of the commitment concept and the commonly recognised distinction between attitudinal (Buchanan 1974; Mowday et al. 1982) and behavioural approaches (Salancik 1977). Meyer and Allen's (1991) more recent attitudinal-based 'three-component model of commitment', incorporating affective, continuance and normative strains and associated behavioural outcomes, was also examined. These contributions, together with work concentrating on the various foci of commitment (Becker 1992; Reichers 1985), all provide insight into the phenomenon of organisational commitment. Research of a more applied type examines the development and consequences of organisational commitment. After reviewing the relevant literature, Legge (1995) identified that work role elements and confirmed worker expectations were key antecedents of high organisational commitment, albeit in studies typical of the attitudinal approach, employing cross-sectional methodologies. Guest's (1992) evaluation of the consequences of organisational commitment, in terms of labour turnover, absenteeism and job performance, also failed to categorically substantiate positive outcomes associated with the concept.

Walton, a collaborator behind the 'soft' model of HRM (Beer et al. 1985), also produced a series of significant works in relation to the management of commitment. The author defined high commitment management (Walton 1980),

subsequently contrasted the control and commitment approaches to management (Walton 1985b) and further promoted HRM policies emphasising the theme of mutuality (Walton 1985a). Research by Gallie et al. (2001), Kinnie et al. (2000) and Wood and Albanese (1995) has examined the principles of HCM in manufacturing and routinised service settings, in relation to unionism, and longitudinally, to determine the extent of development in commitment levels. Kochan and Dyer (1993) elaborated upon the principles of mutual commitment. These statements were similar to the standards embodied in the mutual flexibility models of Reilly (2001) and Sheridan and Conway (2001). An additional topic covered in the present review that demonstrates the potential for divergent focal points of commitment involves the literature relating to family-friendly HRM (Chiu and Ng 2001).

Legge (1995) acknowledged that organisational driven culture change efforts aim to influence the commitment of workers to a set of espoused values. Whether such outcomes are possible has been examined in the present review in the context of the epistemology, inclusivity, constituency and management debates surrounding culture. Smircich's (1983) delineation between organisational culture as something that an organisation 'has' as opposed to something it 'is', raises both management and methodological issues relating to the treatment of the construct. In regard to the inclusivity discussion, both Rousseau (1990) and Schein (1985; 1990) have proposed multi-tiered models depicting layers (or levels) of culture ranging from the accessible items (artefacts) to the more subjective end of the continuum (basic assumptions). It should be noted that Rousseau (1990) aligned her culture model to the 'is' perspective of the epistemological debate. Further in relation to inclusivity, the definitional boundaries of the culture construct were outlined in terms of literature focusing on the associated climate concept. Denison (1996) and Reichers and Schneider (1990) traced the evolution of both of these concepts and acknowledged the gradual cross-fertilisation of methodologies concerned with the more individually aligned, quantitatively studied construct of climate, compared to the group level phenomenon, qualitatively studied culture construct.

Literature concerning the constituency debates in the present review has comprised the topic of organisational subculture. The research of Hofstede (1998) and Sackmann (1992) confirmed the existence of subcultures operating simultaneously (but not necessarily in unison) with an overarching version of the culture concept. Meyerson and Martin (1987) associated the influence of nested subcultures in organisations to the differentiation paradigm in their multi-perspective view of culture and cultural change. Returning to a more unitary view of organisational culture, the concept was noted as an additional form of control that together with the more traditional methods (bureaucratic, humanistic), organisations could utilise to pursue desired outcomes including worker commitment. The role of the HRM function was investigated in relation to culture and Orbonna (1992) highlighted certain dilemmas that can render the management of culture complex for organisations.

Based on the literature covered in the present chapter, organisations may question the extent to which company-wide solutions are effective in seeking organisational commitment and managing organisational culture. In relation to former concept, different types of commitment with varying behavioural consequences and the various workplace foci to which commitment can develop may negate these solutions. In relation to the later concept, aside from the underlying question of whether culture is something that can be managed, consideration must be given to the level or layer at which culture control efforts are to be directed and the potential existence of subcultures operating independently of espoused company values. In light of these considerations, as earlier noted by Legge (1995), organisations must contemplate whether it is a worthwhile exercise to generate commitment and develop a strong culture amongst peripheral employees, especially when such efforts often require time, a resource which by nature of employment type, is not always available to these workers.

CHAPTER 5 – VOLUNTEERING AND MANAGEMENT THEORY

5.1 Chapter Introduction

The current chapter returns to the topic of volunteering and directs attention to those research efforts that have examined the issues of organisational structure, strategy, culture, human resource management, organisational flexibility and organisational commitment from the unpaid worker perspective. This overview will complement and extend the research previously outlined into issues affecting the nexus between paid work and volunteering.

5.2 Flexibility and Structure

5.2.1 Flexibility and Volunteering

The organisation of formal volunteering is frequently complicated by circumstances including a limited resource base and the requirement of a high degree of operational flexibility (Geber, 1991). As mentioned previously, McClam and Spicuzza (1988) noted the various components that comprise volunteer programs. How these components are structured can influence the flexibility with which volunteers and paid staff can work cooperatively and effectively together.

Research highlighting the connection between volunteering and flexibility includes findings by Freeman (1997). Based on an American population survey, it was reported that workers with flexible schedules were more likely to have the capacity to volunteer. An earlier finding by Wandersman and Alderman (1993) indicated that the use of flexible scheduling, together with training and the addition of further responsibilities, was a means of retaining volunteers in certain organisations. Miller et al. (1990) concurred by suggesting that, “efforts should be made to adjust schedules to meet the time constraints of volunteers. Indeed, research on flex-time programs for paid employees has indicated the affording greater scheduling flexibility can result in a number of desirable organisational

outcomes”, (p. 914). A recent study by Woodward and Kallman (2001) noted demand on time was the predominant reason cited for Country Fire Authority (CFA) volunteers exiting the service. The authors considered that working to increase workplace flexibility in terms of training delivery was a potential means of remedying the pressure of time demands and subsequently retaining volunteers.

In addition to flexibility providing the necessary resources (time available) to volunteer, Gann (1996) noted that working in the voluntary sector has usually demanded a flexible approach. The author considered that “the styles of work now being promulgated in the re-engineered organisations of the 1990s have been common in voluntary organisations for some years: an ability to move between direct service delivery, administration and management; a multi-skilled approach encompassing ‘people skills’; information-gathering; negotiation; monitoring and evaluation, all have been part of the effective voluntary sector worker’s curriculum vitae for some time now”, (p. 5). Despite this recognition of the importance of flexibility to recruiting and retaining volunteers, very few studies (Graham and Foley 1998; Pearce 1993) have linked the underlying tenets of specific flexibility theories to volunteering. These particular studies will be examined in the following pages.

5.2.2 Structural Issues and Volunteering

Research examining structural themes in relation to voluntary organisations includes an examination of the size-structure relationship by Amis and Slack (1996). In the setting of voluntary sport organisations, the authors defined organisation size in terms of the total number of organisation members and total organisation income. Noting that the various dimensions of structure employed in related literature can be traced back to Weber's (1947) work on bureaucracy, Amis and Slack (1996) maintained, “there has been widespread theoretical and empirical agreement that the most important dimensions of structure are specialisation, standardisation and centralisation”, (p. 78). As such, the study included variables set to measure the degree to which organisational tasks were broken down or

specialised, the extent of formal documentation delineating operations and the locus of decision making.

Amis and Slack (1996) reported that both measures of size (number of members and total income) enjoy a similar relationship with most of the structural scales employed. In relation to the specialisation of professional staff within the sport organisations studied, the findings suggested that larger organisations have higher levels of task specialisation than smaller organisations. The level of volunteer specialisation, however, was not significantly correlated with either measure of size. The authors posited that the volunteer structure of such organisations might have become institutionalised (e.g., standard roles adopted regardless of organisational size). Standardisation was found to demonstrate a positive correlation with size, indicating an increasing formalisation of procedures aligned to growth in the sport organisations studied. Two structural factors that did not correlate with size included the standardisation of decision-making procedures and evaluations. Amis and Slack (1996) suggest that resistance may be received from volunteers as they attempt to maintain their traditional operating roles in light of the expanded employment of professional staff (due to specialisation pressures). As such the authors noted that the culture of informal control is retained by lack of formal operating procedures (decision making and evaluation), as volunteers see any efforts to increase standardisation as a possible erosion of their power base. Amis and Slack (1996) found no significant associations between the centralisation measures and size, further suggesting that control of voluntary sport organisations remains at the volunteer board level, regardless of any changes in the size of the organisation. The authors recognised that the findings of the study are confined by the use of cross-sectional data, thereby limiting the interpretation of correlations found.

An earlier study by Amis, Slack and Berrett (1995) examined the structural antecedents of conflict, also in the context of voluntary sport organisations. The theoretical concepts of differentiation and interdependence were employed for this purpose (Lawrence and Lorsch 1967). As Amis et al. (1995) noted, “differentiation

arises from an attempt to increase organisational efficiency through the development of specialised sub-units”, (p. 3). Intra-organisational differences can develop based on structure, goal orientation and management style, which in turn cultivate diverse values. The authors noted that a resulting outcome is that “as specialised knowledge and experience is accumulated, and new group members become socially oriented with group norms, these differences become even more firmly entrenched within the structure of an organisation”, (Amis et al. 1995, p. 3). The extent to which differentiation causes conflict is based on the level of task interdependence demonstrated by organisational sub-units. In reference to Thompson’s (1967) framework of interdependence, Amis et al. (1995) noted that it is reciprocal interdependence, between volunteers and professional staff, which is most likely to occur in voluntary sport organisations.

Based on the results of a case-study methodology of four voluntary sport organisations, Amis et al. (1995, p. 12) concluded “it is apparent that the conflicts which occurred were more than just interpersonal: they arose because of the way in which the organisations were designed”. The authors noted that the findings support structural conflict arising due to the degree to which sub-units within the organisation were differentiated and interdependent. Other factors found to be structural antecedents of conflict in these organisations included jurisdictional ambiguity caused by a lack of formalisation (for example, no clear job descriptions) and resource scarcity (due to an over dependence of membership fees and volunteer fundraising). Variation in rewards (for example, separate pay scales) and involvement levels further contributed to the potential for structural conflict.

Related research that confirms the structural uncertainty surrounding volunteer positions includes comments by Pearce (1993) regarding the lack of clarity in terms of role expectations, performance levels and co-worker support. Wandersman and Alderman (1993) similarly reported that “lack of structure in many volunteer positions often leaves the volunteer unsure of his/her role within the organisation; this many contribute to the volunteers’ perceived lack of commitment to the organisation”, (p. 75). Mausner (1988) suggested social

exchange theory, based on the principles of reciprocity and trust, could be applied to support balanced relations between volunteers and paid staff. Factors raised as affecting this balance included the clarity of organisational goals and mutually agreed lines of authority.

Robinson (1994) explored the structure of voluntary bodies from the viewpoint of them being learning organisations. In this context, the author defined learning organisations as “being those ones which face up to new challenges, both external and internal, restructure where necessary, discard managers who can no longer cope with the next stage of development and redefine strategy”, (p. 13). From this perspective, conflict is viewed as being a positive force. After undertaking a review of the related literature and examining particular case examples, Robinson (1994) noted that in their initial stages, voluntary groups behave in the mould of learning organisations. However, as the development stage ceases, there is a tendency for such organisations (often constrained by ideological and cultural beliefs) to become established bureaucracies. Robinson (1994, p. 15) outlined several factors complementary of voluntary groups maintaining their status as learning organisations:

- “A primary objective that cannot be achieved on a short- or even medium-term time scale.
- Continuing fresh internal as well as external challenges that demand the introduction of new skills and expertise into group management.
- Constructive dissent among the membership on the short-term strategies and tactics necessary to achieve long-term objectives.
- A need to review continually both the financial and organisational structures necessary to meet both the short-term and the ultimate objectives”.

Closely related to the concept of learning organisations, Osborne (1996) examined the management of innovation in a British voluntary agency. Conclusions based on this case-study exercise stressed the importance of recognising organisations as

open systems that are exposed to external forces shaping internal goals. Other factors noted as affecting innovation management included the role of managers in the organisational context, the nature of decision-making processes and the impact of political factors in determining the direction of organisational activities. Osborne (1996) maintained that no simple models are capable of handling such complexity, however, within the context of the voluntary agency studied, a flexible approach to the management of innovation was required. This approach “could embrace and respond to this complexity rather than simply resist it or try, unsuccessfully, to control it”, (p. 80).

Pearce (1993), in a seminal study exploring the organisational behaviour of unpaid workers, noted, “despite the intuitive importance of understanding organisational design, there has been a complete neglect of this topic in studies of organisational volunteers”, (p. 34). The author found that volunteer job structures differed significantly from those designed for employees. These results were derived from a matching exercise of seven volunteer-staffed organisations and seven employee-staffed organisations, undertaking comparable work across of number of fields. The scope of the study, however, did not include an analysis of organisations containing both paid and unpaid workers on an integrated basis. Pearce (1993, p. 33) suggests organisational outcomes resulting from these differences in job structures include:

- “Less formalisation in job responsibilities and membership status for volunteers;
- Different divisions of the same organisational work; and
- Lower performance and selection requirements due to understaffing in volunteer-staffed organisations”.

A further outcome raised by Pearce (1993) was the dependence on a ‘core’ set of members for control rather than a hierarchy of authority. The author reports that in all of the volunteer-staffed organisations studied, a bifurcation of the membership into core and peripheral groupings was demonstrated. The organisational status of

these groupings may be likened to the components of Atkinson's (1987) Flexible Firm model. Characteristics of core volunteers noted by Pearce (1993) included willingness to offer help, well informed, reliable and a tendency to hold formal office. As the author pointed out, however, "the influence of members of the core was based primarily not on office or formal authority but on their personal qualities", (p. 48). This stance thereby contradicts the applicability of Weber's (1947) rational grounds for legitimate authority. Members of the periphery, in contrast, were often less involved and informed about organisational activities, with Pearce (1993) suggesting that a lack of free time limits the opportunity for these volunteers to seek core positions. Thus, organisational control in the volunteer-staffed organisations studied was informal, a finding later confirmed by Amis and Slack (1996).

Pearce (1993) developed a series of exploratory generalisations (presented in propositional form) to aid future research into the topic area. In noting the inherent uncertainty in defining boundaries for volunteers, the author highlighted that this aspect of organisational behaviour mirrored certain trends relating to paid employment, such as the blurring of employee status caused by the increasing use of temporary or contract workers. In relation to part-time volunteering, Pearce (1993) recognised, "that there are significant costs to organisations that disperse their workers temporally or spatially", (p. 157). Propositions articulated relating to the structural uncertainty of volunteer positions include:

- "Peripheral members in understaffed organisations will tend to become acquainted with only a few other members.
- Peripheral members will tend to become dependent on guidance from core members, which will then further isolate peripheral members, diminish their importance, and increase time demands on and responsibilities of core members.
- Clear, closed-ended job descriptions for peripheral and core members will counter the development of contradictory roles, encourage complementary relationships, and limit bifurcation of the organisation", (Pearce 1993, p. 154).

Propositions developed in relation to the effective management of volunteers included:

- “Most volunteer-staffed organisations will consist of an activist core and a less active peripheral membership.
- The larger the proportion of organisational members in the core, the more smoothly integrated will be members’ activities.
- The longer volunteers work for their organisations, the more likely they will be to assume core roles.
- Having employees and volunteers do similar tasks will undermine the legitimacy of both inherently”, (p. 170).

Pearce (1993) noted that the volunteer-staffed organisations studied experienced difficulties recruiting members to the core. The author recognised that together with established recruiting mechanisms, systematic research could assist by “describing the size and characteristics of the core membership in different kinds of volunteer-staffed organisations”, (p. 176). Knoke and Prenskey (1984) perceived a similar need for research to be undertaken on a representative sample of voluntary associations to determine the limitations of structural analysis for this type of organisation. The author’s view that the structural features (including division of labour, formalisation, technology and size) held questionable relevance for voluntary associations necessitated identification of this research gap.

5.3 Volunteering and Strategic Human Resource Management

Volunteering literature in respect to human resource management (HRM) and strategy will be examined using the policy framework accompanying Guest’s (1987) model of HRM. The policies included in this framework, proposed with paid working environments in mind, include organisational and job design, recruitment, training and development, performance appraisal, reward systems and communication systems. Linking HRM to strategy, Guest (1987) contends that

strategic planning and implementation is one of the human resource outcomes of the policy framework.

Before separately examining those particular policies that have been afforded research attention and discussion in relation to volunteer management, it is worthwhile noting that there has been a number of guidelines produced (Brudney 1994; Hedley 1992; McCurley 1994; Noble and Rogers 1998) for managing volunteers that incorporate several aspects of Guest's (1987) policy framework. Indeed, Brudney (1994) suggested "in all areas, these policies should be as comparable as possible to pertinent guidelines for employees", (p. 283). These management guidelines are remarkably similar in terms of content. As an illustrative example, both Hedley (1992) and McCurley (1994) stress the importance of determining a clear rationale for using volunteers and seeking input from paid staff as to their feelings regarding any potential volunteer involvement. Other elements suggested by Brudney (1994) as epitomising a successful volunteer program include:

- "The volunteer program must be integrated structurally into the nonprofit organisation.
- The program must have designated leadership positions to provide direction and accountability.
- The agency must prepare job descriptions for the positions to be held by volunteers, as well as see to the related functions of screening, orientation, placement and training.
- The volunteer program must attend to the motivations that inspire volunteers and attempt to respond to them, with the goal of meeting both the individuals' needs and those of the organisation.
- Managing volunteers for the best results typically requires adaptations of more traditional hierarchical approaches toward teamwork and collaboration.

- All components of the volunteer effort – citizens, employees, and the program itself – benefit from evaluation and recognition activities”, (p. 299).

To reiterate, aspects of the HR policies of organisational and job design, recruitment, training, performance appraisal and reward systems are evident in the above listed volunteer management guidelines. Brudney (1999) questioned the extent to which such recommended “best practices” were used in the context of US government-run volunteer programs at Federal, State and Local levels. The combined findings revealed that the provision of recognition activities (reward systems) for volunteers was the most prevalent practice used. At the other end of the spectrum, however, performance appraisal (annual or other evaluation by volunteers) was adopted by only 30% of government-based volunteer programs. In terms of training and development, the majority of programs offered such activities to both volunteers and paid staff (working directly with volunteers), on an initial and ongoing basis. Other HR functions adopted included active efforts to recruit volunteers (in 76% of programs) and the use of job descriptions (in 72% of programs).

In a later work, Brudney and Kellough (2000) narrowed the research focus to State government-based programs only. Employing a methodology similar to that of Brudney (1999), the “best practice” characteristics of these programs were examined. Subsequently these characteristics formed the basis for an index representing volunteer-program development. This index was then used to explore any links to potential (perceived) benefits associated with volunteer involvement in State programs. Based on the findings, Brudney and Kellough (2000) reported that “agencies with more developed volunteer programs are more likely to reap benefits from the use of volunteers, as perceived by the program managers. That is, to the degree that an agency adopts the program characteristics recommended in the literature of volunteer administration to manage and coordinate its volunteer effort, greater benefits are apparently achieved”, (p. 124). This finding positively supports the application of human resource management practices to volunteer workforces.

As one potential qualifier, Brudney and Kellough (2000) also found that the size of the volunteer workforce was significantly related to the benefits index. This finding might suggest that larger programs benefit from volunteer involvement regardless of whether they are characteristic of certain “best practices” of volunteer management.

Attention now turns to examining separate HR policies from the volunteering perspective. In particular, the areas of recruitment, training, rewards and communication provide the focus for this review. Following on from this literature, the topic of strategy, recognised for its link to human resource management (Guest 1987), is also briefly touched on in terms of the volunteering context.

5.3.1 Recruitment

Wandersman and Alderman (1993) investigated the incentives, costs and barriers to volunteering. Amongst a small sample of staff from the American Cancer Society, it was reported that popular methods of recruiting volunteers included the recommendations of present and former unpaid workers and the personal contacts of staff. While such word-of-mouth endorsements are a relatively low cost method of recruitment, a concern with relying too heavily upon this technique, however, may be the development over time of conformity amongst volunteers in terms of perspective, skills and demographic profile. A case study by Jago and Deery (1999) examined the use of newspaper and radio advertisements to attract people to volunteer at a heritage attraction. The volunteer co-ordinator of the organisation in question reported that some of the people who responded to these recruitment methods proved to be unsuitable volunteers. Jago and Deery (1999) subsequently raise the difficulty of rejecting people who apply for volunteer positions. Recruitment, as Tyzack (1996) advocated, should be assisted by the use of job descriptions for both paid staff and volunteers. Position descriptions provide clear guidelines in relation to the reporting requirements and skills required. Tyzack (1996) outlined that these guidelines should be covered in an organisation’s induction program and any ongoing training efforts.

5.3.2 Training

Having made mention of Jago and Deery's (1999) findings in relation to volunteer recruitment, it seems pertinent to report on the training provided to these heritage attraction volunteers. The authors noted that a two-day program of induction training was in place that the volunteers must complete prior to commencing service. Despite these volunteers receiving no formal 'on-the-job' training after induction, the culture of the heritage attraction embodied an informal mentoring system amongst volunteers. With a continuing focus upon the tourism sector, Deery and Jago (2001) conducted research involving visitor information centre (VIC) volunteers. It was revealed that these volunteers valued training opportunities as a means of enhancing their skills and as a reward for time contributed. Given the positive benefits that may potentially accrue to organisations by investing in volunteer training, it is perhaps worrying to note that in Wandersman and Alderman's (1993) study, 20% of respondents (representing various units of the American Cancer Society) indicated that they provided no volunteer training.

5.3.3 Rewards

Apart from training, other rewards that have been found to apply in the volunteer context include the chance to make community contacts, promotions and formal recognition by way of awards, medals, etc (Wandersman and Alderman 1993). Uniforms have also been suggested as a means of rewarding volunteers by providing them with status and a feeling of importance (Deery and Jago 2001). Findings by Wandersman and Alderman (1993) indicate that the determination of rewards may not necessarily be based on an evaluation process. Of the staff sampled, 73% revealed their units did not evaluate volunteers in any way. Jago and Deery (1999) reported that the reward system of the heritage attraction was negatively affected by a lack of record keeping of volunteer hours over a number of years.

5.3.4 Communication

On the topic of communication, Adams and Shepherd (1996) explored the reactions of a small sample of hospital volunteers to staff attempts at regulating their behaviour. The authors stress that organisations need to proactively inform their paid and unpaid staff in relation to work expectations so as to prevent situations (in the case of the study, poor performance, breach of confidentiality and lack of punctuality) in which such regulative messages might be necessary. Deery and Jago (2001) noted that the issue of communication between management, paid staff and volunteers needed addressing in their study of Victorian visitor information centres. As the authors suggested, “too often, conflict and misunderstanding occurs because the communication channels are unclear; too, there is not sufficient communication”, (p. 65). Methods of communication used by the centres to address these concerns included newsletters, mailouts, regular meetings and focus groups containing both volunteers and co-ordinators.

5.3.5 Strategy

There is a limited literature that examines strategic management and volunteering. This research gap is unfortunate given that as Jago and Deery (2002) acknowledge “the decision to use volunteers as well as paid staff in these front-line positions is clearly linked to the organisation’s business strategy”, (p. 229). The positions referred to in this context include customer service roles in visitor information centres and museums. On a related front, however, Butler and Wilson’s (1990) study of the strategy and structure of British charities sheds some light on these dynamics in the context of the voluntary sector. At a more practical level, Bryson (1994) and Unterman and Davis (1984) have detailed the strategic planning process of non-profit organisations.

Bryson (1994) suggests that there are two types of strategic decision making – the “rational” planning model and political decision making. Parallels can be drawn between these models and certain forms of strategy identified in Whittington’s (1993) typology (see 3.2.2). The rational model can be aligned to the classical type

of strategy in that a deliberate approach to decision making is taken that “begins with a primary goal (or goals), from which are deduced policies, programs, and actions to achieve the goals”, (Bryson 1994, p. 179). The classical approach, based on the principle of profit-maximisation, does not sit easily with the mission of many organisations that utilise volunteers (for example, not-for-profits and government agencies). Whittington (1993) described processual strategies as being pluralistic and emergent, shaped not as a result of some overriding plan but rather as an outcome of political compromise. Bryson’s (1994) second approach to decision making embodied similar tenets. The author noted, “as efforts proceed to resolve the issues, policies and programs emerge that address the issues and that are politically rational – that is, they are politically acceptable to involved or affected parties”, (179). Bryson (1994) contends that once consensus has been achieved in relation to these politically rational policies, the rational approach to decision making can subsequently be used to refine the established goals, policies and programs.

Unterman and Davis (1984) developed several quantitative and qualitative criteria for evaluating the performance of not-for-profit organisations relative to their strategic goals. The following is a list of those criteria that relate specifically to volunteers:

- “The total number of hours spent by volunteers;
- The percentage increase in the number of volunteers;
- The quality of the relationship of volunteers to both the executive director and the board members;
- The ease of attracting board members and volunteers”, (pp. p. 32-33).

Future research using a similar methodology to that of Brudney (1999) and Brudney and Kellough (2000) would be of benefit to determine the extent and effectiveness of strategy development and evaluation in relation to volunteer management.

5.4 Organisational Culture

A dearth of relevant literature indicates that the topic of culture appears to be the least researched area of volunteering in terms of the organisational context. Butler and Wilson (1990) and Gann (1996) noted changes to the voluntary sector (for example, reduced government funding) that have impacted upon the organisational culture of non-for-profit organisations. Whilst these works have not incorporated an examination of how volunteers perceive the culture of the organisations they work for, future research may account for this gap. Indeed, Freeman (2001) contends that a characteristic best practice volunteer program should embody “a culture that is oriented towards continually improving the way things are done”, (p. 54). The potential cultural insights to be gained from volunteers, together with the views of their paid counterparts, may prove invaluable to organisations in undertaking this improvement process.

5.5 Organisational Commitment, Job Satisfaction and Turnover

For many of the topics that comprise the current thesis, there is a plethora of literature relating to the paid workforce compared to the amount of research that focuses upon volunteering. Understanding volunteer attitudes and the potential consequences of these attitudes is one area, however, for which a comparable body of research has developed. This research speaks directly to the question those organisations that utilise volunteers most want to know: what makes volunteers stay? The current thesis has examined the highly complex relationships between organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover as they apply to paid workers (see 4.2.3 and 4.2.4). Attention will now turn to exploring these relationships from the perspective of volunteers.

5.5.1 Volunteering Commitment

In terms of commitment, Pearce (1993) noted, “volunteers usually are assumed to be very committed, since they are not compelled to work by financial need as are

most employees”, (p. 93). The author discussed volunteer commitment taking into account the different definitional boundaries associated with the concept. In doing so, the appropriateness of Salancik’s (1977) behavioural approach to commitment (see 4.2.2) was questioned. Based on this definition, binding acts that generate commitment are characteristic of being explicit, irrevocable, undertaken of a person’s own free will and public in nature. Pearce (1993) argues, however, “the easy revocability of the decision to join an organisation is particularly problematic for volunteers. Taking a volunteer job is probably as close to a trial action as any organisational membership can be. Certainly, leaving the organisation entails no financial hardship. Furthermore, the decision to volunteer can be less public than the decision to take a paid position”, (p. 96).

Researchers have examined volunteer commitment from another key perspective, that of attitudinal commitment. Cuskelly (1995), Dailey (1986) and Miller et al. (1990) all employed the widely accepted measure of attitudinal commitment, the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday et al 1982; Porter et al. 1974), in their studies of volunteer commitment and turnover. Dailey (1986) reported that job satisfaction was the single biggest predictor of organisational commitment, together with the factors of work autonomy, job involvement and feedback from the work itself. Based on these findings, the author noted “the variables used to study work attitudes and organisational commitment for paid employees are associated with these outcomes for volunteers”, (p. 27). From the results of their turnover research, Miller et al. (1990) likewise concluded that the influences and decision-making processes affecting paid staff were comparable to those that volunteers experience. Specifically, the findings revealed that the work attitudes of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and satisfaction with the work itself had an indirect effect on turnover with intention to leave acting as an intervening factor.

Miller et al. (1990) further reported that the convenience of a volunteer’s work schedule had a direct effect on turnover. The authors suggested that flexible work practices traditionally applied to paid workforces may also be of some assistance to

organisations in arranging and adjusting schedules to meet the time constraints of volunteers. In terms of frequency of volunteering and length of service, Cuskelly (1995) found that hours per week spent volunteering was positively related to commitment, while tenure was unrelated to a volunteers' affective attachment to their host organisation. Penner and Finkelstein (1998) confirmed the latter result and noted "contrary to our expectations, organisational commitment was not significantly associated with length of service", (p. 533). Penner and Finkelstein (1998) go on to indicate, however, that organisational satisfaction did positively correlate with length of service. This finding supports the outcome of an earlier study by Omoto and Snyder (1995). Other studies supplementing the body of work examining volunteer commitment include Catano, Pond and Kelloway (2001), Cress, Miller McPherson and Rotolo (1997) and Ryan, Kaplan and Grese (2001).

5.5.2 Retention and Turnover

Related to commitment, a great deal of research (Gidron 1984; Lammers 1991; Morrow-Howell and Mui 1989; Pierrucci and Noel 1980) has been undertaken to determine the reasons why volunteers stay or leave organisations. Gidron (1984) employed various predictors (personal, organisational, attitudinal) to shed light on the topic of volunteer retention and turnover. He found that the organisational variable of task preparation, together with the attitudinal predictors of task achievement, relations with other volunteers and the work itself, best discriminated between those volunteers who were "stayers" and "leavers by choice". Gidron (1984) further reported that these variables were found to be better suited to the prediction of volunteer retention than turnover. Comparing the volunteer results with studies employing populations of paid workers, Gidron (1984) considered the turnover and retention predictors of the two groups to be highly similar. Commenting upon one notable exception, however, he remarked that job satisfaction is "often found to predict turnover among paid workers, but did not discriminate between "leavers" and "stayers" in our analysis", (p. 14). This result may be somewhat at odds with the finding of Miller et al. (1990) that job satisfaction had an indirect effect on volunteer turnover.

Lammers (1991) partially replicated Gidron's study and found that viewing a voluntary activity as worthwhile, higher levels of education, being female and the desire to learn new skills were all factors predictive of a person fulfilling their volunteer commitment. For predicting length of service, however, these factors were revealed to be ineffective. Confirming some of Gidron's (1984) earlier findings, Lammers (1991) analysis found that the predictors of length of service, while having a relatively small impact, included positive attitudes towards the work itself and fellow volunteers, together with opportunities for continued education. Research by Pierucci and Noel (1980) stressed the comparative importance of situational variables over personal variables in determining the duration of service of correctional volunteers. Committed volunteers were found to be more satisfied with the process by which they were inducted into the organisation and the support they received from agency staff compared with Partially Committed volunteers.

5.5.3 Job Satisfaction and Volunteering

Turning to the topic of job satisfaction, various researchers have explored the relevance of motivation theories, borne of paid working environments, to the volunteering context. Pearce (1993) suggested that Staw's (1976) sufficiency-of-justification hypothesis was a potential reason why volunteers generally demonstrate more positive work attitudes than non-volunteers. The rationale behind this theory is that workers receiving few rewards (for example, tangibles such as remuneration) will experience "insufficient justification" for their effort and as a consequence will compensate by enhancing the importance of benefits intrinsic to the role itself (for example, interesting/challenging tasks). An earlier study by Pearce (1983) supported this line of thinking. It was found that consistent with the effects of the theory, volunteers reported greater job satisfaction and less intent to leave than paid staff doing the same work in separate (but comparable) organisations.

Gidron (1983) applied the basic tenets of ‘Dual Factor Theory’ (Herzberg 1966; Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman 1959) to examine job satisfaction among human service agency volunteers. Herzberg proposed a unipolar relationship between job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction (as opposed to the two attitudes comprising different ends of the same continuum), with the factors responsible for the former attitude (motivators) being separate from those of the latter (hygiene factors). Gidron (1983) employed this distinction in terms of content factors (related to the work performed) and context factors (related to the work situation) and concentrated his study upon the sources and structure of job satisfaction only. He reported that two content factors (the work itself, task achievement) and two context factors (task convenience, the absence of stressors) were predictive of overall job satisfaction.

In review, Gidron (1983) noted that the “volunteers in this study found their job satisfying if they perceived it as challenging and interesting, it made use of their skills and knowledge, it allowed for independence, required responsibility, their client(s) showed progress, their job was convenient in terms of hours and location, and if there were no organisational or other obstacles hampering their work”, (p. 30). In comparing the results to studies of paid workers, Gidron (1983) considered that the relationship between the context (hygiene) factors and job satisfaction meant, “Herzberg’s theory was not found to apply to volunteer workers”, (p. 32). Aspects of his results, however, echo Pearce’s (1983) assertion that the potential to gain intrinsic rewards from volunteering may influence job satisfaction. It is also interesting to note that just as Miller et al (1990) found that time demand issues had a direct effect on volunteer turnover, Gidron (1983) findings indicated job convenience affected overall satisfaction. This outcome supports the suggestion that flexible work practices may provide organisations with a viable means of managing their volunteer workforces so as to maximise contributions whilst minimising competing demands on volunteers’ time.

5.6 Volunteering in the Museums Sector

The current thesis examines the flexible work practices applied to and working relations between paid staff and volunteers. Whilst important, it was somewhat incidental that the museum sector provides the setting for the main component of the research (see 6.3.3). Given this consideration and that a substantial body of literature exists detailing the historical context and various functions of museums, it was determined to be beyond the scope of the thesis to incorporate an account of this literature. As such, only a brief definition of the museum context will be provided, together with an overview of the available research that has dealt with volunteering issues in this particular setting.

The work of Goodlad and McIvor (1998) has made a significant contribution to the study of museum volunteers. The authors suggested several principles of best practice for operating volunteer programs in museums, similar to more general guidelines of volunteer management (Brudney 1994; Hedley 1992, McCurley 1994). These principles were based on research examining the interpretation activities of museum volunteers and related studies of tutoring by student volunteers. In discussing the functional aspects of museums, Goodlad and McIvor (1998, p. 10) cited the internationally recognised definition of a museum as “a non-profit making permanent institution in the service of society and of its development and open to the public which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates, and exhibits for the purposes of study, education and enjoyment, material evidence of man and his environment”, (International Council of Museums 1990, p. 12). The authors acknowledged the difficulties museums face in sustaining these often conflicting core functions (for example, exhibiting versus conservation). Goodlad and McIvor (1998) also suggested that income generation has become an important imperative of modern museums seeking to justify their continued existence and compete in the cultural and leisure sectors. To this end, the authors contend that “volunteers are as much an audience as a resource and, we argue, should be managed in a comparable way to sponsors or members”, (p. 18).

Graham and Foley (1998) provided a definitional reassessment of volunteering in urban museums in Glasgow. Concurring with Goodlad and McIvor's (1998) views on income generation, the authors noted "a critical eye is now being cast on the lack of both entrepreneurial spirit and managerial efficiency present in the museum sector, at a time when opportunities to follow new directions are ripe", (p. 23). On the topic of volunteer commitment, Graham and Foley (1998) found that akin to the tenets of the Flexible Firm model (Atkinson and Gregory 1986), some volunteers occupied core roles in the museums studied, while others were positioned on the periphery. This finding confirms Pearce's (1993) suggestion of a bifurcation of membership in volunteer staffed organisations. As a concluding comment, the authors surmised, "it is clear that volunteering in Glasgow Museums accommodates considerable numeric and functional flexibility. Indeed, flexible work practices are wide ranging and, on the surface, may appear to involve managerial motivations that view volunteering as a partial solution to problems associated with current funding constraints", (p. 36). The current thesis will ascertain the extent to which such practices are inherent in the Australian museum sector.

5.7 Chapter Summary

As the preceding literature review has demonstrated, there has been insufficient research into various aspects of management theory in relation to volunteer workforces. As the majority of theory relating to organisational structure, strategy, culture, flexibility, human resource management and organisational commitment has focussed on paid working environments, there exists great potential to determine its relevance in terms of volunteer management. Areas that have received some research attention include structural factors, human resource management and worker commitment. Even then, gaps have been identified. For example, Pearce (1993) noted that an understanding of the value of organisational design has been largely neglected in terms of the volunteering context.

Whilst researchers seem inherently attracted to the attitudes of organisational commitment and job satisfaction as a means of shedding light on volunteer retention and turnover, strategy and culture issues have received much less research attention. The perceptions volunteers might offer in relation to various cultural elements could prove invaluable for organisations and a worthwhile avenue for future research activity. Flexibility has been purported by academics and practitioners alike (Freeman 1997; Wandersman and Alderman 1993; Gann 1996) as becoming increasingly significant to voluntary organisations in terms of having the available resources and work approaches in place to ensure that volunteers and paid staff work cooperatively and effectively together. At a theoretical level, examination of this concept is required in terms of its suitability to volunteering. The key focus of the present thesis embodies such an examination.

CHAPTER 6 – PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 Chapter Introduction

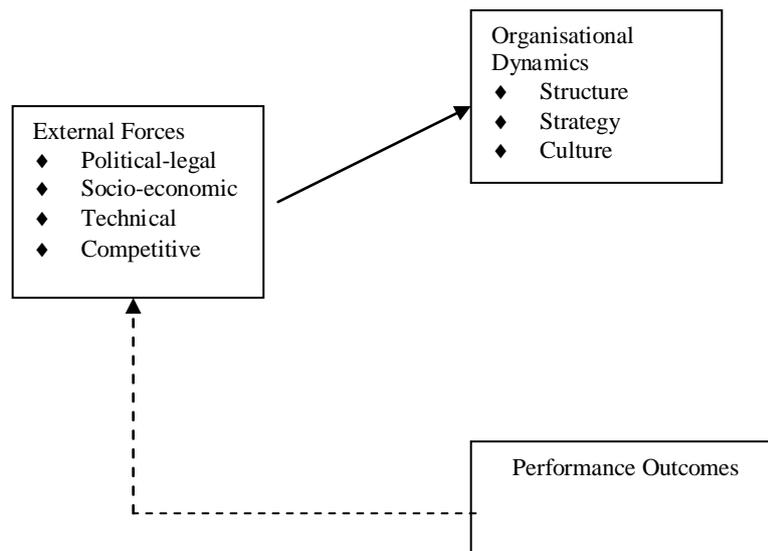
The preceding chapters outlined various theoretical concepts that form an integral part of the present research. These topics included structural theory and pockets of management theory such as Fordism and Post-Fordism. An understanding of how these theories have evolved provides a background to the external and internal factors that have shaped modern organisations. Other elements of the literature review included human resource management and commitment theories. These have direct relevance for how labour is viewed and treated by organisations and particularly the extent to which they are willing to accommodate greater workforce flexibility. The flexibility literature was found to be detailed in terms of both theory and application. Upon reviewing this research, a new model is proposed with a view to extending the flexibility concept both in terms of approach (partnership, as compared to separate employer-centred/employee-centred approaches) and working environment (acknowledging volunteer contributions). This chapter outlines the tenets of the partnership model of convergent flexibility (Lockstone et al. 2003) and the methodological steps involved in refining and testing it.

6.2 Development of the Partnership Model of Convergent Flexibility

The proposed conceptual model provides a framework for the operation of functional, numerical and temporal flexibility in relation to elements of the organisational setting that influence the management of volunteer and paid workers. These elements include structure, strategy and culture, human resource management (HRM) and worker commitment. The merit of this approach has been recognised by Hendry and Pettigrew (1990), Legge (1995) and Truss et al. (1997). These authors have remarked upon the role that strategy, culture and structural factors can have on HRM and its effect on worker commitment and labour flexibility.

The partnership model of convergent flexibility does not hypothesise as to the exact weight and sequencing of the relationships between structure, strategy and culture and their impact upon the flexible work practices offered by organisations. The model acknowledges the hierarchical ordering of Chandler (1962) and the reciprocal sequencing of Amburgey and Dacin (1994) and Mintzberg (1990). It adopts, however, a holistic approach by grouping these factors under the heading of “organisational dynamics”. This approach is adopted to enable the research to concentrate upon the effects of structure, strategy and culture on flexible work practices, rather than the focus shifting to the interplay between the particular dynamics. The partnership model is presented in stages, with the completed version outlined later in the chapter (see Figure 6.2). The first building block (see Figure 6.1a) depicts these dynamics as being subject to both external influences (political-legal, socio-economic, technical, competitive) on a regular basis and intermittent feedback resulting from organisational performance outcomes.

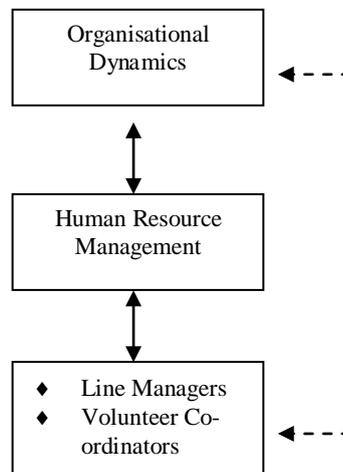
Figure 6.1a: Partnership Model - Organisational Dynamics - Internal and External Influences



Source: Lockstone et al. (2003)

A reciprocal relationship is proposed between human resource management (HRM) and the factors comprising the “organisational dynamics” (see Figure 6.1b). Legge (1995) articulated the need for such a relationship between HRM policy-making and business strategy and Hendry and Pettigrew (1990) considered that HRM could contribute to strategy through the development of culture. The relationship depicted in the model moderates what Purcell (1989) argued was the subjugation of personnel policy to strategic decisions on organisational structure. The role of HRM is viewed as being integral to the organisation. The partnership model also recognises that this role may be bypassed, with organisational dynamics indirectly affecting the decisions of line managers and/or volunteer coordinators. This position acknowledges findings of Cunningham and Hyman (1995) regarding the layering of certain HR functions (performance assessment, disciplinary matters) to line managers.

Figure 6.1b: Partnership Model – HRM Function

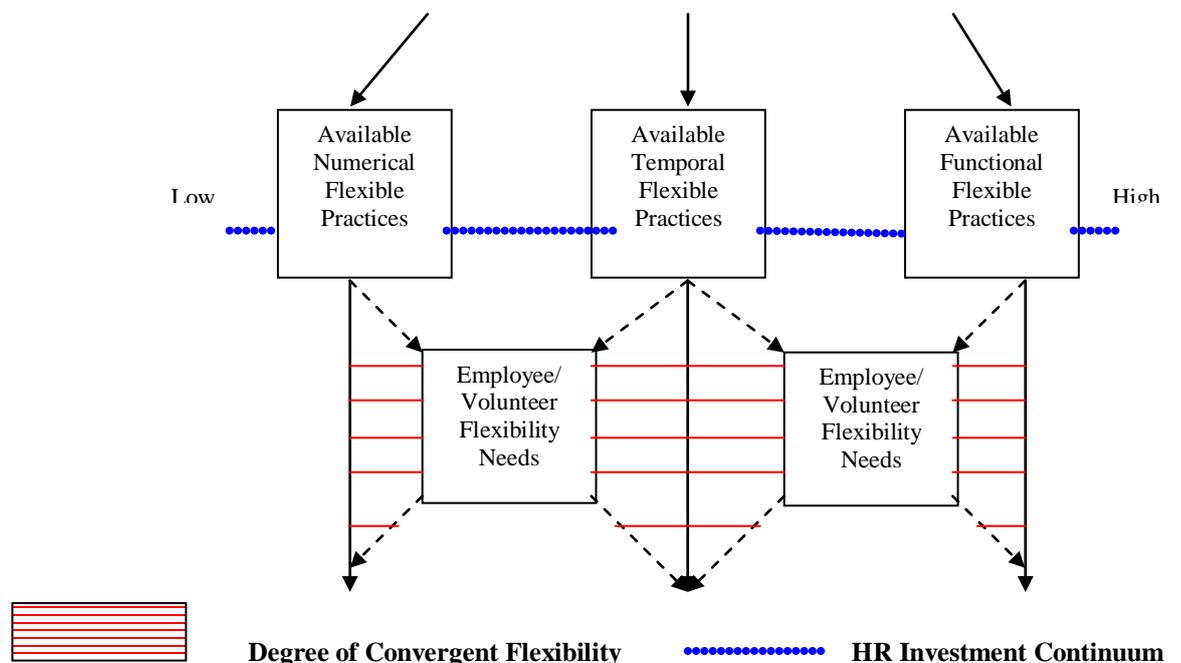


Source: Lockstone et al. (2003)

Having set the scene by incorporating elements of the wider organisational setting, the partnership model subsequently branches off in three separate directions, each representing a different form of organisational flexibility (see Figure 6.1c). The inclusion of numerical, temporal and functional flexibility practices draws upon Atkinson’s (1984) Flexible Firm model with its division of workers into ‘core’ and

‘peripheral’ positions as a means of coordinating labour usage to demand conditions. Unlike this essentially employer-centred approach, the partnership model adopts the position that when the flexibility needs of employees and volunteers converge with the flexibility practices offered, performance outcomes will be enhanced. Recent publications by Reilly (2001) and Sheridan and Conway (2001) have also advocated a mutual approach to workplace flexibility involving the balancing of employer and employee interests.

Figure 6.1c: Partnership Model – Organisational Flexibility and HR Investment



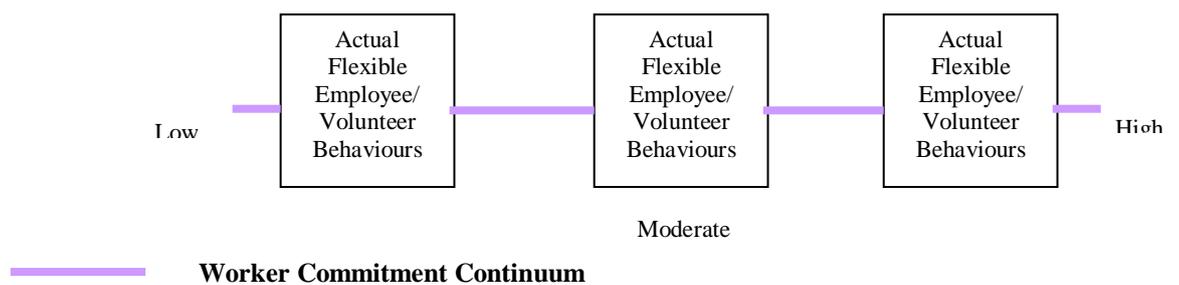
Source: Lockstone et al. (2003)

In acknowledging the various elements which may impact upon organisational flexibility, the model depicts flexibility practices along a continuum of HR investment (investment in paid staff and volunteers). Holloway and Davies (2001) viewed worker’s human resource support needs from a similar perspective. The HR investment continuum embodies Legge's (1995) comments that flexibility practices can be simultaneously aligned to the ‘soft’ development driven model of HRM (Beer et al. 1985) and its ‘hard’ cost minimisation counterpart (Fombrun et al. 1984). Supporting the positioning of numerical flexibility (associated with the

‘hard’ model of HRM) at the lower end of the continuum, research by Geary (1992), Gooderham and Nordhaug (1997), Lowry (2001) and Mayne et al. (1996) has demonstrated that less than ideal HRM practices have commonly been adopted towards peripheral workers within many organisations.

The partnership model depicts employee and volunteer behaviours on a separate continuum of worker commitment (see Figure 6.1d) in recognition of the varying degrees of convergence that can be achieved between worker’s flexibility needs and the different forms of flexibility. Lowry (2001) noted that organisations commonly assume that workers in peripheral positions will demonstrate less commitment and treat them accordingly in terms of the support that they provide. The proposed model adopts this pragmatic stance, but recognises that the partnership approach can still deliver positive outcomes if this reduced commitment is a by product of the flexibility needs of employees/volunteers (eg, wanting to work on a numerical or temporal basis in order to undertake domestic duties or pursue some other interest).

Figure 6.1d: Partnership Model – Worker Commitment



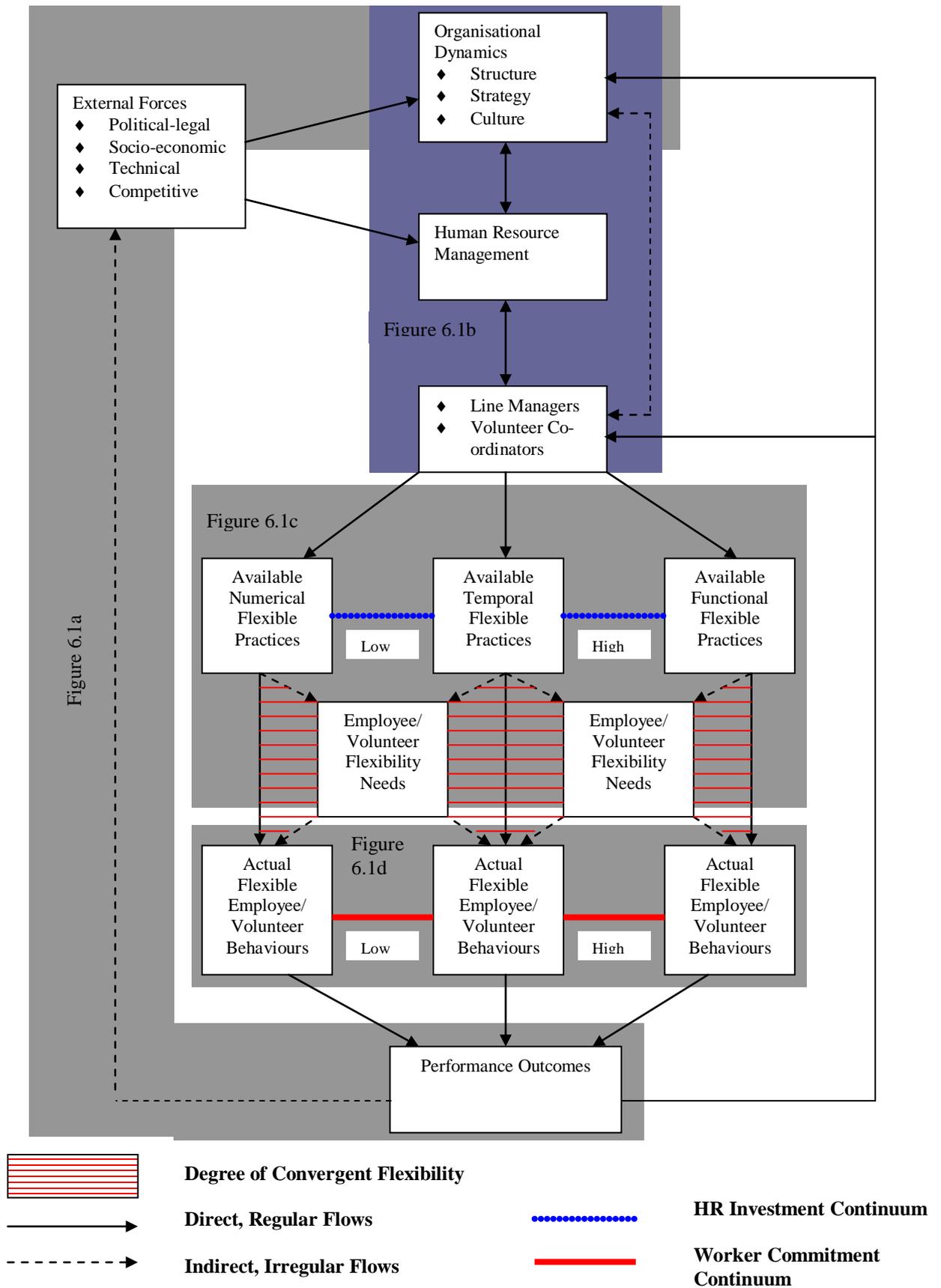
Source: Lockstone et al. (2003)

Towards the upper end of the commitment continuum, just as Reilly (2001) cited the work of Huselid (1995) and Tsui et al. (1997) to substantiate his argument for mutual flexibility, the partnership model posits that higher levels of employee and volunteer commitment will mirror higher levels of HR investment. The association of the ‘soft’ model of HRM with commitment generation by Legge (1995) and Sheridan and Conway (2001) also support this stance. Likewise several

contributions by Walton (1980; 1985a; 1985b), co-author of the 'soft' model and advocate of mutual commitment policies, further link the elements of flexibility, HRM and commitment that underlie the partnership approach.

Performance outcomes comprise the final component of the partnership model. Representing the results of the convergence process, these outcomes are located towards the base of the model and also incorporate an indirect feedback loop to the external environment (acknowledgment that such outcomes may have broader scale competitive or other effects) and a direct feedback loop to the internal environment (line managers/volunteer co-ordinators and the organisational dynamics). To assess the value of the partnership approach in retaining volunteers and paid staff, the particular outcomes embodied in the model include job satisfaction and intention to leave. The completed version of the partnership model of convergent flexibility is outlined in Figure 6.2. To assist the reader in understanding how the conceptual model fits together, its basic building blocks (Figures 6.1a through to 6.1d) are shaded in on Figure 2 (it should be noted that standard representations of the model do not contain this shading).

Figure 6.2: Partnership Model of Convergent Flexibility in Organisations



6.2.1 Research Questions of the Partnership Model

Having developed the partnership model of convergent flexibility (Lockstone et al. 2003), a series of research questions were generated to examine its explanatory value. The preceding discussion highlighted the importance of the convergence process in relation to flexible work practices. This process underlies the key research question of the model.

Research Question 1:

Does a larger degree of convergent flexibility between available flexibility practices and the flexibility needs of paid staff/volunteers increase the probability of positive performance outcomes?

Other research questions stemming from the model include:

Research Question 2:

Do paid and unpaid staff working according to numerical flexible practices experience a low level of HR investment by organisations?

Research Question 3:

Do paid and unpaid staff working according to temporal flexible practices experience a moderate level of HR investment by organisations?

Research Question 4:

Do paid and unpaid staff working according to functional flexible practices experience a high level of HR investment by organisations?

Research Question 5:

Do paid and unpaid staff working according to numerical flexible practices demonstrate a low level of organisational commitment?

Research Question 6:

Do paid and unpaid staff working according to temporal flexible practices demonstrate a moderate level of organisational commitment?

Research Question 7:

Do paid and unpaid staff working according to functional flexible practices demonstrate a high level of organisational commitment?

As will be detailed in the following pages, the current study precluded an adequate examination of certain relationships depicted in the partnership model. Namely, the effect of external forces upon organisational dynamics and the HR function, the relationship between performance outcomes and the feedback loop to external forces and finally the influence of direct flows resulting from these outcomes back to managers/co-ordinators and the organisational dynamics. As such, no research questions were generated to represent these relationships. Future testing of the model (incorporating issues such as a time component in the research design) may compensate for this omission. Despite this consideration, the proposed conceptual model in its present form extends existing flexibility theory through its incorporation of a wider range of elements acknowledged as affecting labour flexibility and its move to recognise the contribution of unpaid workers in organisations. In doing so, the model moves beyond the traditional domain of flexibility theory, the paid workforce, to assess whether the practical application of this theoretical base may be useful to organisations in recruiting and retaining volunteers.

6.3 Methodology

As presented in Figure 6.2, the partnership model of convergent flexibility (Lockstone et al. 2003) is based exclusively on the literature review and remains relatively untested. The methodological steps involved in examining the explanatory value of this model are outlined during the remainder of this chapter. These steps are detailed in the following sections:

- Research Stages
- Stage One
 - Data Collection Methods
 - Quantitative – Questionnaire Design
 - Quantitative – Survey Administration and Response
 - Quantitative - Data Analysis Techniques
 - Qualitative
- Stage Two
 - Data Collection Methods
 - Research Sites
 - Quantitative – Questionnaire Design
 - Pilot Testing
 - Quantitative – Survey Administration and Response
 - Quantitative - Data Analysis Techniques
 - Qualitative

6.3.1 Research Stages

To provide input into the partnership model of convergent flexibility and examine the hypothesised relationships, the study adopts a two-stage methodology. Stage One of the research involved the gathering of exploratory data on the flexibility practices and human resource management practices used by organisations within the tourism and cultural sectors. The rationale behind undertaking this exercise was to attain an industry ‘snapshot’ of these practices and determine their application to paid and unpaid workers. This research also served to suggest refinements to the partnership model and provide input into Stage Two of the study. During this later stage, the research questions of the partnership model were examined in the context of a limited number of cultural organisations.

6.3.2 Stage One

6.3.2.1 Data Collection Methods

Stage One of the study employed quantitative methods of data collection with qualitative techniques adding increased depth of information. Fahey and Walker (2001) have previously acknowledged such benefits resulting from the crossover of mixed-method approaches in their volunteer research. During this exploratory phase, the investigation of labour market flexibility focused upon the perspectives of managers and volunteer co-ordinators across the tourism and cultural sectors. In representing the tourism sector, visitor information centres and visitor attractions were selected as the working population from which the sample would be drawn due to the strong reliance of these types of organisations on volunteer contributions. Several studies on volunteering have examined a range of issues using these organisational contexts (Deery, Jago and Shaw 1997; Deery and Jago 2001; Jago and Deery 1999; Jago and Deery 2002). To extend previous flexibility research conducted within tourism and tourism-related organisations (Holloway and Davies 2001), the associated museums sector was also chosen as an appropriate backdrop for the exploratory research. Citing the work of Bruner (1993), Harrison (1997) noted that museums and tourism share common ground including “the production and exhibition of culture, a dependence on an audience, their construction and invention of what they display, and that they are both the result of travel”, (p.23).

The exploratory phase of the research aimed to assess the flexibility practices of organisations with both paid and volunteer workforces, and the extent to which the working population comprised both groups was unknown. It was determined that self-completion mail-return questionnaires would be the most appropriate means of quantitative data collection in terms of cost and time efficiency. Based on a convenience sample compiled from the Australian Museums Online website (the same source used in Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001b) and relevant official government tourism websites, questionnaires were distributed in Victoria, New South Wales and the ACT.

Supporting the quantitative findings, qualitative data was collected during Stage One of the study, sourced from a series of structured interviews. Following input

received from the volunteer co-ordinators working on behalf of the industry partners (the Melbourne Museum and the National Museum of Australia), a small sample of organisations was selected from the distribution list compiled for the quantitative data collection. Contact was then initiated with a range of volunteer co-ordinators and managers. Each interview lasted between one to one and a half hours and was conducted *in situ*. Upon completion, the interviews were transcribed and the responses summarised in a matrix format for comparative purposes. A range of themes was extracted from the data following additional analysis.

6.3.2.2 Quantitative - Questionnaire Design

The researcher designed the content and format of the questionnaire used for Stage One data collection with input from the industry partners. Questions were designed to address the main topics covered in the literature review, namely flexibility practices, HRM practices and working relations between paid staff and volunteers. A number of other topics were also covered including structure and strategy. Several of the demographic questions included in the questionnaire (organisational age, size and income) have been used as variables by researchers examining structure (Amis and Slack 1996; Mintzberg 1979; Pugh 1973). In terms of strategy, the items of corporate/business strategy and HRM strategy were included in the questionnaire. These items have been used by Friedrich et al. (1998) and Gunnigle and Moore (1994) in research on strategic approaches to flexibility and HRM practices. Given that organisations containing volunteers were included in the exploratory sample and that numerous volunteering guidelines (The Volunteer Centre of NSW 1996; The Volunteer Centre UK 1990) have been developed to manage these unpaid workforces, volunteer policy was also included as a strategy item in the questionnaire.

The list of functional (job rotation, job enrichment, job enlargement), temporal (flexitime, zero hours contracts, variable hours contracts, shift work) and numerical flexibility (job sharing, fixed-term contracts) practices included in the questionnaire was sourced from flexibility research including Benson (1996) and

Reilly (1998; 2001). Respondents were asked to assess the applicability of nine flexibility practices to their paid and volunteer workforces using five-point Likert scales. The scale point anchors were labelled from 1 = never, through to 5 = always and also included a “not applicable” category. It should be noted that the wording of some of the practices was adjusted to assist understanding by the volunteer sample (for example, zero hours contracts was also labelled as zero hours work arrangements in order for volunteer co-ordinators to recognise that this was a pattern of working not merely associated with paid contract work). The same rating system was used for the items directly relating to HRM practices in the questionnaire. These six items were based on Guest’s (1987) framework for identifying areas of HR policy. Several researchers have examined these items in relation to volunteer settings. For example, the importance of job descriptions (Tyzack 1996) and training (Deery and Jago 2001) in terms of recruiting and retaining volunteers, has been recognised. The areas of communication and recruitment systems, also included in Guest’s framework, were incorporated in the questionnaire. These items were assessed on a simple yes/no nominal scale. Volunteer research has been conducted relating to the recruitment items including word of mouth (Wandersman and Alderman 1993) and newspaper advertisements (Jago and Deery 1999). The exploratory profile aimed to supplement this existing research in terms of how these HR practices were used in the tourism and cultural sectors.

Questions relating to the organisational breakdown of paid staff (full-time, part-time) and volunteers (frequency of volunteering) were included in the questionnaire. Demographic questions relating to the respondent (role in organisation, gender, age, education) were also incorporated. A copy of the questionnaire is contained in Appendix A. Although the exploratory questionnaire was not formally pilot-tested, it was referred for comment to a selected number of volunteer managers and market research specialists working within the tourism industry. The feedback suggested some minor revisions and these were made where appropriate.

6.3.2.3 Quantitative - Survey Administration and Response

As mentioned previously, the Stage One questionnaire was distributed to a convenience sample of museums, visitor information centres and visitor attractions in Victoria, New South Wales and the ACT. To minimise nonresponse error, the questionnaires that were distributed to volunteer co-ordinators and managers within these organisations, were sent together with a cover letter explaining the aims of the research and an incentive in the form of a chance to win a book voucher (to the value of \$150) for those responses received by the end of the survey period (22nd November 2002). Of the 611 questionnaires mailed in late October 2002, 181 responses were received by the end of the period for a response rate of 29.6%. After reviewing the responses and discarding the non-completed questionnaires, it was ascertained that a total of 167 usable questionnaires were received, a response rate of 27.3%. Whilst Zikmund (1997), citing Erdos (1970), noted that without further verification no mail survey can be considered reliable unless a minimum 50% response rate is obtained, Paxson (1995) has highlighted the trend towards the inevitable acceptance of low response rates. He pointed out that in a recent issue of a hospitality journal, response rates on a par with the Stage One questionnaire were common. Denison and Mishra (1995, p. 217) cited Henderson (1990) in noting, “a response rate of 20 to 30% is fairly typical for a mail-out survey to a large sample of firms”. In the context of the current relatively small-scale study, as the quantitative data was exploratory, the response rate was considered to be adequate.

The data from the questionnaires were entered into the statistical software package SPSS (Coakes 2001). After screening the data using the descriptives function, a number of questionnaires were found to contain missing data for certain variables. However, as the size of the Stage One sample was not overly large (n=167), the cases containing missing data were retained.

6.3.2.4 Data Analysis Techniques

A variety of analytical techniques were used to examine the exploratory data collected from Stage One of the study. It should be noted that at this stage, the analysis undertaken did not examine the research questions of the partnership model of convergent flexibility. Rather a more unstructured approach was taken to analysing the data using descriptives, significance tests, correlations, exploratory factor analysis and cluster analysis. These techniques were chosen based on the boundaries of questionnaire design and administration.

Descriptive analysis was used for data screening purposes as well as providing an initial snapshot of how flexibility and HR practices were applied to paid and unpaid workers. In relation to significance testing, group differences in the interval and nominal scaled data were analysed using *t* tests (independent samples) and Chi-square tests. This analysis was based around certain variables contained in the Stage One questionnaire that were considered to best reflect the organisational dynamics and working relationships of the organisations surveyed. Bivariate correlations using Pearson's product-moment correlation were also conducted to determine the extent of association between the interval scaled flexibility and HR variables.

Factor analysis has been described as a technique "often used to look for patterns in the way people respond to sets of questions", (de Vaus 2001, p. 199). In the context of current data, exploratory factor analysis was used to examine whether any underlying constructs existed that would justify grouping the nine flexibility variables contained in the Stage One questionnaire according to the recognised forms of functional, temporal and numerical flexibility. The extraction method of principal axis factoring (PAF) was used to conduct this analysis. It has been argued (de Vaus 2002) that when initially undertaking factor analysis for data reduction purposes, it is preferable to use principal components analysis (PCA). This latter approach differs from pure factor analysis in that "it essentially takes the data as given and attempts to determine the dimensions defining their total variance", (Dillon and Goldstein, p. 24). The researcher found, however, that PAF better highlighted those Stage One variables that were a poor fit with the analysis (items

with low communalities). As the variables to be analysed were not specifically designed to measure a single flexibility construct and there was no expectation that they would all be highly correlated with each other, an orthogonal (Varimax) rotation method was selected. The factor output was evaluated in terms of the accompanying correlation matrix and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling accuracy (the guidelines for interpretation of which are outlined in Table 6.1).

Table 6.1: Guidelines for Interpreting the Magnitude of KMO Values

KMO Value	Interpretation
0.90+	Marvellous
0.80-0.89	Meritorious
0.70-0.79	Middling
0.60-0.69	Mediocre
0.50-0.59	Miserable
Less than 0.50	Unacceptable

Source: Kaiser (1974) cited in de Vaus (2002, p. 137)

Cluster analysis is another exploratory technique for undertaking analysis of interdependence. Unlike factor analysis, however, this technique searches for the constructs underlying objects (Zikmund 1997). To illustrate the difference between methods in terms of the Stage One data, factor analysis was used to examine the properties of the flexibility variables, while cluster analysis (using the same variables) profiled the organisations surveyed. As an overview of the clustering process, this form of analysis endeavours “to form groups in such a way that objects in the same group are similar to each other, whereas objects in different groups are as dissimilar as possible”, (Kaufman and Rousseeuw 1990, p. 1). There are two broad approaches to clustering data: hierarchical and partitioning methods. Kaufman and Rousseeuw (1990) noted that the choice of clustering algorithm might depend on the type of data available and the purpose of the analysis. Arimond and Elfessi (2001) have suggested that the use of two-stage cluster analysis is becoming more widely adopted as an alternative to selecting between single approaches. This methodology employs a hierarchical method first, followed by a partitioning method. The authors noted, “it is the hierarchical process that forms the initial clusters. Then, the iterative partitioning process reassigns some

cases to different clusters by means of a series of separate (computer generated) “passes”. As it switches cases from one cluster to another (i.e., during each iteration cycle), it improves the homogeneity of all clusters. Thus, this two-stage method produces tighter clusters”, (p. 391). This approach also means that researchers need not specify the number of clusters in advance, a requirement of using partitioning methods in isolation. By using the differing perspectives of factor analysis and cluster analysis to group the Stage One data, it was hoped that any potential crossover in the patterns of flexibility usage could be assessed.

Prior to initiating the clustering process, the Stage One data was examined to determine if there were any outlying cases that would unduly affect the results of the analysis. Regression analysis was conducted to obtain an outcome on the Mahalanobis distance statistic. It has been noted that this statistic “identifies cases that have an unusual value on the independent variable”, (de Vaus 2002, p. 93). The statistic generated for each case was compared to the critical value of chi-square at an alpha level of .001. Those cases where the statistic exceeded the critical value were treated as outliers and dropped from the cluster analysis.

For the first stage of the clustering methodology, Ward’s agglomerative method of hierarchical clustering was used to combine the objects (organisations surveyed) into clusters based on the flexibility practices applied to paid staff and volunteers. Kaufman and Rousseeuw (1990) noted that this method was designed for use with interval scaled data and uses Euclidean distances to quantify the degree of dissimilarity between objects. A range of solutions was generated using this technique starting from two-cluster solutions through to six-cluster solutions. Frequency tables based on this output were created and then the descriptive statistics for each cluster contained in the five separate solutions (two-cluster, three-cluster, four-cluster, five-cluster, six-cluster) were analysed. The choice of appropriate cluster solution was based on this analysis and guidelines (including consistent interpretation, good separation amongst variables and acceptable cluster sizes) cited by Moscardo, Pearce, Morrison, Green and O’Leary (2000). Having determined the optimum number of clusters, these were then specified in the

second stage of the clustering methodology. This stage involved using the “widely applied” (Kaufman and Rousseeuw 1990, p. 113) partitioning method of K-means clustering. The resulting cluster output was again analysed in terms of interpretation and separation. For descriptive purposes, the solution was also evaluated in terms of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) output generated by the partitioning process.

6.3.2.5 Qualitative

The exploratory research incorporates a qualitative component to provide a more in-depth picture of the issues assessed in the Stage One questionnaire whilst contributing to the wider study. This component focuses on the perspectives of those who have the most direct and regular involvement in dealing with paid staff and volunteers, namely managers and volunteer co-ordinators. By targeting these particular individuals, the qualitative research provides practical insights into how volunteers contribute to organisations and interact with paid staff. These insights were gained from nine interviews conducted in late November 2002 with representatives from three museum/cultural institutions, two visitor information centres and four visitor attractions. The interview questions, based on material contained in the Stage One questionnaire and refined with input from the industry partners, are contained in Appendix B.

Following transcription of the interviews, a keyword search of the data was conducted using MS Office2000 Word software. An earlier summation of the responses into an Excel spreadsheet had aided identification of key themes. Respondent and question number initially identified each reference attributed to a particular theme. Anderson and Shaw (1999) noted the benefits of this analysis method (compared to other qualitative techniques) including reduced time spent on analysis and ease of accessibility for researchers. As a limitation, however, the authors go on to point out that this approach is “really only suited to small-scale research projects”, (p. 105). In the context of the current study, as the interview

data was exploratory and essentially meant to support the quantitative findings, the use of such an approach may be considered appropriate.

6.3.3 Stage Two

6.3.3.1 Data Collection Methods

As with the exploratory data, Stage Two of the study also employed a mixed-method approach to data collection. Expanding upon the findings of the initial round of research, Stage Two assessed how management, non-management employees and volunteers view the availability and value of flexibility practices. Incorporating all these perspectives into the examination of the partnership model effectively limited the number of organisations that could participate in data collection. The industry partners involved in the research (the National Museum of Australia and the Melbourne Museum) were chosen as the two sites for data collection. Apart from the support these museums had provided to the study, they both offered an interesting context for the research in terms of having comparable lifecycle status and dealing with similar types of operational issues. The selection of these organisations also ensured that the focus of the research remained on the cultural sector, enabling comparisons to be made with the exploratory findings.

Self-completion mail questionnaires and structured interviews were again selected as the methods of data collection. In terms of questionnaire delivery, this method was chosen to protect the anonymity of respondents and maximise response rates. The latter reason applies in particular to volunteers who, due to their less than regular work contact (compared to paid staff), may have experienced reduced access to the questionnaire if distributed by other means (for example, on-site by the researcher). At both organisations, the questionnaire was forwarded to all paid staff and volunteers (with some exceptions) via internal mail and external post respectively. All responses were sent directly to the researcher by way of a post-paid reply envelope. In relation to the supplementary qualitative data, the advice of the volunteer co-ordinators at both museums was used to source potential interviewees.

Prior to discussing the specifics of the Stage Two data collection at both research sites, a brief overview is provided of operations at the National Museum of Australia and the Melbourne Museum. This overview contextualises the external and internal elements of the partnership model in relation to certain aspects of the museum setting. Issues reviewed include visitation, operational budgets, museum design and content.

Research Sites

Within the wider context of attractions in Australia, both the National Museum of Australia (from here on referred to as NMA) and the Melbourne Museum (from here on referred to as MM) are prominent cultural attractions that exemplify the changing nature of museums in general. Trends such as an increasing emphasis on education and the incorporation of new technologies in delivering the museum experience (Trotter 1998) have been witnessed to varying degrees in both organisations. The day-to-day functions of the NMA and the MM are highly comparable. It should be noted, however, that the core mission of each institution does differ. The NMA was recently established as Australia's first dedicated social history museum. The MM, founded in central Melbourne (on Swanston Street) during the late 19th century, may be considered a more traditional type of museum in terms of content, showcasing Victoria's natural science, science, technology and social history collections.

Table 6.2 details some key facts relating to each museum. It can be seen that in terms of organisational lifecycle, both the MM and the NMA are now firmly established cultural institutions (each operating for approximately 3 years). In the case of the MM, this timeline is based on the opening date of the new purpose built museum in 2000. It might be expected, however, that various embedded factors (for example, organisational culture) from the old museum continue to influence the workings of its reengineered counterpart. Both museums are government run and funded (NMA by the Commonwealth government, MM by the statutory body

responsible for Victoria's museums, Museum Victoria) and have comparable policy frameworks. Reflective of its size as the largest museum complex in the Southern Hemisphere (Museum Victoria 2001), however, the establishment cost of the redeveloped MM was almost double that of the NMA.

Table 6.2: Organisational Details - NMA and MM

Organisational Details	National Museum of Australia	Melbourne Museum
Location	Acton Peninsula, Canberra	Carlton Gardens, Melbourne
Opening date	11 March 2001	21 st October 2000 (in present location)
Cost	\$155 million	\$290 million
Size	6,600 sq metres (exhibition space)	80,000 sq metres
Legislative Framework	Includes: National Museum of Australia Act 1980	Includes: Museums Act 1983
Policy Framework	Includes: Strategic Plan 2002-2007 (currently being updated in 2004) National Museum of Australia (Productivity and Performance) Workplace Agreement 2002-2005 Volunteers Policy	Includes: Strategic Plan (2003-2007) Museum Victoria Enterprise Partnership Agreement 2002-2004 Volunteers Service Policy

The visitation and work patterns of both organisations are outlined in Table 6.3. Since commencing operations in early 2001, the Commonwealth government has maintained a policy of free admission to the NMA's permanent exhibitions. At the MM, some initial delays in opening certain exhibition spaces meant that the museum charged a reduced admission fee of \$5.50 (adult) from October 2000 to March 2001. After prices remained static throughout 2002, they were reduced in May 2003 (\$6 for adults and free for children and concession holders) to counter the effects of reduced visitation (approximately 157,000 fewer visitors were recorded in the twelve months to June 2002). Apart from the MM's high admission charges (prior to the reduction), competition in the form of the Ian Potter Centre (National Gallery of Victoria) and the Australian Centre for the Moving Image (both free to the public) at centrally located Federation Square was also making the

museum's task of attracting visitors to its outer CBD site increasingly difficult (Coslovich 2003; Kelly and Rose 2003). While the short term outcome of MM's new pricing structure on visitation has been extremely positive, its full effect will not be assessed until the end of the 2003/04 financial year. It should be noted that despite the NMA's free admission policy, it has also experienced decreased visitation attributed to Canberra's bushfires and world events (terrorism, SARS) affecting tourism (National Museum of Australia 2003).

Table 6.3: Visitation and Work Patterns – NMA and MM

		NMA			MM	
	2000/01 (March-June 2001)	2001/02	2002/03	2000/01 (October 2000-June 2001)	2001/02	2002/03
Visitor Numbers	342,880	903,402	825,049	807,549	650,793	615,323
Admission Charges	Free	Free	Free	Prices charged from March 2001: \$15 (adult) \$8 (child) \$11 (concession)	\$15 (adult) \$8 (child) \$11 (concession)	Prices charged until 13 th May 2003: \$15 (adult) \$8 (child) \$11 (concession)
No. of Employees	96	138	199	311*	365*	354*
Ongoing	105	88	40	243*	172*	182*
Non-ongoing						
No. of Volunteers	84	103	100	350	320	305

*These figures should be used as an indicator only as they are the total employee numbers for Museum Victoria and therefore include staff from other MV campuses (Scienceworks, the Immigration Museum and the Moreland Collections Storage Facility) besides the Melbourne Museum. In the case of MV, the researcher has classified non-going employees as those staff with fixed term and casual employment status.

Source: Museum Victoria (2001; 2002; 2003) and National Museum of Australia (2001; 2002; 2003)

The capacity of the NMA and the MM to attract first time and repeat visitors, through the staging of permanent and temporary exhibitions, is greatly affected by the budget allocations that these organisations receive from government. In May 2002, it was announced that the NMA would be given an extra \$37.2 million of funding over 4 years (Verghis 2002). It was later revealed, however, that a government report had set the museum's operating budget at \$48 million and that the extra \$9 million to be allocated annually would still leave the NMA with a considerable funding shortfall (Sexton and McKinnon 2003). Despite charging

admission fees, the MM has experienced similar funding difficulties. In May 2002, the museum was allocated an extra \$4.3 million annually (for four years) for research, collections and exhibitions (Lindsay 2002). An overestimation of visitor numbers saw the museum facing a \$6 million deficit by June 2004 (Usher, Baker and Dubecki 2003). To counter this shortfall, Museum Victoria was allocated a further \$8.7 million for 2003-04 and \$7.2 million for the following three years (Safe 2003). This allocation funded the reduction in admission charges to the MM (Usher 2003).

The preceding discussion of budgetary constraints highlights the importance of volunteers to the ongoing operations of the NMA and the MM. In several instances volunteer labour is used to provide services (for example, guided tours) where funding for paid staff is not available. The scope of each museum's volunteer program can be assessed from its number of participants (see Table 6.3). The MM utilises the skills of a larger number of volunteers than the NMA, partly due to its operational size and partly due to its greater use of volunteers in behind-the-scenes areas (collections, research and administration). Its front-of-house volunteer roles include tour guide, school education volunteer and gallery explainer and exhibition volunteer (assisting staff in the provision of programs based in the galleries and exhibitions). The NMA program also includes behind-the-scenes volunteering opportunities, however, the majority of the museum's current volunteers assist in the schools programs and the public programs sections. The operation and maintenance of the Paddlesteamer *Enterprise* is another front-of-house activity to which a significant number of the NMA's volunteers devote their time. The NMA records its total volunteer contribution for the financial year ending June 2003 at approximately 3,000 hours (National Museum of Australia 2003). Over the same period, MM's volunteers dedicated an estimated 31,750 hours of their time to museum activities (Museum Victoria 2003).

Before outlining the administration of data collection at both sites, it is worth noting the considerable debate that the NMA and MM have sparked in terms of museum design and content. Both museums offer innovative building designs and

have received several architectural awards (NMA - Best New Public Building award at the Blueprint International Architecture Awards 2001, London, MM – Sir Zelman Cowan Award, Best Public Building Australia 2001, Royal Institute of Architects). Both have however been criticised. Controversy at the NMA ranges from the “borrowing” of certain design features from the Jewish Museum in Berlin (Duffy 2001) to more practical matters such as the orientation of its exhibitions. Morgan (2002) noted of the museum, “it can be hard to know where you are at a given moment and how to get to where you want to go, both in terms of your physical and intellectual exploration”, (p. 27). Comparing the design approaches of the NMA and the MM, the author suggests that the latter museum is more traditional incorporating separate gallery spaces leading into common thoroughfares. MM has not escaped criticism, however, with comment made in reference to empty exhibition spaces (Bolt 2003).

Content issues continue to be discussed, particularly in relation to the NMA. As a social history museum reliant not on a “textbook history” (Stephens 2001, p. 29) but rather the stories of ordinary Australian people, the issue of what narratives to tell has been hotly contested. It is beyond the scope of this thesis to do proper justice to this debate; however, some historians have questioned the NMA’s treatment of Aboriginal history and the white Australian story. One of the most prominent of these commentators has been Windschuttle (2001; 2002). He has suggested that the NMA demonstrates a lack of coherence, relies overly on oral evidence and makes a mockery of some of its exhibits on white culture while revering indigenous tales. In January 2003, the National Museum of Australia Council commissioned a review of its exhibitions and public programs. The findings of the four-member panel (headed by Latrobe University sociologist John Carroll) cleared the museum of any systematic political bias in presenting its exhibits but suggested that some elements of European settlement were omitted (Guerrera 2003) and a sense of narrative continuity was lacking (Shanahan 2003). A review in the year 2000 by historian Professor Graeme Davison similarly found the NMA’s exhibitions to be politically impartial. These concerns have not translated into visitor dissatisfaction with the featured exhibitions over time. On

the contrary, ongoing audience research has indicated high levels of satisfaction (National Museum of Australia 2003). Whilst the MM has not faced the same degree of scrutiny, comment has been made in relation to a lack of context (labels, explanatory notes) in the presentation of some of its exhibits (Szego 2001; Usher 2002). A criticism levelled at both museums relates to the incorporation of interactive technologies in the displays. Director of the South Australian Museum, Tim Flannery, has suggested that the increasing use of such technologies comes at the cost of museum research activities (Musa 2001).

The issues discussed in this section both directly and indirectly affect the working environment of paid staff and volunteers at the NMA and the MM. The Stage Two results and discussion chapters of this thesis will provide further insights into the operation of both museums, particularly in relation to flexible work practices.

6.3.3.2 Quantitative - Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire used for the quantitative component of Stage Two data collection expands upon the content of the Stage One instrument. While utilising similar themes such as respondent details, flexibility practices, HR practices and working relations, the Stage Two instrument has been adapted to suit the different working population (paid workers and volunteers, in place of whole organisations) from which the sample is drawn. Two highly similar versions of the questionnaire (paid worker version, volunteer version) were developed, with input from the industry partners. It was hoped that this approach would encapsulate the similarities and differences in how both groups view the research issues in a user-friendly manner (rather than having a larger combined instrument). At this stage, the primary focus of the research was to examine the research questions of the partnership model of convergent flexibility. The content of both versions of the questionnaire can therefore be detailed with reference to the model's various elements (see Figure 2). It should be noted that in terms of item generation, an approach used by Deery and Shaw (1997) was selected in that "where possible,

existing sets of questions were employed to enhance the reliability and validity of the variable”, (p. 382).

Organisational Dynamics – Strategy and Structure

To assess strategy as an “organisational dynamic” of the model, the strategy items that were included in the Stage One instrument were once again incorporated into both Stage Two versions. Unlike the simple yes/no scale used for the exploratory data, however, respondents were asked to assess on a 5-point Likert scale (very little, little, moderately, greatly, very greatly) how much these factors influenced their job/role. The dynamic of structure was rated using items derived from an existing questionnaire (Sashkin and Morris 1984, cited in Ivancevich and Matteson 1990, p. 460). Aligned with Burns and Stalker’s (1961) contingency theory, these items (10 in total, 3 of which are reverse scored) were designed to position organisations along an organic-mechanistic continuum. This dynamic was only assessed in the paid worker version of the questionnaire. It was considered that this group would be more aware of structural issues (compared to volunteers) due to regular work contact.

Organisational Dynamics – Culture

In order to undertake an assessment of organisational culture, permission was sought and granted (from Denison Consulting) to incorporate the Denison Organizational Culture Survey into both versions of the questionnaire. This instrument is based upon a significant body of research into culture by its co-author, Daniel Denison. In his early research, Denison (1990) asserted that culture influences organisational effectiveness in terms of four principles or hypotheses. These hypotheses relate to involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission. Denison (1990) contends that the degree of participation enjoyed by members of an organisation, having a “strong culture”, the capacity to adapt to both internal and external environments and a shared sense of purpose are the respective drivers behind these hypotheses influencing effectiveness. Testing this theory quantitatively, Denison (1990) employed items from the Survey of Organizations

(Taylor and Bowers 1972). In a later study, however, Denison and Mishra (1995) remarked that, “neither the survey instrument nor the traits operationalised were ideal for culture research”, (p. 207). In recognising such limitations, the authors developed their own questionnaire items to test the links between the four cultural traits and effectiveness. Each trait was assessed on the basis of only two items. While the traits demonstrated good reliability, Denison and Mishra (1995) suggested that “future quantitative research must concentrate on in-depth measures from a broad range of organisational members to provide a richer test of the model”, (p. 221). In a recent paper, Denison (2001) outlined an expanded version of the model and testing instrument (the Denison Organizational Culture Survey). Each of the four cultural traits (indexes) are broken down into three scales and separately assessed using five questionnaire items (60 in total, 8 of which are reverse scored). These scales are outlined and the rationale behind them described in Table 6.4. Reliability testing by Cho (2000) using a large sample has indicated that the 12 scales demonstrate high reliability (all with Cronbach alphas above 0.70).

In relation to the current study, this particular instrument was adopted for a number of reasons. Firstly, its recent development is in line with the latest efforts to incorporate more quantitative methodologies into culture research. Secondly, the model focuses on culture at the values level (Schein 1985) allowing for greater awareness of the concept. This may be said to be the case in comparison to other established measures such as the Organizational Culture Inventory (Cooke and Lafferty 1989) and the Norms Diagnostic Index (Allen and Dyer 1980) that assess culture at the more visible level of behavioural norms. At the same time, Denison (2001, p. 354) contends that the Denison Organizational Culture Survey enables “comparative generalisations” to be made across organisations. Thirdly, the adaptability hypothesis of the Denison model appears at face value to acknowledge the importance of organisations adopting more flexible operational methods. Incorporating the instrument into the second stage of the study enabled the researcher to assess any effects of this culture trait on flexible work practices in relation to the partnership model. Respondents were asked to rate the 60 culture

items using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, through to 5 = strongly agree) or the response category “unsure”. The addition of this category and some minor content changes were made to accommodate the volunteer sample. In line with Denison’s work on culture and effectiveness, the instrument also incorporates various performance measures (7 in total) and asks respondents to rate their organisation’s performance on these in relation to similar businesses. Five of these measures were included for assessment in the questionnaire version administered to paid staff.

Table 6.4: Culture Traits (Indexes) and Scales of the Denison Organizational Culture Survey

Involvement	Consistency
Empowerment – Individuals have authority to manage their work, creating a sense of ownership	Core Values – Shared values create a sense of identity
Team Orientation – Value is placed on working towards common goals using team effort	Agreement – Organisational members can reach agreement on critical issues
Capability Development – The organisation invests in skill development to meet business needs	Coordination & Integration – Various organisational units can work together to achieve common goals
Adaptability	Mission
Creating Change – The organisation is able to adapt its ways to meet changing needs and the environment	Strategic Direction and Intent – Clear strategic intentions indicating how everyone can contribute
Customer Focus – The organisation understands its customers and can anticipate their future needs	Goals and Objectives – Goals and objectives that when linked to strategy provide a clear work direction
Organisational Learning – How the organisation transforms external information into opportunities for innovation and learning	Vision – A shared vision for the future which provides guidance

Source: Denison (2001)

Flexibility Practices and HR Investment

Moving away from the organisational dynamics of the partnership model, we consider the extent of influence exerted by the HR department, line managers and volunteer co-ordinators in coordinating flexible work practices. This was determined by the amount of contact paid workers and volunteers had with each group. Once again, a 5-point Likert scale was used to evaluate this question. In relation to flexible work practices, both versions of the Stage Two questionnaire contained the items included in the Stage One instrument. Some additional

practices were incorporated such as voluntary reduced hours (both versions), part-time permanent work (paid staff version only) and casual work (paid staff version only). To assess the extent of intended flexibility practices (functional, temporal, numerical), as depicted in the partnership model, all practices were rated on a 5-point Likert scale in terms of their availability (1 = never, through to 5 = always). Measures to evaluate how much these practices were valued (1 = very little, through to 5 = very greatly) were also incorporated to assist in identifying the flexibility needs of paid workers and volunteers. This response format was also used to assess HR practices in both versions of the questionnaire (using the same items from the Stage One instrument).

Commitment

The partnership model proposes a continuum of worker commitment. To examine the concept, the well-established Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday et al. 1979) was used. Guest (1992) noted the dominance of this instrument in terms of commitment research (Benson 1998; Gallie et al. 2001; Lok and Crawford 1999; Martocchio 1994; Mowday 1981). The same author (Guest 1987) also notes that the attitudinal component of commitment, as measured by the instrument, may be more relevant to HR policy formation (compared to the behavioural component). The 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), assessed using a 7-point scale, has been found to be both reliable and valid (Mowday et al. 1979). In the context of the current study, a condensed 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, through to 5 = strongly agree) was used to rate these items (6 of which are reverse scored) in both versions of the Stage Two questionnaire.

Performance Outcomes – Turnover Cognitions

The performance outcomes constitute the final element of the partnership model. These outcomes were assessed in terms of the turnover cognitions and job satisfaction of respondents. The items used to rate turnover cognitions were those employed in a study by Bozeman and Perrewe (2001) examining the overlap

between the OCQ and turnover relationships. These 5 items were initially taken from or based on the work of Mowday, Koberg and MacArthur (1984) and Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth (1978). Bozeman and Perrewe (2001) highlighted the practice of deleting the reversed scored items of the OCQ in order to avoid construct overlap with turnover intention items. The authors noted that this practice was not based on empirical evidence and moreover they suggested “that no published work by Porter and his colleagues has ever identified which of the 15 OCQ items are linked to which of the three subdimensions of the OCQ”, (Bozeman and Perrewe 2001, p. 167), one of which relates to worker retention. Based on their findings, Bozeman and Perrewe (2001) recommended the use of a specific turnover scale (in lieu of the OCQ retention items) when researching the commitment link to turnover intentions (cognitions) and actual turnover behaviour. As the partnership model views turnover as a performance outcome and does not expressly examine these links, both versions of the Stage Two questionnaire contained the turnover cognitions items (assessed on a 5-point Likert scale) and the OCQ in full.

Performance Outcomes – Job Satisfaction

A 6-item instrument developed by Price and Mueller (1981; 1986) was used to assess the performance indicator of job satisfaction. This instrument has been employed in several fields of research that provide input into the partnership model. These areas include turnover and culture (Deery and Shaw 1997; Deery and Shaw 1999), organisational commitment (Iverson 1996) and research on the peripheral workforce (Deery and Jago 2002; Walsh and Deery 1997). In relation to the validity and reliability of the index, Price and Mueller (1986) reported that the items all loaded on a single factor and the index demonstrated high reliability (Cronbach alpha above 0.70). The satisfaction index was incorporated into both versions of the questionnaire and assessed on a 5-point Likert scale.

A summary of the existing measures incorporated into both versions of the Stage Two questionnaire is contained in Table 6.5.

Pilot Testing

The Stage Two quantitative data collection instrument was pilot tested at a newly established cultural institution in Melbourne. Both versions of the questionnaire were distributed together with a feedback sheet seeking comment in relation to the content and layout of the instrument. From a sample of 40 customer service officers, 15 responses (37.5%) were received to the paid worker version of the questionnaire. All the volunteers at the institution were sampled (90 in total) and 31 responses (34.4%) were received. Combined, the 46 responses received represented a response rate of 35.4%.

Table 6.5: Existing Measures Used in the Stage Two Questionnaire

Model Element	Instrument/index	Author(s)	Description	Studies Used
Structure (paid version only)		Sahkin and Morris (1984)	10 items (3 reverse scored)	
Culture	Denison Organizational Culture Survey	Denison and Neale	60 items (8 reverse scored) broken down into 4 culture traits (indexes), broken down into 3 scales (12 in total)	Cho (2000) Denison (2001)
Commitment	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire	Mowday et al. (1979)	15 items (6 reverse scored)	Benson (1998) Gallie et al. (2001) Lok and Crawford (1999) Martocchio (1994) Mowday (1981)
Turnover Intentions	Turnover Cognitions Items	Mowday et al. (1984) and Mobley et al. (1978)	5 items	Bozeman and Perrew (2001)
Job Satisfaction		Price and Mueller (1981; 1986)	6 items	Deery and Jago (2002) Deery and Shaw (1997)) Iverson (1996) Walsh and Deery (1997)

The data were entered into SPSS and descriptive analysis conducted for screening purposes. No major concerns were identified with any of the response categories used. However, taking into account some of the comments received, minor revisions were made to the Stage Two instrument where necessary. It should be noted that respondents raised the issue of questionnaire length with both versions being nine pages long. While attempts were made to minimise the size of the instrument (through having separate versions), certain important factors account for this length. These include the number of elements embodied in the partnership model and use of existing instruments recognised for their reliability and validity that often contain several items. Copies of the Stage Two questionnaire are contained in Appendix C (paid worker version) and Appendix D (volunteer version).

6.3.3.3 Quantitative - Survey Administration and Response

The extent of testing associated with the partnership model of convergent flexibility, together with time and cost considerations, limited the number of organisations that could potentially be involved in the second stage of data collection. Providing both financial and in-kind support as industry partners to the study, the National Museum of Australia (NMA) and the Melbourne Museum (MM) had a vested interest in its success and as such were selected as the research sites. This decision enabled a maintained focus on the cultural sector, allowing for comparative analysis with the exploratory findings.

In administering both versions of the Stage Two questionnaire, various sampling issues were considered. The objective of examining the explanatory value of the partnership model of convergent flexibility was linked to the interests of the industry partners in maximising feedback from their paid (management and non-management) staff and volunteers. Using previous response rates (from the Stage One questionnaire and pilot testing of the Stage Two instrument) as a guide (all approximately 30%) and based on the size of the Stage Two working population (a combined total of less than 1,000 paid staff and volunteers), indications were that if

a probability sampling technique was employed then the sample size would be significantly diminished. This would effectively negate the extent to which the Stage Two results could be generalised beyond the returned sample. Whilst the use of a non-probability sampling technique also negates statistical generalisation, the researcher considered the trade-off to be access to a far greater number of potential respondents. It should be noted that based on advice from the volunteer co-ordinators representing the industry partners, certain members of the NMA's and MM's paid staff were not sampled. Exclusions included the catering contractors at the NMA and members of the MM's corporate services section and various casuals (for instance, in operations and outreach programs) not directly working with volunteers.

The same techniques used in the earlier round of data collection were again employed to minimise nonresponse error in relation the Stage Two questionnaire. These included the use of a cover letter and the offer of an incentive (the chance to win a book voucher to the value of \$150). The questionnaires were distributed at the NMA during mid-May with the closing date for the incentive set at 30th May 2003. The questionnaires were distributed at the MM during early June with the closing date for the incentive set at 16th June 2003. Follow-up emails were sent out by the volunteer co-ordinators to provide a check on non-responders. Table 6.6 indicates that the response rates to both versions of the questionnaire (at each museum) were approximately 32%. These rates were comparable to those obtained from Stage One of the study. Data screening using SPSS (Coakes 2001) identified several cases containing missing data for certain variables. However, as was the case with the exploratory data, given the number of responses received (n=284), it was felt that deleting these cases would overly affect the size of the Stage Two sample.

Table 6.6: Stage Two – Questionnaire Response Rates

	NMA	MM	Total
Paid Staff Version			
Number Distributed	241	269	510
Number Returned	70	74	144
Response Rate	29.0%	27.5%	28.2%
Volunteer Version			
Number Distributed	90	290	380
Number Returned	36	104	140
Response Rate	40%	35.9%	36.8%
Both Versions			
Number Distributed	331	559	890
Number Returned	106	178	284
Response Rate	32.0%	31.8%	32.0%

6.3.3.4 Data Analysis Techniques

To research the partnership model of convergent flexibility, the same range of quantitative analysis techniques employed on the exploratory data were used. The additional technique of regression analysis was also used. The following overview details the specific analysis undertaken, grouping these efforts according to various sections.

- Section 1 - Descriptive Overview of Respondents
 - Descriptive Analysis (Frequency Tables, Measures of Central Tendency and Dispersion)
- Section 2 - Elements of the Partnership Model
 - Descriptive Analysis (Central Tendency and Dispersion)
 - Exploratory Factor Analysis
 - Bivariate Correlations
 - Scale Building
- Section 3 – Research Questions
 - Significance Testing (*t* tests)
 - Cluster Analysis
 - Descriptive Analysis (Central Tendency and Dispersion)
- Section 4 – Other Analysis
 - Significance Testing (*t* tests)
 - Regression Analysis

Section 1 & Section 2

Descriptive analysis was used to screen and profile responses to both versions (paid staff and volunteer) of the Stage Two questionnaire. In examining the various elements of the partnership model, exploratory factor analysis was used for scale building purposes to justify grouping variables according a common structure. As the Stage Two questionnaire, however, incorporated existing measures (see Chapter 6 – Table 2) to assess these elements, based on this prior theoretical knowledge, confirmatory factor analysis might be considered a more appropriate means of validating the measures. Coakes (2001, p. 156) noted that in general “factor analysis is robust to assumptions of normality”. Commenting, however, on the utilisation of maximum likelihood estimation in confirmatory factor analysis, Dillon and Goldstein (1984) contend that this form of analysis “is based firmly on the assumption that the variables have multivariate normal distributions”, (p. 101). As certain of the Stage Two variables under consideration for confirmatory analysis had skewed distributions, it was considered best to maintain a consistent methodological approach and use the exploratory technique on this data as well. The researcher also felt that as the literature review provided minimal examples of these measures being previously used in relation to volunteer research, this tentative application further justified the approach taken.

As a general rule, the Stage Two data was extracted using the methods of principal components analysis for data reduction purposes and principal axis factoring for testing a priori solutions (Dillon and Goldstein 1984; de Vaus 2002). As with the Stage One analysis, all factor solutions were evaluated in terms of communality statistics, correlation matrices and KMO measures. The focus on scale building, however, also meant that the techniques of reliability analysis and bivariate correlations (using Pearson’s product-moment correlation) were used to further check the content of the measures. As a result of this analysis process, scales were constructed to represent each element of the partnership model. Using the same approach employed by Mowday et al. (1982, p. 220) “to arrive at a summary indicator of employee commitment”, the items from each factor solution were

summed and then divided by the number of variables contained in the solution to create a new scale variable. By doing so, the new variable retained the distribution properties (in terms of minimum and maximum values) of the items comprising the factor solution. The mean output of the new variables (obtained from separate descriptive analysis, undertaken for data screening purposes) was checked to ensure that it matched the item mean statistics generated by reliability analysis, prior to recoding of the data.

Section 3

Various analysis techniques were employed to examine the series of research questions generated from the partnership model. These techniques are outlined below in relation to each research question.

Research Question 1

Significance testing was conducted to assess group differences using the individual convergent flexibility variables and the accompanying component solution. The interval scaled data were analysed using *t* tests (independent samples). Employing the same process (regression analysis, hierarchical clustering, descriptive analysis and K means clustering) as was used on the Stage One data, cluster analysis grouped paid staff and volunteers on the basis of the convergence variables.

Research Questions 2-7

Descriptive analysis was undertaken to provide a snapshot of the level of HR investment attributed to and the commitment of paid staff and volunteers based on the various forms (numerical, temporal, functional) of flexibility. Significance testing was conducted to assess group differences on the basis of these scale variables. The interval scaled data were analysed using *t* tests (independent samples).

Research Question 8 (See 7.3.1.5)

Significance testing was conducted to assess group differences using the equality variables (flexible work options and HR practices). The interval scaled data were analysed using *t* tests (independent samples).

Section 4

In addition to examining the research questions of the partnership model, extra analysis was undertaken to assess the full research potential of the Stage Two data. Significance testing was employed to assess group differences on the basis of various factors including demographics, work status (paid staff versus volunteer), flexibility practices and communication. The interval scaled data were analysed using *t* tests (independent samples).

Various elements of the partnership model were examined using stepwise regression analysis, in light of the parameters of the Stage Two data (lack of temporal ordering) precluding the use of causal analysis techniques. It was hoped that this analysis, representing the best prediction of a dependent variable from several independent (predictor) variables, would suggest future research directions in relation to the model. The choice of variables (dependent, independent) used in the analysis was determined based on the theoretical relationships of the partnership model. Instead of adopting the approach of entering all independent variables simultaneously, stepwise estimation was used to assess the contribution of separate predictor variables to the regression models generated. These models were subsequently assessed in terms of the assumptions underlying the use of regression (Coakes 2001).

6.3.3.5 Qualitative

To maintain a level of consistency in the data collected, structured interviews were again selected as the most appropriate technique for gathering qualitative data. Due to the changed working population of Stage Two of the study, the qualitative data collection was expanded to incorporate the views of management, non-

management employees and volunteers in relation to the availability and value of flexibility practices. Separate, but highly similar, sets of interview questions were developed for each group based on the Stage One interview questions (refer to Appendix E). Suggestions from each museum’s volunteer co-ordinator, as their organisations’ representative to the study, assisted in finalising the planned content of the interviews and sourcing potential interviewees. Data was collected at the NMA from 13th – 27th May 2003 and at the MM from 2nd – 15th June 2003. Each interview conducted lasted for approximately one hour. Table 6.7 outlines the number and type of interviews held at each museum.

Table 6.7: Stage Two – Number and Type of Interviews

Museum	Managers	Non-management Paid Staff	Volunteer Co-ordinators	Volunteers	Total
NMA Interviews	3	4	1	3	11
MM Interviews	5	2	1	3	11
Total	8	6	2	6	22

Like Stage One of the study, the qualitative data collected during Stage Two was intended to supplement its quantitative counterpart by offering more in-depth insights into the material covered. As such, despite the larger number of interviews conducted, the decision was made to process them in the same way as the exploratory data (transcription into Word software, summation into an Excel spreadsheet, keyword search, extraction of key themes).

6.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has examined how various aspects of the literature review contributed to the foundations of the partnership model of convergent flexibility (Lockstone et al. 2003). In building the model, specific elements were pulled together (organisational dynamics, HRM function, organisational flexibility, HR investment, worker commitment) to provide an integrated picture of how the partnership approach to flexibility can be applied to paid workers and volunteers. A series of research questions were generated for examining the model. The

methodological process involved in refining and testing the model was also explained.

As an overview of this process, the study adopts a two-stage methodology, with Stage One providing an exploratory snapshot of the prevalence of certain working practices in the tourism and cultural sectors. Input from this stage also served to suggest refinements to the partnership model, the testing of which is the focus of Stage Two of the study. Both rounds of data collection employed a mixed-method approach to data collection with self-completion mail-return questionnaires being used to collect quantitative data and structured interviews used in relation to the qualitative component. The design of these instruments (questionnaires and interview questions) addressed the main elements of the partnership model and they were refined based on input from the study's industry partners (the National Museum of Australia and the Melbourne Museum).

The quantitative and qualitative components of the research were administered to different working populations at each stage of the study. Stage One sampled volunteer co-ordinators and managers working in museums, visitor information centres and visitor attractions across Victoria, NSW and the ACT. In examining the partnership model, Stage Two sampled management, non-management paid staff and volunteers at a limited number of organisations (the NMA and the MM) for their perspectives on the value of flexible work options. Both research stages employed a similar range of techniques with which to analyse the quantitative and qualitative data.

The results of the data analysis are separately reported. Due to the exploratory nature of the data, Chapter 7 includes the Stage One results with some discussion of the issues arising out of the data. The results derived from examination of the partnership model are reported in Chapter 8, followed by a separate discussion chapter (Chapter 9) relating to this Stage Two data.

CHAPTER 7 – STAGE ONE – EXPLORATORY RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

7.1 Chapter Introduction

The exploratory results of Stage One of the study are based on a quantitative analysis of 167 completed questionnaires and a qualitative analysis of 9 structured interviews. The quantitative analysis provides an industry profile of the flexibility and HRM practices used, and working relations between paid staff and volunteers in the tourism and cultural sectors. This profile is firstly obtained from descriptive analysis (Section 1) and then further testing including significance testing, correlations, factor analysis and cluster analysis (Section 2). The qualitative analysis supplements these exploratory findings by adding depth to the topics covered in the Stage One questionnaire, while enabling the emergence of related and important themes.

To avoid the length of thesis becoming excessive, there is no separate discussion chapter dedicated to the exploratory results. Instead the Stage One findings are combined with discussion of selected issues (as the main focus of the research, the Stage Two results and discussion are separately reported).

7.2 Exploratory Data – Quantitative

7.2.1 Section 1 – Descriptive Analysis

Following the format set out in the Stage One questionnaire (see Appendix A), the descriptive results are outlined under the headings of organisational details, organisational flexibility, HRM practices and respondent details. A summary of these findings is provided at the end of this section.

7.2.1.1 Organisational Details

Table 7.1 outlines the results of the Stage One questionnaire in relation to organisational details. The exploratory results show that the majority of

respondents represented organisations with mixed workforces (68%), operating museums/galleries (62%) that were located in New South Wales (53%). The common age of the responding organisations was 21-50 years (43%) and just over one quarter (26%) indicated that their organisations' operational budget for 2001/02 was less than \$10,000.

Table 7.1: Stage One - Organisational Details

Demographic	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Workforce Type		
Mixed Workforce	113	68
Volunteer Workforce	46	28
Paid Workforce	8	5
Organisation Type		
Museum/Gallery	102	62
Visitor Information Centre	49	30
Visitor Attraction	13	8
Location		
Victoria	70	44
New South Wales	85	53
Australian Capital Territory	5	3
Operational Budget		
\$0-10,000	39	26
\$10,001-20,000	13	9
\$20,001-50,000	14	9
\$50,001-100,000	18	12
\$100,001-250,000	31	20
\$250,001-500,000	18	12
\$500,001-1,000,000	9	6
\$1 million+	10	7
Age of Organisation		
1-5 years	12	8
6-10 years	23	14
11-20 years	46	29
21-50 years	68	43
50+ years	11	7

The composition of the organisations surveyed in terms of work status and gender is outlined in Table 7.2. In relation to the size of the male volunteer workforce, the most common response (27%) of the organisations surveyed was 3-5 persons. Separately assessed, the size of the female volunteer workforce ranged between 6-20 persons for 50% of the responding organisations. A similar pattern of greater female participation can be evidenced in the total female (paid/unpaid) and total male (paid/unpaid) workforce data. In relation to the number of total paid workers, 3-5 persons was the most common response (31%), whereas the data indicated that

for total volunteers, *21-50 persons* was the most common response (32%). This later result mirrors the outcome in relation to the total workforce variable. Whilst direct comparisons cannot be made with the findings of the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2001b) museums survey, it is interesting to note that this publication highlighted the trend towards smaller museums being volunteer driven. Specifically, the survey of Australia's museums reported that the majority (58%) of them had no paid employment and used 49% of all volunteers, an average of twelve per museum.

Table 7.2: Stage One - Organisational Size

Number of workers:	1-2 Persons	3-5 Persons	6-10 Persons	11-20 Persons	21-50 Persons	51-100 Persons	100+ Persons	Total
Full-time Paid Male	35 75%	6 13%	3 6%	2 4%	1 2%			47 100%
Full-time Paid Female	54 64%	19 23%	11 13%					84 100%
Part-time Paid Male	32 70%	12 26%		2 4%				46 100%
Part-time Paid Female	52 55%	30 32%	8 8%	5 5%				95 100%
Volunteers – Male	24 19%	35 27%	34 26%	20 15%	15 12%	2 2%		130 100%
Volunteers – Female	14 10%	17 12%	35 25%	36 25%	32 22%	5 4%	4 3%	143 100%
Total Full-time Paid	49 53%	22 24%	15 16%	2 2%	3 3%	1 1%	1 1%	93 100%
Total Part-time Paid	51 48%	35 33%	13 12%	4 4%	2 2%		1 1%	106 100%
Total Paid Workers	33 28%	37 31%	25 21%	14 12%	6 5%	2 2%	1 1%	118 100%
Total Volunteers	8 5%	9 6%	24 15%	44 28%	50 32%	16 10%	6 4%	154 100%
Total Male Paid/Unpaid	20 14%	37 27%	38 27%	18 13%	22 16%	4 3%		140 100%
Total Female Paid/Unpaid	8 5%	21 14%	33 21%	46 30%	33 21%	9 6%	5 3%	156 100%
Total Workforce	3 2%	10 6%	18 11%	50 30%	56 34%	19 12%	9 6%	165 100%

In terms of turnover, Table 7.3 indicates some positive results for the retention of paid staff and volunteers. The common response to the number of total workers (paid and unpaid) that joined during 2001 was *6-10 persons* (21% of respondents). For the same period, the smaller number of *1-2 persons* was the common response (31%) to the number of workers that left the organisations surveyed.

Table 7.3: Stage One -Turnover

Number of workers:	0 Persons	1-2 Persons	3-5 Persons	6-10 Persons	11-20 Persons	21-50 Persons	50+ Persons	Total
Paid Workers	16	45	12	7	5			85
Joined in 2001	19%	53%	14%	8%	6%			100%
Volunteers	16	26	30	24	16	12	1	125
Joined in 2001	13%	21%	24%	19%	13%	10%	1%	100%
Total Workers	16	28	28	29	22	14	2	139
joined in 2001	12%	20%	20%	21%	16%	10%	1%	100%
Paid Workers	24	31	3					58
Left in 2001	41%	53%	5%					100%
Volunteers	27	29	24	12	5	1	1	99
Left in 2001	27%	29%	24%	12%	5%	1%	1%	100%
Total Workers	31	36	29	12	7	1	1	117
Left in 2001	27%	31%	25%	10%	6%	1%	1%	100%

The results contained in Table 7.4 indicate that, in general, for the organisations surveyed, volunteer numbers increased in line with length of service. For example, the common response (31%) to the number of volunteers who had served 1-2 years service was *1-2 persons*, the common response (33%) for volunteers that had served 3-5 years service was *3-5 persons* and the number of volunteers whose length of service was 6 or more years was *6-10 persons* (in 28% of respondent organisations).

Table 7.4: Stage One - Length of Volunteer Service

Number of workers:	1-2 Persons	3-5 Persons	6-10 Persons	11-20 Persons	21-50 Persons	50+ Persons	Total
Less Than 2 Months	30	17	4	2			53
	57%	32%	8%	4%			100%
2-6 Months Service	34	19	10	5	2		70
	49%	27%	14%	7%	3%		100%
7-11 Months Service	32	24	14	2	1		73
	44%	33%	19%	3%	1%		100%
1-2 Years Service	32	28	19	19	5	1	104
	31%	27%	18%	18%	5%	1%	100%
3-5 Years Service	25	37	27	13	8	1	111
	23%	33%	24%	12%	7%	1%	100%
6+ Years Service	13	25	35	32	15	5	125
	10%	20%	28%	26%	12%	4%	100%

Assessing the extent of paid and volunteer relations in the organisations surveyed, the results suggested that:

- The majority of respondents (56%) had *1-2 persons* as the number of paid staff working directly with volunteers on a daily basis.

- The majority of respondents (54%) had *1-2 persons* as the number of paid workers supervising volunteers in their organisation (apart from the respondent).

7.2.1.2 Organisational Flexibility

Tables 7.5 and 7.6 outline the results of the flexibility practices contained in the Stage One questionnaire as they apply to paid staff and volunteers. An exact comparison of these practices across the two workforces is not possible as each practice was measured on a 5-point Likert scale and varying numbers of valid responses were received for each variable. Undertaking an approximate comparison, however, the results indicate that the functional practices of job enrichment and job enlargement both have some degree of applicability to the work of paid staff and volunteers. Mean scores (above 3.00) for these practices revealed that the organisations surveyed *sometimes* use them on both workforces. For paid staff, job rotation and flexitime were examples of other practices used on a similar basis. For volunteers, zero hours contracts/arrangements were also *sometimes* applied. The majority of respondents indicated that the temporal flexibility practices of variable hours contracts/arrangements and shift working were *never* applied to their paid or unpaid workforces.

Table 7.5: Stage One - Flexibility Practices - Paid Staff

Flexibility Practices	Not Applicable	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Job Rotation	16	15 15%	19 19%	29 29%	22 22%	14 14%	99 100%	3.01	1.27
Job Enrichment	7	3 3%	15 14%	35 33%	38 36%	16 15%	107 100%	3.46	1.00
Job Enlargement	11	6 6%	8 8%	35 34%	40 39%	15 14%	104 100%	3.48	1.02
Fixed-term Contracts/Assignments	36	17 23%	22 30%	19 26%	10 14%	6 8%	74 100%	2.54	1.22
Flexitime	13	16 16%	12 12%	16 16%	28 28%	28 28%	100 100%	3.40	1.42
Zero Hours Arrangements	42	28 40%	12 17%	13 19%	11 16%	6 9%	70 100%	2.36	1.37
Variable Hours Arrangements	46	40 61%	10 15%	5 8%	5 8%	6 9%	66 100%	1.89#	1.35
Shift Work	52	30 55%	6 11%	7 13%	7 13%	5 9%	55 100%	2.11	1.42
Job-sharing	42	31 46%	6 9%	15 22%	10 15%	6 9%	68 100%	2.32	1.41

#Skewed Result

Table 7.6: Stage One - Flexibility Practices - Volunteers

Flexibility Practices	Not Applicable	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Job Rotation	26	19 16%	14 12%	46 39%	29 25%	10 9%	118 100%	2.97	1.17
Job Enrichment	17	8 6%	17 14%	49 39%	35 28%	16 13%	125 100%	3.27	1.06
Job Enlargement	22	9 8%	22 18%	47 39%	27 23%	15 13%	120 100%	3.14	1.09
Fixed-term Contracts/Assignments	67	26 36%	11 15%	19 27%	11 15%	5 7%	72 100%	2.42	1.31
Flexitime	64	25 34%	10 14%	6 8%	17 23%	16 22%	74 100%	2.85	1.61
Zero Hours Arrangements	57	20 25%	13 16%	14 17%	11 14%	23 28%	81 100%	3.05	1.56
Variable Hours Arrangements	74	41 68%	8 13%	3 5%	6 10%	2 3%	60 100%	1.67#	1.16
Shift Work	75	36 59%	6 10%	3 5%	6 10%	10 16%	61 100%	2.15	1.59
Job-sharing	63	25 34%	4 5%	14 19%	17 23%	14 19%	74 100%	2.88	1.55

#Skewed Result

On the question of the use of agency, contract or sub-contract workers, the majority of respondents (63%) indicated that their organisations *never* utilised these types of distance workers. The mean score on the 5-point Likert scale used for this data item was 1.60.

Volunteer Contribution

Table 7.7 illustrates that one quarter of the respondent organisations (26%) had *11-20 persons* (volunteers) working on a weekly basis. It was separately assessed that 26% of the organisations surveyed had *1-2 persons* working on a fortnightly basis. The common response (24%) in relation to monthly volunteer numbers was *6-10 persons*.

Table 7.7: Stage One - Weekly, Fortnightly and Monthly Volunteers

Number of workers:	1-2 Persons	3-5 Persons	6-10 Persons	11-20 Persons	21-50 Persons	51-100 Persons	100+ Persons	Total
Weekly	21 17%	27 21%	30 24%	33 26%	12 9%	4 3%		127 100%
Fortnightly	20 26%	18 24%	15 20%	13 17%	8 11%	1 1%	1 1%	76 100%
Monthly	19 18%	16 15%	26 24%	21 20%	20 19%	4 4%	1 1%	107 100%

The data suggested that for the majority of organisations surveyed, the minimum (56% of respondents) and average (59% of respondents) number of volunteer hours worked per week was 3-5 hours. Table 7.8 reveals that the common response (48%) to the maximum number of volunteer hours worked per week was 6-10 hours.

Table 7.8: Stage One - Volunteer Hours Each Week

Number of hours:	Zero Hours	Less Than or = 2 hours	3-5 Hours	6-10 Hours	11-20 Hours	21-35 Hours	36+Hours	Total
Minimum a Week	11 7%	41 28%	83 56%	10 7%	3 2%	1 1%		149 100%
Average a Week		17 12%	85 59%	34 23%	7 5%	2 1%		145 100%
Maximum a Week		5 3%	28 19%	70 48%	30 20%	10 7%	4 3%	147 100%

In order to ascertain the degree of flexibility in scheduling volunteer hours, respondents were asked to choose between the options of volunteer availability, volunteer co-ordinator/manager decisions or mutual agreement as the primary means upon which these decisions are based. The majority of respondents (52%) indicated that volunteer availability was the main factor driving the scheduling of volunteer hours for their organisations, followed by mutual agreement (40%).

Respondents that selected either of the latter two options (volunteer co-ordinator/manager decisions or mutual agreement) were asked to further specify how often particular volunteer work patterns were used in their organisations. Unfortunately, low response rates (partially due to questionnaire design) means that this data should be interpreted with caution. Of the work patterns examined, the majority of respondents (54%) indicated that they *always* have volunteer shifts of a set number of hours, arranged regularly. The mean score on the 5-point Likert scale used for this data item was 4.32 (this result was negatively skewed indicating a non-symmetrical distribution of the data towards the upper end of the scale).

Work Tasks

After reviewing the responses to an open-ended question asking paid staff and volunteers to list the tasks they most frequently perform, the responses were coded into one of sixteen categories as defined by the data. Tables 7.9 and 7.10 detail the top three responses to each task. There is little variation in relation to the tasks performed by paid staff with administration and clerical work being separately categorised as the first, second and third most frequently performed tasks in the organisations surveyed. For volunteer workers, however, one quarter of respondents (25%) indicated that information provision was the most frequently performed task (Task 1) of their volunteers. Next in order of importance, sales and bookings ranked highest on Task 2 (16%) and administration/clerical work highest on Task 3 (19%). These results would seem to indicate a greater degree of variability in the tasks performed by volunteers compared to paid workers.

Table 7.9: Stage One - Frequently Performed Paid Worker Tasks

Frequently Performed Tasks	Response 1	Response 2	Response 3	Total
Task 1	Administration/Clerical Work 39 35%	Day-to-day Coordinating/Supervising 24 22%	Information Provision 14 13%	111
Task 2	Administration/Clerical Work 27 24%	Day-to-day Coordinating/Supervising 19 17%	Information Provision 15 14%	111
Task 3	Administration/Clerical Work 22 21%	Day-to-day Coordinating/Supervising 18 17%	Sales/Bookings 17 16%	105

Table 7.10: Stage One - Frequently Performed Volunteer Tasks

Frequently Performed Tasks	Response 1	Response 2	Response 3	Total
Task 1	Information Provision 38 25%	Guiding Tours 30 20%	Customer Service/Reception/Security 29 19%	150
Task 2	Sales/Bookings 23 16%	Administration/Clerical work 22 15%	Information Provision 18 12%	147
Task 3	Administration/Clerical work 25 19%	Sales/Bookings 17 13%	Information Provision 12 9%	129

Attitudes

A series of attitude statements relating to paid staff and volunteer working relations were contained in Question 17 of the questionnaire. The mean scores indicated *neutral* responses to all items assessed on a 5-point Likert scale (see Table 7.11). The only exception was the finding that paid staff experienced more job responsibility than volunteer workers. The average score (mean = 3.84) reveals that respondents (volunteer co-ordinators/managers) *agree* with this statement. It should be noted that previous research by Pearce (1983) has reported that volunteers working in comparable organisations demonstrate greater social and service motivation than paid workers. The *neutral* result, produced from the rather generic assessment of motivation adopted in the Stage One questionnaire, prevented subtler differences in the motivations of both groups of workers from being extracted.

Table 7.11: Stage One - Attitudes

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total	M	SD
Paid workers have more responsibility	15 11%	13 9%	11 8%	42 30%	59 42%	140 100%	3.84	1.35
Volunteers have more work motivation	24 16%	53 36%	48 33%	13 9%	8 6%	146 100%	2.51	1.05
Volunteers are more difficult to manage than paid staff	24 16%	45 31%	26 18%	42 29%	9 6%	146 100%	2.77	1.21
Paid staff require less task direction than volunteers	13 9%	31 22%	33 23%	49 35%	15 11%	141 100%	3.16	1.16
Volunteers perform similar tasks to paid workers	22 15%	39 27%	27 19%	46 32%	12 8%	146 100%	2.91	1.23
Volunteers work on more routine/easier tasks than paid staff	12 8%	26 18%	24 17%	61 42%	22 15%	144 100%	3.38	1.19

7.2.1.3 Human Resource Management Practices

Tables 7.12 and 7.13 outline the exploratory results of the HRM practices as they apply to paid staff and volunteers. An exact comparison of these practices across the two workforces is not possible as each practice was measured on a 5-point Likert scale and varying numbers of valid responses were received for each variable. Undertaking an approximate comparison, however, the results indicated

that internal training and career planning were the only HRM practices offered at a comparatively similar level to both paid staff and volunteers. Respondents felt that internal training was *sometimes* applied to paid staff (mean = 3.46) and volunteers (mean = 3.34), whilst career planning was *rarely* offered (paid staff = 2.31, volunteers = 1.56). In general, respondents scored paid staff higher on all HR practices. The willingness of organisations to direct more HR investment towards paid workers may be indicative of the greater level of control they have over these workers (due to economic ties) compared to volunteers.

Table 7.12: Stage One - Human Resource Management Practices - Paid Staff

HR Practices	Not Applicable	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
External Training		5 4%	13 11%	51 44%	40 35%	6 5%	115 100%	3.25	.89
Internal Training	3	4 4%	17 15%	34 30%	37 33%	20 18%	112 100%	3.46	1.07
Career Planning	16	31 32%	23 24%	27 28%	11 12%	4 4%	96 100%	2.31	1.16
Performance Assessment	2	15 13%	11 10%	21 19%	33 30%	32 29%	112 100%	3.50	1.36
Job Descriptions	4	5 5%	10 9%	20 18%	15 14%	60 55%	110 100%	4.05	1.23
Complaint Handling Procedures	3	11 10%	11 10%	27 24%	26 23%	36 32%	111 100%	3.59	1.30

Table 7.13: Stage One - Human Resource Management Practices - Volunteers

HR Practices	Not Applicable	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
External Training	6	34 23%	43 30%	55 38%	11 8%	3 2%	146 100%	2.36	.99
Internal Training	4	10 7%	27 18%	44 30%	37 25%	30 20%	148 100%	3.34	1.19
Career Planning	46	68 67%	18 18%	10 10%	5 5%	1 1%	102 100%	1.56#	.93
Performance Assessment	30	55 46%	25 21%	22 18%	15 13%	3 3%	120 100%	2.05	1.17
Job Descriptions	29	30 25%	24 20%	22 19%	18 15%	25 21%	119 100%	2.87	1.48
Complaint Handling Procedures	26	21 17%	27 22%	30 24%	16 13%	30 24%	124 100%	3.06	1.42

#Skewed Result

From both the HRM and working relations perspectives, organisations were asked about their propensity to run joint activities between paid staff and volunteers. Of the organisations surveyed, 33% indicated that they *sometimes* conducted joint training sessions between paid and volunteer workers. 39% of respondents

separately revealed that their organisations *often* held joint social functions. This result is confirmed from the reverse perspective with 41% of the responding organisations *never* or *rarely* offering joint training sessions compared to only 8% of organisations being placed in these response categories in relation to joint social functions.

As outlined in Table 7.14, the majority of the organisations surveyed possessed a written corporate/business strategy (82%) and a written volunteer strategy (64%).

Table 7.14: Stage One - Strategy/Policy Items

	Yes	No	Total
Written Corporate/Business Strategy	128 82%	29 19%	157
Written HRM Strategy	73 48%	78 52%	151
Written Volunteer Strategy	96 64%	53 36%	149
Enterprise Bargaining Agreement	30 28%	76 72%	106

A range of communication methods was used. Assessed separately (using a yes/no format), the only methods not applied by the majority of organisations to their paid and volunteer workforces were opinion surveys and suggestion boxes. In relation to volunteer communication, Table 7.15 reveals that email was the only other method to be under-utilised (results indicating that only 27% of organisations employed this communication tool). Informal communication was the most popular communication method for use with both paid staff (97%) and volunteers (93%). Use of the following types of formal communication was found to be greater with volunteer workforces compared to paid workforces: opinion surveys, suggestion boxes, newsletters, letters and message books.

Table 7.15: Stage One - Communication Methods

	Paid Staff		Volunteers	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Team Briefings	103	92	92	68
Opinion Surveys	31	29	41	32
Suggestion Boxes	23	22	40	31
Newsletters	71	65	104	75
Notice Boards	80	74	93	71
Email	89	83	34	27
Letters	66	62	81	63
Message Books	62	55	89	65
Informal Communication	106	97	131	93

Table 7.16 indicates that the responding organisations relied heavily on formal avenues such as local/national media (92%) when recruiting paid staff. In comparison, however, a more informal approach to volunteer recruitment was taken with word of mouth dominating (used by 97% of the organisations surveyed). Unsolicited direct applications and employment agencies were the only methods to be respectively under-utilised in relation to paid staff and volunteer recruitment by the respondent organisations.

Table 7.16: Stage One - Recruitment Methods

	Paid Staff		Volunteers	
	N	%	N	%
Local/National Media	100	92	78	61
Word of Mouth	53	51	143	97
Unsolicited Direct Applications	21	21	92	73
Solicited Direct Applications	41	43	66	53
Employment Agencies	45	45	24	19

Organisations providing an overall assessment of the working relationship between their paid staff and volunteers on average rated the relationship as *good*. The mean score on the 5-point Likert scale used (no. of valid responses = 109) was 4.40.

7.2.1.4 Respondent Details

Table 7.17 indicates that 40% of Stage One respondents hold the role of supervisor/manager of paid and volunteer workers in the organisations surveyed. The majority of was female (68%) and was highly educated (66% possess or are undertaking tertiary studies – including post graduate). Combining response categories, 54% of respondents were 50 years or older.

Table 7.17: Stage One – Respondent Details

Demographic	N	%
Role		
Volunteer Co-ordinator/Manager Paid	32	20
Volunteer Co-ordinator/Manager Unpaid	37	23
Supervisor/Manager of Paid & Volunteer Workers	65	40
Supervisor/Manager of Paid Workers Only	8	5
Other	20	12
Gender		
Male	52	33
Female	108	68
Age		
18-29 Years	21	13
30-39 Years	33	21
40-49 Years	20	13
50-59 Years	43	27
60+ Years	43	27
Education		
Some Secondary School	13	8
Completed Matriculation/HSC/VCE	12	8
Completed/Studying at TAFE or Equivalent	25	16
Completed/Studying a Tertiary Diploma/Degree	55	34
Post Graduate	51	32
Other	4	3

Table 7.18 indicates that the common response (in 39% of responding organisations) to the number of paid staff being managed by respondents was 3-5 persons. 21-50 persons was the common response (33%) in relation to volunteer management. This figure was the same for total worker numbers (paid and unpaid) being managed by the respondents (in 33% of the organisations surveyed).

Table 7.18: Stage One - Number of Paid and Unpaid Workers Managed by Respondents

Number of Workers:	1-2 Persons	3-5 Persons	6-10 Persons	11-20 Persons	21-50 Persons	51-100 Persons	100+ Persons	Total
Paid Staff Managed	31 36%	34 39%	9 10%	8 9%	4 5%	1 1%		87 100%
Volunteers Managed	9 6%	9 6%	24 17%	36 25%	47 33%	15 10%	4 3%	144 100%
Total Staff Managed	5 3%	12 8%	17 11%	48 31%	50 33%	16 11%	5 3%	153 100%

Prior to examining findings from further analysis of the Stage One data, Table 7.19 provides a summary of some of the descriptive results that assist in profiling the responding organisations.

Table 7.19: Stage One – Descriptive Summary

In General	Mixed workforce (68%) Museum/gallery (62%) Located in NSW (53%) Established organisations (43% - 21-50 years)
Structure	Greater female participation (see Table 2) Greater volunteer participation (see Table 2) Greater number of volunteers managed by respondents (see Table 18)
Flexibility	Job enrichment – <i>sometimes</i> used (paid staff and volunteers) Job enlargement - <i>sometimes</i> used (paid staff and volunteers) Agency, contract or sub-contract workers – <i>never</i> used
Volunteer Contribution	Number of weekly volunteers – 11-20 persons (26%) Average number of volunteer hours per week – 3-5 hours (59%) Scheduling of volunteer hours based on volunteer availability (52%) Greater variability in tasks performed by volunteers (see Table 10)
HRM Practices	Internal training - <i>sometimes</i> used (paid staff and volunteers) Career planning – <i>rarely</i> offered (paid staff and volunteers) Joint training sessions – <i>never</i> or <i>rarely</i> offered (41%) Joint social functions – <i>never</i> or <i>rarely</i> offered (8%)
Strategy	Majority of organisations have a written corporate/business strategy Majority of organisations have a written volunteer policy
Communication	Informal communication dominated communication with paid staff and volunteers
Recruitment	Use of the formal avenue of local/national media dominated paid recruitment Use of the informal avenue of word of mouth dominated volunteer recruitment
Working Relations	On average, paid staff and volunteer relations were rated as <i>good</i>
Respondent Details	Supervisor/manager of paid and volunteer workers (40%) Majority of respondents were female Majority of respondents were 50+ years old Majority of respondents were highly educated (see Table 17)

7.2.2 Section 2 - Further Analysis

Various analytical methods were used to further examine the data collected from Stage One of the study. These methods included significance tests, correlations, factor analysis and cluster analysis (see Chapter 6 - Stage One - Data Analysis Techniques). As the Stage One data is exploratory, a freehand approach to its analysis was undertaken, unlike the more structured approach employed during the later research stage.

7.2.2.1 Significance Tests

Two variables were selected to be the focus of Stage One significance testing using *t* tests (independent samples) and Chi-square tests. The researcher considered that the variables of “overall opinion of paid worker and volunteer relations” and

“organisational budget”, most appropriately reflected the organisational dynamics and working relationships of the organisations surveyed. The results of the significance testing are detailed under these headings.

Overall Opinion of Paid and Volunteer Worker Relations

t Tests

To determine the extent of group differences in overall opinion using the interval scaled flexibility variables (Question 10) and human resource management variables (Question 18), these variables were recoded (from being scored on a 5-point Likert scale) into new variables and split according to the median score of each. The collapsed variables were then used as the grouping variables for comparing sample means of the dependent variable.

Table 7.20 contains the results of this analysis where significant differences were found in the dependent variable (overall opinion), equal variances assumed. The results revealed that organisations grouped above the median in providing job enlargement to paid staff demonstrated a higher mean score on the overall relationship variable. Organisations grouped below the median had a lower mean score on the overall relationship variable. The results indicated that this difference in the dependent variable was significant. The reverse outcome was true for the practice of shift work for paid workers. Organisations below the median demonstrated a higher mean score on the dependent variable. The provision of job descriptions to volunteers was the only HRM practice found to demonstrate a significant difference in terms of the overall relationship variable.

Table 7.20: Stage One - *t* Tests – Overall Opinion of Paid and Volunteer Worker Relations

Flexibility Practices		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
	Job Enlargement (Paid Staff)				
Overall Relationship	Below Median	4.33	.63	107	-2.03*
	Above Median	4.61#	.57		
	Shift Work (Paid Staff)				
Overall Relationship	Below Median	4.63	.49	106	2.16*
	Above Median	4.33	.65		
HRM Practices					
	Job Descriptions (Volunteers)				
Overall Relationship	Below Median	4.25	.68	107	-2.64*
	Above Median	4.55	.54		

* $p < .05$ #Skewed Result

Chi-square tests

For the Stage One questionnaire items with nominal properties (the strategy, communication and recruitment variables), the overall opinion variable was collapsed (split based on its median score of 4) and cross-tabulated with these items to determine whether differences between the observed and expected cell frequencies were statistically significant. As an outcome of this analysis, no statistically significant relationships were found between the cross-tabulated variables.

Organisational Budget

t Tests

The organisational budget variable contained in the Stage One questionnaire was recoded into the grouping variable in order to compare sample means. The variable was collapsed on the basis of the median score for the original grouped numerical variable (4 on a 8-point scale, variable label = \$50,001-100,000). The dependent variables analysed were the flexibility practices and HRM practices contained in the Stage One questionnaire.

Table 7.21 outlines the results of this analysis in which significant differences were found in the dependent variables, equal variances assumed. The results revealed that organisations grouped above the median according to organisational budget

demonstrated a lower mean score on the flexibility practice of job sharing for volunteers. Organisations grouped below the median had a higher mean score on this flexibility variable. This result indicates that of the organisations surveyed, the smaller ones (measured in terms of budget) were more likely to utilise job sharing in relation to their volunteer workers. Significant differences in the applicability of HR practices to paid staff (career planning) and volunteers (external training, internal training, performance assessment and job descriptions) were also found based on the grouping variable of organisational budget. It is worthwhile to note that the organisations categorised above the median in terms of budget demonstrated a greater investment in these HR practices than those grouped below the median. The exception, however, is the finding that external training for volunteers was applied more often in organisations with budgets estimated below \$100,000.

Table 7.21: Stage One – t Tests – Organisational Budget

		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
		Budget Below Median		Budget Above Median			
Flexibility Practices	Job Sharing (Volunteers)	3.23	1.48	2.47	1.56	72	2.13*
HRM Practices	External Training (Volunteers)	2.56	1.04	2.14	.88	144	2.61*
	Internal Training (Volunteers)	3.05	1.25	3.61	1.06	146	-2.94*
	Career Planning (Paid Staff)	1.77	.97	2.56	1.17	93	-3.25*
	Performance Assessment (Volunteers)	1.70#	1.15	2.33	1.12	118	-3.02*
	Job Descriptions (Volunteers)	2.48	1.54	3.16	1.38	117	-2.55*

* $p < .05$ #Skewed Result

Chi-square tests

The collapsed organisational budget variable was cross-tabulated with the strategy, communication and recruitment variables. The significant results of the Chi-square testing are contained in Table 7.22. The results conform to the recognised requirement that expected cell frequencies should have a value of at least 5.

Table 7.22: Stage One - Chi-square – Organisational Budget

Strategy Items		Budget		χ^2
		Below Median	Above Median	
Corporate/Business Strategy	Yes - Count	54	74	15.57***
	No - Count	24	5	
HRM Strategy	Yes - Count	25	48	11.25***
	No - Count	48	30	
Volunteer Strategy	Yes - Count	38	58	14.09***
	No - Count	38	15	
Enterprise Bargaining Agreement	Yes - Count	3	27	9.36*
	No - Count	31	45	
Communication Methods				
Team Briefings (Volunteers)	Yes - Count	37	55	5.34*
	No - Count	27	17	
Letters (Volunteers)	Yes - Count	30	51	6.64*
	No - Count	29	19	
Recruitment Methods				
Solicited Direct Applications (Volunteers)	Yes - Count	27	39	3.88*
	No - Count	34	24	

* $p < .05$ *** $p < .001$

Interpreting some selected results outlined in Table 7.22:

- ◆ Organisations both below and above the median in terms of organisational budget ($\$50,001-100,000$) prefer to have written corporate/business strategies.
- ◆ Larger organisations (those categorised above the median in terms of budget) show a preference for having a written human resource management strategy, while smaller organisations (those categorised below the median) demonstrate a preference towards not having a written human resource management strategy.
- ◆ Organisations categorised above the median in terms of organisational budget ($\$50,001-100,000$) show a marked preference for using letters to communicate with volunteers, while those below the median do not demonstrate a preference regarding the use of this formal communication method.

7.2.2.2 Correlations

To determine the degree of association between the flexibility practices and HRM practices offered to paid staff and volunteers, bivariate correlations were conducted using Pearson's product-moment correlation (Coakes 2001). To avoid the length of

thesis becoming excessive, only the results of correlations meeting certain guidelines are reported below:

- Shift working (paid workers) and shift working (volunteers) – $r = .788$
- Job sharing (paid workers) and job sharing (volunteers) – $r = .706$
- Flexitime (paid workers) and flexitime (volunteers) – $r = .626$
- Job enrichment (volunteers) and job enlargement (volunteers) – $r = .696$
- Job enrichment (paid workers) and job enlargement (paid workers) – $r = .637$
- Complaint handling (paid workers) and complaint handling (volunteers) – $r = .725$

Note. All coefficients are significant at $p < .01$.

Correlation coefficients ranging from 0.50 to 0.69 have been described as being ‘substantial to very strong’ and those ranging from 0.70 to 0.89 as ‘very strong’ (de Vaus 2002, p. 272). Based on these indicators, the above exploratory results reveal strong positive relationships between the flexibility variables analysed. This is to be expected as the results relate to the same practices (as applied to paid staff and volunteers) and similar concepts (for example, functional flexibility in terms of job enrichment and job enlargement).

7.2.2.3 Factor Analysis

The Stage One data were factor analysed to determine whether the practices comprising the various forms of flexibility (numerical, temporal, functional) were recognised and grouped together in the exploratory data. Analysis of the flexibility practices that were applied to volunteers produced a satisfactory two-factor solution. This solution excluded the variables of zero hours contracts/arrangements and flexitime as communality statistics indicated that these items were a poor fit with the other variables included in the analysis. In terms of evaluation, several correlations in excess of .3 were found in the matrix accompanying the solution indicating suitability for factor analysis (Coakes 2001). The KMO measure was .680, which on the basis of Kaiser’s (1974) guidelines can be interpreted as

‘mediocre’. Coakes (2001), however, suggested that “if the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure is greater than .6, then factorability is assumed”, (p. 156).

Table 7.23: Stage One - Exploratory Factor Analysis of Flexibility Practices for Volunteers

Factor Grouping of Practices	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Initial Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Factor 1 – Functional Flexibility		3.45	49.2	0.80
Job Enrichment	.856			
Job Rotation	.738			
Job Enlargement	.700			
Fixed-term Arrangements	.681			
Factor 2 – Temporal Flexibility		1.37	19.6	0.73
Job Sharing	.801			
Shift Work	.685			
Variable Hours Arrangements	.573			
Total Variance Explained			68.8	

Table 7.23 indicates that the two extracted factors, with eigenvalues greater than one, accounted for nearly 70% of the total variance explained. Both factors obtained scores above 0.70 on Cronbach’s alpha indicating that the set of items assigned to each were reliable (de Vaus 2002). The findings do appear to support the grouping of variables according to recognised forms of flexibility, especially in the case of functional and temporal work practices. All of the functional flexibility practices assessed in the Stage One questionnaire loaded on Factor One suggesting an integrated approach to this form of flexibility. The temporal flexibility practices (excluding the deleted variables) were grouped together on Factor Two. The analysis assigns the numerical flexibility practices of fixed-term contracts/arrangements and job sharing to separate factors, loading on Factor One and Factor Two respectively. In the case of job sharing, this practice has been aligned with numerical flexibility by several authors (Atkinson 1987; Brewster et al. 2000; Dyer 1998); however, it has also been associated with the temporal flexibility practice of part-time working (Reilly 1998; Reilly 2001). While part-time work was not examined in the Stage One questionnaire, Factor Two does appear to offer some support for linking job sharing with other internal

mechanisms (temporal flexibility practices) for adjusting volunteer labour to demand conditions (without altering worker numbers).

Unlike the volunteer analysis, a satisfactory response pattern was not obtained from factor analysing the flexibility practices of paid staff. Using the same methods (PAF extraction, Varimax rotation), a solution could not be extracted until previous rounds of analysis had identified the variables of fixed-term contracts/arrangements, shift work and flexitime as suitable for deletion (items with low communalities). The two-factor solution that was subsequently extracted was still deemed to be unsatisfactory based on the results of the correlation matrix and the KMO value of .526 (according to Kaiser's guidelines this solution rates as 'miserable'). Further exploratory factor analysis involving the flexibility practices of paid staff was abandoned.

7.2.2.4 Cluster Analysis

Seeking confirmation of the various forms of flexibility in the Stage One data, cluster analysis was employed, together with factor analysis, to determine whether there was any crossover in the patterns of flexibility usage as assessed by both techniques. A two-stage clustering approach (see Chapter 6 - Stage One - Data Analysis Techniques) was used to separately examine the flexibility practices of paid staff and volunteers. Prior to initiating this process, however, regression analysis was undertaken to generate output on the Mahalanobis distance statistic. The independent variables used in this instance were the nine flexibility practices as applied to both the paid and volunteer workforces. The dependent variable was "overall paid worker and volunteer relations". Evaluating each case on the basis of the distance statistic, it was found that none exceeded the critical value of chi-square at an alpha level of .001 (26.1245) for either the paid worker or volunteer data. Therefore no outliers were identified that could disproportionately influence the results of the cluster analysis. The regression analysis was subsequently re-run, however, after the variable of fixed-term contracts for paid staff was found to be a poor indicator of cluster membership during the partitioning process. Deleting this

variable, the critical value was recalculated to be 24.3219 ($p < .001$). Once again, the revised Mahalanobis distance statistic did not indicate any outlying cases; therefore the paid workforce data set remained intact.

After completing the first steps of the two-stage methodology (hierarchical clustering, generating frequency tables and descriptive statistics based on the cluster output), a four-cluster solution was chosen to classify the application (in the organisations surveyed) of flexibility practices to paid workers. In relation to the guidelines of Moscardo et al. (2000), the solution appeared to be acceptable in terms of interpretation and separation, however, small cluster sizes had the potential to limit the explanatory value of the final solution. The same analysis procedure produced a four-cluster solution that was deemed to be the best obtainable for the volunteer data. Excluding cases listwise, it included data on 36 organisations. Unfortunately, the clusters derived from this solution that were most favourable in terms of interpretation and separation also contained the smallest number of cases ($n=6$, $n=4$). As such, further clustering of the volunteer data did not proceed.

The four-cluster solution classifying the flexibility practices of paid workers was then analysed using K-means clustering. Excluding cases listwise, the final cluster solution contained 45 cases. In terms of interpretation and separation, and also the output from the ANOVA table, the solution was examined and found to be satisfactory. Table 7.24 outlines the mean scores generated by the final cluster solution (for ease of interpretation the highest mean score for each variable is highlighted).

Table 7.24: Stage One - Final Cluster Solution – Paid Staff – Mean Score Profiles

	Cluster 1 (n=20)	Cluster 2 (n=10)	Cluster 3 (n=12)	Cluster 4 (n=3)
Job Rotation	3.20	2.90	3.50	1.33
Job Enrichment	3.80	3.10	4.00	1.33
Job Enlargement	3.70	3.50	3.83	1.00
Flexitime	2.10	3.80	4.58	2.33
Zero Hours Contracts	1.80	3.80	1.42	1.00
Variable Hours Contracts	1.15	3.00	1.25	1.00
Shift Work	1.30	3.10	2.25	1.00
Job Sharing	1.15	2.90	3.17	1.00

 Highest Mean Score

The final cluster solution indicates that a prototypical case in Cluster 3 reflects an organisation that rates highly on the functional flexibility practices of job rotation, job enrichment and job enlargement for paid staff. Cluster 2 represents those organisations surveyed that rate highly on the temporal flexibility practices of zero hours contracts/arrangements, variable hours contracts/arrangements and shift work. Cluster 1 might be viewed from the perspective of those organisations adopting a “middle of the road” approach to flexibility. Compared to the other clusters, these organisations do not demonstrate a strong tendency either way towards the use or non-use of these practices. Interpreting the results of Cluster 4 may be imprudent due to the small number of cases contained in the cluster. Despite this consideration, the mean scores indicate low adoption by these organisations of nearly all the flexibility practices examined. This cluster output is graphically presented in Figure 7.1. Assessing the degree of dissimilarity between objects, the distance measures (generated by the K-means clustering method) indicate that Cluster 2 has the greatest dispersion of cases from its classified cluster centre. This cluster can therefore be interpreted as the least homogenous of the four-cluster solution for paid workers.

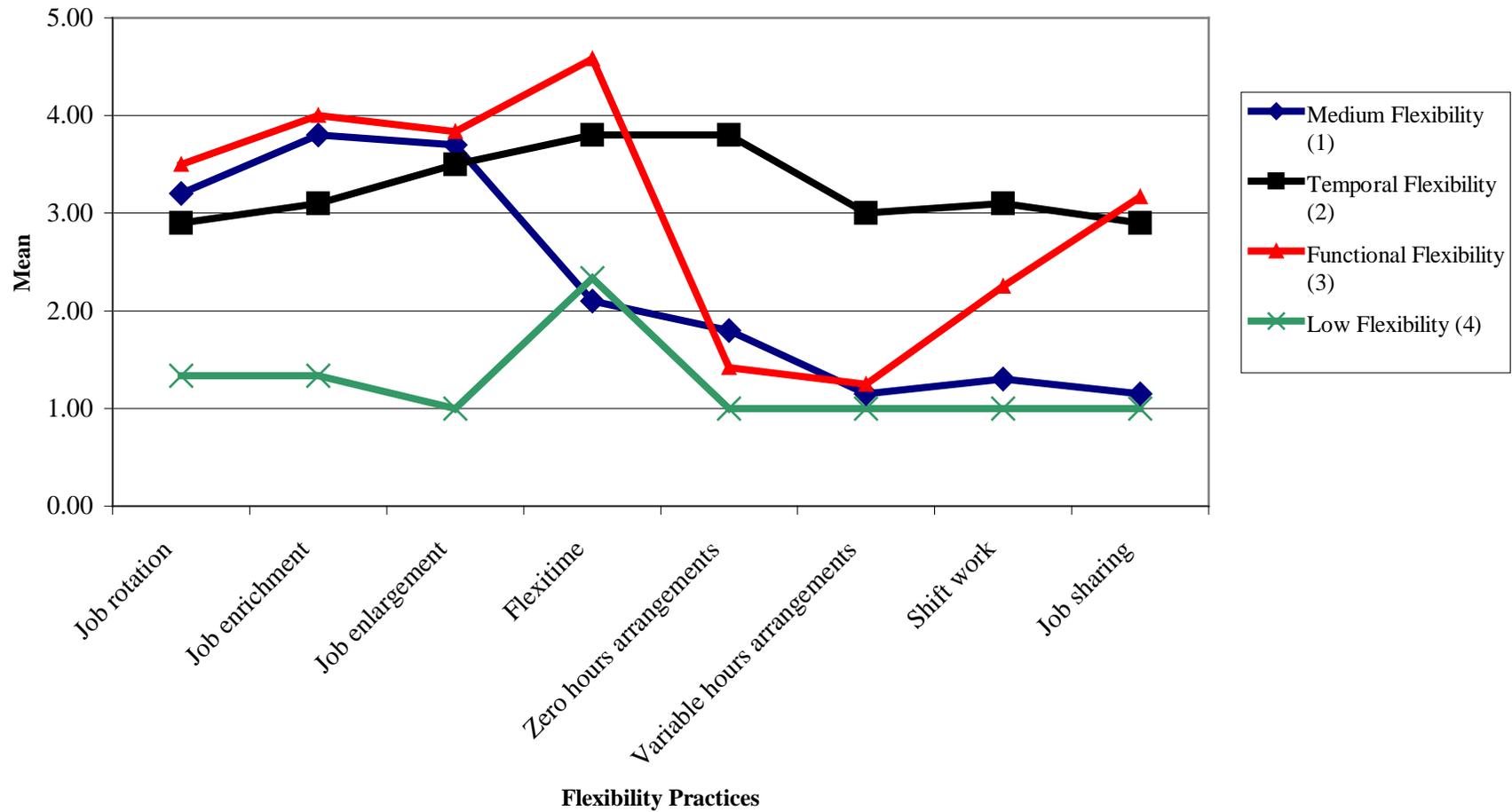
To provide a more complete profile of the organisations assigned to the various clusters in the final solution, Table 7.25 provides the results of descriptive using selected organisational variables. These variables include operational budget, organisational age and overall relationship between the paid and volunteer workforces. No inferences are drawn from this analysis due to the exploratory nature of the data collected.

Table 7.25: Stage One - Descriptive Profile of the Paid Final Cluster Solution

Clusters – Name & Number	Operational Budget	Organisational Age	Working Relations
Paid Worker Solution			
Medium Flexibility (1)	\$251,000-500,000	11-20 Years	Very Good
Temporal Flexibility (2)	\$100,000-250,000	11-20 Years	Good
Functional Flexibility (3)	\$251,000-500,000	11-20 Years	Good
Low Flexibility (4)	\$251,000-500,000	11-20 Years#	Very Good#

#Skewed Result

Figure 7.1: Stage One - Paid Flexibility Practices - Mean Score Profiles



7.3 Exploratory Data – Qualitative

7.3.1 Analysis of Results

Supplementing the insights gained from the quantitative data, several themes emerged from analysis of the qualitative data. Two of these related to flexibility issues, whilst the other topics appeared relevant to paid staff and volunteer relations. The themes include:

- ◆ The applicability of flexibility practices to tourism.
- ◆ The realities of flexibility practices for volunteers.
- ◆ The importance of clearly delineating between the roles of paid staff and volunteers.
- ◆ Equality of treatment for paid and volunteer workers.

To assist the reader in contextualising the Stage One findings, the citations supporting each theme are acknowledged in terms of the work role of the interviewee (manager, volunteer co-ordinator) and the type of organisation they represented (museum/cultural institution, visitor information centre, visitor attraction).

7.3.1.1 The Applicability of Flexibility Practices for the Tourism Sector

The research findings suggested that managers and volunteer co-ordinators perceived that flexible work practices were compatible with the demands of the tourism industry. In particular, shifts and flexible rostering were seen as beneficial, or potentially beneficial for participating organisations:

“We are a 7 day a week operation but obviously you can’t have everybody here 7 days a week, so there needs to be a lot of sharing of tasks and responsibilities and knowledge”. (*Manager, Visitor Information Centre*)

Research that has examined flexible work options within tourism and tourism-related organisations includes Guerrier and Lockwood's (1989) adaptation of the Flexible Firm model (Atkinson 1984) to the requirements of the hotel industry. Exploring the Australian perspective, Holloway and Davies (2001) used a qualitative methodology to study the range of flexibility arrangements that exist in South Australian tourism and hospitality organisations. Lowry (2001) concentrated on examining casual work within the registered club industry in New South Wales.

7.3.1.2 Flexibility Practices for Volunteers

Extending flexibility research beyond its traditional context of paid working environments, the implementation of flexibility practices for volunteers was discussed. Some co-ordinators and supervisors regarded job design or enrichment for volunteers as being impractical:

“We just don't have the time to, spend time creating different and exciting jobs for them”. (*Manager, Visitor Attraction*)

“We will always be trying to make things a little bit more fun for them, a little bit more interesting for them, so we will involve them to a certain degree in some tasks we're doing, but you have just got to be careful that not everybody is up to that”. (*Manager, Visitor Information Centre*)

“It's a little tricky providing them with tasks that would improve work quality because they're fairly restricted in what they do here, they don't undertake anything that would be normally done by a paid member of staff”. (*Volunteer Co-ordinator, Visitor Attraction*)

From the perspective of many of the managers and volunteer co-ordinators interviewed, devoting attention to coordinating such flexible arrangements for volunteers was viewed as being excessively time consuming. The interviewees also felt that volunteers were often incapable of undertaking certain tasks, whether due to the circumstances of their position (for example, an expectation to provide

product knowledge despite their much lesser involvement in work contact than paid staff) or otherwise. Such considerations may be viewed as limiting the applicability of the flexibility concept.

“Some of them are slower to learn than others so you know if, if we did push them more towards that it might not cater for them, they feel overwhelmed”. (*Volunteer Co-ordinator, Visitor Information Centre*)

“So you try not to put anyone out on a limb where they’ll be embarrassed or won’t enjoy themselves. Volunteers have got to enjoy themselves or else they stop doing it, and that’s the difference between paid workforce and volunteers, if they don’t enjoy it they’re not going to do it”. (*Volunteer Co-ordinator, Visitor Attraction*)

Some of the interviewees stated that volunteers were mainly interested in repeating the same or similar activities – the challenge of learning new skills was not appealing to them.

“Some people don’t want to be, I’ll admit that, I could pick out a, a fair percentage that are happy to just come in and do the same again and again”. (*Volunteer Co-ordinator, Visitor Attraction*)

7.3.1.3 Volunteer Flexibility Practices – The Good News

Despite some of the impracticalities raised about applying flexible work practices to volunteer workforces, respondents did acknowledge the value of adopting more functionally flexible approaches, as a means of maintaining volunteer interest and improving role-related knowledge.

“Well the biggest benefits are the, are the ones that are talking about enriching and enlarging their experience and that’s how you keep the

volunteer, that they're constantly interested in being challenged".
(*Volunteer Co-ordinator, Visitor Attraction*)

"In terms of most, you know the job enrichment, job enlargement, rotation, it's important that the volunteers are able to do a variety of work, get a variety of experiences, knowledge and they put all those sort of things to the position". (*Volunteer Co-ordinator, Museum/Cultural Institution*)

Other researchers that have recognised the benefits of flexibility practices for volunteers include Freeman (1997) and Wandersman and Alderman (1993). Increased capacity to volunteer and volunteer retention are some of the benefits cited by these authors.

7.3.1.4 Working Relations - Role Definition

The importance of role definition for both the paid staff and volunteers was a theme to emerge from the interview data. While it is important to acknowledge that paid staff and volunteers are working towards shared organisational goals (Brudney and Kellough 2000; McClam and Spicuzza 1988), some respondents highlighted the significance of maintaining a careful delineation of tasks in order to safeguard the contributions of both parties. Such delineations can assist organisations to conform with recommended volunteering guidelines, such as those developed by Volunteering Australia (Cordingley 2000). These guidelines stress that volunteer roles should not replace or threaten the work of paid staff. Potential role conflicts can contribute to stress (Zohar 1994) and when the roles of two groups are ill defined, conflict can result. For example, one co-ordinator stated:

"If their roles aren't really defined properly, then you can have the, you know, the conflicts, between, the volunteer not seeing the worth of the paid staff member, and vice versa". (*Volunteer Co-ordinator, Visitor Information Centre*)

The importance of role definition and clarity also arose in the context of the power inherent in or granted to either or both groups. Tensions may arise when it is unclear who is responsible for specific activities.

“There’s always some conflict in terms of and whether it be that level of responsibility we give people, and in terms of where we’ve got volunteers who have been here 10 years and we get new employees coming on board and its sought of like well, occasionally the volunteers will over step the mark in terms of what their roles and responsibilities are”. (*Volunteer Cordinator, Museum/Cultural Institution*)

The balance of power between paid staff and volunteers is an issue that has received attention from some researchers. Dunlop (1990), for example, argued that a staff-driven organisation has greater benefits than a volunteer-driven one; again the issue of clearly defined roles is an important mechanism for balancing the power of the two groups. Mausner (1988) argued that the ideal staff-volunteer relationship “can be best described as a ‘creative partnership’”, (p. 5). Social exchange theory supports the importance of trust and the sharing of power. Using a typology similar to Dunlop’s staff-driven or volunteer-driven organisations, Mausner suggested that the balance of power lies with those who “arrived” first and how well these people deal with the advent of the next group. Managers must be aware of the sensitivities of each group and provide training that recognises these dynamics.

7.3.1.5 Working Relations - Equality of Treatment

The need for equality of treatment towards volunteers and paid staff emerged strongly from the interviewees as an issue further affecting working relations between the two groups. In the context of organisational policies relating to volunteer participation, Brudney (1994, p. 283) noted that they “should be as comparable as possible to pertinent guidelines for employees”. The exploratory data provides a reminder of this stance suggesting that policies and procedures

(including those relating to flexibility practices) should provide an equitable base from which paid staff and volunteers can work together on an integrated basis.

“I’d like people to look at all our personnel as all part of the one organisation, they’re all part of the same team, whether they’re paid or not, there’s, our personnel are still meant to maintain a professional standard and interact with the public accordingly and, and there shouldn’t be any difference whether they’re an employee or an volunteer and that’s how we do the training as well”. (*Volunteer Coordinator, Museum/Cultural Institution*)

“I guess its bring, bringing every, everyone one more into line, treating them all equally, but then, like there, there still is, then still keeping the distinction between paid and volunteer staff”. (*Volunteer Co-ordinator, Visitor Information Centre*)

The difficulty of treating both groups equally while attempting to maintain the distinction between paid staff and volunteers emerged during the interviews. Some qualitative studies (Deery and Jago 2001; Jago and Deery 1999) have discussed various aspects of this issue, predominantly from the volunteer perspective. Considering the viewpoint of paid workers, interviewees raised some concerns that organisations may overlook paid staff in terms of rewards. Adopting a standpoint that wages are sufficient reward for paid workers, compared to the potential range of rewards offered to volunteers, may generate resentment that could ultimately affect relations between the two groups. A more holistic approach to the development of paid staff may be appropriate.

This issue is one to which further research, employing quantitative methodologies, might be beneficial. Such research could be incorporated in the context of the partnership model as it acknowledges the role of both paid staff and volunteers in achieving organisational performance outcomes. Adopting this suggestion, the

following relationship will be examined together with the other research questions (see Chapter 6) in the next chapter:

Research Question 8

Does a lesser difference between flexibility (numerical, temporal, functional) and HRM practices applied to paid and unpaid staff increase the probability of positive work outcomes between these human resources?

7.4 Chapter Summary

The exploratory data collected during Stage One of the study provides a valuable account of organisational work practices in the tourism and cultural sectors. The application of these practices to paid staff and volunteers was researched using a mixed-method approach. From the quantitative data collected, it was ascertained that the majority of respondents represented museums/galleries with mixed workforces. The average responses to the operational budget and total workforce variables indicated that the organisations surveyed might best be termed as being small to medium in size. In relation to flexible work options, the functional practices of job enrichment and job enlargement were both found to have a comparable degree of applicability to paid staff and volunteers. The HR practice of internal training was also offered at a comparatively similar level to both groups.

Beyond this descriptive profile, analysis using *t* Tests and Chi-square tests found significant differences in the HRM practices used and strategy items (using operational budget as the grouping variable) that exist in the respondent organisations. Using factor analysis, support was found for categorising flexibility practices according to the recognised forms of flexibility, in particular functional and temporal. Factor analysis of the volunteer flexibility practices resulted in the functional practices loading on Factor One and the temporal type practices loading on Factor Two. In general, the cluster analysis resulted in similar divisions of these practices for the paid staff solution, with only minor differences occurring.

The qualitative component of the mixed-method approach contributed four relevant themes to the exploratory data. Two of these themes focused upon flexibility issues (the applicability and realities of flexibility practices to tourism and volunteers), whilst the remaining two might be considered pertinent to maintaining positive working relations between staff and volunteers (role definition and equality of treatment). Embodied in Research Question 8, the latter theme will be quantitatively tested during Stage Two of the study.

CHAPTER 8 – STAGE TWO - RESULTS

8.1 Chapter Introduction

Continuing to build on the industry snapshot of flexibility provided by the exploratory data, Stage Two of the study utilised the same mixed-methodology approach to examine the research questions relating to the partnership model of convergent flexibility (Lockstone et al. 2003). This approach incorporated the quantitative analysis of 284 completed questionnaires and qualitative analysis of 22 structured interviews. In examining the partnership model, management, non-management paid staff and volunteers from a limited number of organisations (the NMA and the MM) were sampled for their perspectives on the availability and value of flexible work options. Unlike the exploratory data, results and discussion (Chapter 9) of the Stage Two data is reported separately.

8.2 Quantitative Data

Stage Two of the study utilised similar analysis techniques for examining the research questions of the partnership model to those employed on the exploratory data (see Chapter 6 - Stage Two - Data Analysis Techniques). The following list provides an overview of the analysis undertaken using specific variables, grouping these efforts according into four sections.

Section 1 - Descriptive Overview of Respondents

- ◆ Descriptive Analysis

Section 2 - Elements of the Partnership Model

- ◆ Descriptive Analysis
- ◆ Exploratory Factor Analysis
 - Strategy Variables
 - Structure Variables
 - Culture Variables
 - Flexibility Practices – Availability Variables

- Flexibility Practices – Value Variables
- Flexibility Practices – Convergence Variables
- Commitment Variables
- HRM Practices – Availability Variables
- Turnover Cognitions Variables
- Job Satisfaction Variables
- ♦ Bivariate Correlations
 - Strategy Variables
 - Structure Variables
 - Culture Variables
 - Organisational Dynamics
 - Flexibility Practices – Availability Variables
 - Flexibility Practices – Value Variables
 - Commitment Variables
 - HRM Practices – Availability Variables
 - Turnover Cognitions Variables
 - Job Satisfaction Variables
- ♦ Scale Building

Section 3 – Research Questions

Number 1

- ♦ Significance Testing
 - Flexibility Practices – Convergence Differences
- ♦ Cluster Analysis
 - Flexibility Practices – Convergence Variables

Numbers 2-7

- ♦ Descriptive Analysis

Number 8

- ♦ Significance Testing
 - Equality Differences

Section 4 – Other Analysis

- ♦ Significance Testing
 - Paid Staff and Volunteer Differences

- Gender Differences
 - Age Differences
 - Volunteer Frequency Differences
 - Flexibility Differences
 - Satisfaction with Flexibility and HRM Practices Differences
 - Communication Differences
- ◆ Multiple Regression

8.2.1 Section 1 - Descriptive Overview of Respondents

Descriptive analysis of the Stage Two data was undertaken for screening and profiling purposes. To enhance thesis readability, Section 1 provides a written overview of certain findings. The data tables from which the results were sourced are contained in Appendix G.

8.2.1.1 Paid Staff or Volunteer Status

A breakdown of respondents to the separate versions of the Stage Two questionnaire indicates a fairly even mix of paid and unpaid workers. The majority of the NMA's and the MM's respondents were paid staff (66%) and volunteers (58%) respectively.

8.2.1.2 Gender and Age

On the basis of gender, 69% of the combined sample was female. This outcome of greater female participation is mirrored in the breakdown across museums (NMA and MM) and across worker type (paid staff and volunteers). These results align with the gender patterns found in the exploratory data and a study of Scottish museum volunteers undertaken by Graham and Foley (1998). The only exception provided by the Stage Two findings is in the case of the NMA's volunteers. In this instance, males comprised the majority (61%) of respondents. In relation to the demographic of age, common responses indicated that paid staff at both the NMA (34%) and the MM (37%) were aged between 30-39 years old. In comparison,

however, the age of volunteers was commonly 60+ years at both the NMA (53%) and the MM (39%). Approaching this data from another perspective, the MM has a larger percentage of its volunteer respondents aged 18-29 years (30%) than the NMA (11%). Overall these findings suggest a more even spread of volunteer ages at the MM.

8.2.1.3 Education

Across all respondent categories (paid staff/volunteer, NMA/MM), “completed/studying for a tertiary degree/diploma” was the most common response given to the question of highest level of education achieved.

8.2.1.4 Tenure

Combining two response categories, the Stage Two data suggests that 50% of the NMA’s paid staff and 74% of the MM’s paid staff have been with their respective organisations for 3 or more years (see Appendix G - Tenure). No marked differences were depicted between the length of volunteer tenure at the NMA (38%) and the MM (36%) using the same combined categories (3-5 years, 6+ years).

8.2.1.5 Work Division/Section

Similarities can be noted between certain structural elements of the NMA and the MM. For example, a key area within both museums is the research and collections department. It should be noted, however, that as part of a larger organisation, Museum Victoria (MV), the operational structure of the MM is encompassed within a structural framework that also services other campuses (Scienceworks, Immigration Museum) of MV. At the NMA, 43% of paid respondents worked within the Operations section of the museum. This section comprises the areas of Facilities and Risk Management; Front-of-House, Volunteers and Reception; Media Operations; Exhibitions Management and Delivery; and Employee Relations and People Development. In contrast, the majority of volunteer

respondents (63%) worked within the Children's Programs and Content Services section that contains the Public Programs and Schools Programs areas. As detailed in Appendix G, 32% of the MM's paid respondents were employed within the Programs, Research and Collections area of the MV framework, whilst the majority (70%) of volunteer efforts were concentrated upon MM operations, specifically Education and Visitor Programs. A copy of the organisational structure of both museums (at the time of data collection) is contained in Appendix F.

8.2.1.6 Work Tasks

The Stage Two data showed variations in the tasks most commonly performed by paid staff and volunteers at the NMA and the MM (see Appendix G – Work Tasks). At the former museum, 40% of paid respondents indicated that managerial and administrative tasks comprised the main focus of their work activity. The comparable response at the MM was research, collection and conservation work, as indicated by 25% of respondents. The work focus of volunteers at the NMA most commonly related to education programs (43%), while 36% of the MM's volunteers suggested that security, guiding and front-of-house activities were the main type of work they participated in. In relation to the combined paid staff sample (NMA and MM), the most common response (29%) to the main type of work undertaken was managerial and administrative tasks. This result mirrors the Stage One data in which volunteer co-ordinators and managers (representing museums, visitor information centres and visitor attractions) listed this type of work amongst the tasks most frequently performed by paid staff.

8.2.1.7 Recruitment

The majority of paid workers at both the NMA (54%) and the MM (50%) were recruited by way of media advertisements or reports. The most common means of recruiting volunteers (to both museums) was direct approaches by the volunteers themselves. Comparing these findings (see Appendix G – Recruitment) with the industry profile gained from the exploratory research, paid recruitment followed a

similar pattern, however, volunteer recruitment did differ with word-of-mouth dominating the Stage One results.

8.2.1.8 Union Membership, Paid Work Status & Management Level

The majority (51%) of paid workers at the MM were union members, compared to 30% at the NMA. Work status also indicates a greater degree of work security at the MM with 95% of paid respondents employed in permanent (full-time, part-time) positions. This figure compares to 81% of paid respondents who have the same work status at the NMA. At both museums, the common response from paid respondents was that they currently had no management responsibilities.

8.2.1.9 Volunteering Frequency & Hours

The Stage Two data indicates that at both the NMA (44%) and the MM (42%) volunteers commonly worked on a weekly basis (see Appendix G). The NMA had a larger percentage of monthly volunteers (32%) compared to the MM, whereas the latter museum had a greater percentage of fortnightly volunteers (39%). Regardless of the basis (weekly, fortnightly, monthly) on which volunteers worked, the majority of respondents contributed 2-5 hours during that period. Further analysis revealed an exception to this finding, suggesting that 82% of the NMA's monthly volunteers normally worked 6-10 hours during that period.

8.2.1.10 Volunteer Work Status & Other Volunteering Activities

As indicated earlier (see 8.2.1.2), the NMA had a larger percentage of its volunteer respondents aged 60+ years (53%) than the MM (39%). This demographic is further reflected in the data on work status outside of volunteering. 53% of the NMA's respondents indicated their work status away from volunteering was that of "retired". In comparison, 35% of the MM's volunteers indicated that they enjoy the same status. Combining response categories, it was revealed that the majority of unpaid workers at both the NMA (58%) and the MM (54%) volunteered for at least one other organisation or more. Such figures highlight the importance of these

committed volunteers in terms of the potential reach their unpaid contributions can make.

8.2.1.11 Reasons for Working/Volunteering

After reviewing the responses to an open-ended question asking paid staff and volunteers to list their reasons for working at the museums, the responses were coded into one of thirteen categories as defined by the data. Appendix G contains a summary of the most common response to each reason. Comparing responses across the museums and by respondent type (paid staff, volunteer), it may be noted that there is minimal variation in response patterns with “personal/job satisfaction” being the most common reason given for working or volunteering at both the NMA and the MM. The full responses are outlined in Appendix H.

8.2.1.12 Performance

Paid respondents at the NMA rated performance measures (accompanying the Denison Organizational Culture Survey) more favourably than their counterparts at the MM. In combination, paid respondents rated their organisations’ performance (compared to similar organisations) as *good* on the indicators of “development of new products and services” and the “quality of goods and services”.

8.2.1.13 Contact

Comparing museum results in relation to contact with various organisational members; the Stage Two data (see Appendix G – Degree of Contact) indicates that the NMA’s respondents rated contact with all management levels and the HR department more highly than the MM’s respondents. In the latter organisation, however, the mean scores (averages) were higher for the variables of contact with non-management paid staff and contact with volunteers.

8.2.1.14 Satisfaction with Work/Volunteer Status, Flexible Work Options & HR Practices

Paid respondents from both the NMA and the MM rated their level of satisfaction with current work status as *good*. A pattern emerged in terms of satisfaction with flexible work options and HR practices. Volunteer respondents rated these variables more highly than paid staff, as did the MM's respondents (paid staff and volunteers) compared to their NMA counterparts.

8.2.1.15 Equal Availability of Flexibility & HR Practices to Paid Staff and Volunteers

Based on the mean scores, the Stage Two results revealed that all respondent groups (paid staff, volunteers, the NMA, the MM) supplied *neutral* responses relating to the degree that flexible work options and HR practices were made available equally to paid staff and volunteers.

The importance of making flexible work options and HR practices available equally to paid staff and volunteers was rated higher by paid respondents. Based on the mean scores obtained, these respondents also considered the conducting of joint training sessions and joint social functions to be more worthwhile than their volunteer counterparts.

8.2.1.16 Communication & Working Relations

Volunteer respondents more positively assessed the variables of “communication between volunteers and paid staff” and “working relations” than paid respondents. Examining the data from the perspective of the two museums, the MM was rated higher on these variables than the NMA. These results follow the same pattern to emerge from analysis of the satisfaction variables relating to flexible work options and HR practices (see 8.2.1.14). Overall, the Stage Two data suggests that *good* (mean = 3.85) working relations exist between paid staff and volunteers at both museums.

8.2.1.17 Descriptive Overview – Summary

Table 8.1 provides a summary of some of the descriptive results that assist in profiling paid staff and volunteers at the NMA and the MM. Once again, the data tables from which the results were sourced are contained in Appendix G.

Table 8.1: Stage Two - Section 1 - Descriptive Summary

Paid Staff or Volunteer Status	The majority of the NMA's respondents were paid staff The majority of the MM's respondents were volunteers
Gender & Age	Female respondents comprised 69% of the combined sample The age of volunteer respondents was commonly 60+ years old The age of paid respondents was commonly 30-39 years old
Education	Completed/studying for a tertiary degree/diploma was the most common response to highest level of education achieved
Tenure	Common response - 35% of paid respondents had 3-5 years tenure Common response - 34% of volunteer respondents had 1-2 years tenure
Work Tasks	Common response - 29% of paid respondents worked on managerial & administrative tasks Combined, the majority (58%) of volunteer respondents worked on education programs or security, guides, front-of-house activities
Recruitment	The majority of paid respondents were recruited by way of an advertisement or media report Common response – 44% of volunteer respondents approached the organisation themselves
Union Membership, Paid Work Status, Management Level	The majority of paid respondents were non-union members, employed on a full-time permanent basis with no management responsibilities
Volunteering Frequency & Hours	Volunteer respondents commonly worked on a weekly basis The majority of volunteer respondents worked 2-5 hours
Volunteer Work Status, Other Volunteering	Common response – 39% of volunteer respondents were retired Combining response categories, the majority of volunteer respondents worked on an unpaid basis for 1 or more organisations
Performance	Paid respondents rated as <i>good</i> the comparative performance of their organisations in terms of “quality of products or services” and “development of new goods and services”
Satisfaction with Work/Volunteer Status, Flexibility & HR Practices	Paid respondents indicated that they were <i>satisfied</i> with their current work status Volunteer respondents indicated that they were <i>satisfied</i> with their current frequency and hours of volunteering
Equal Availability of Flexibility & HR Practices	Paid and volunteer respondents separately rated as <i>neutral</i> the items assessing the degree to which flexibility and HR practices were made equally available to both groups
Communication & Working Relations	The combined responses indicate that communication between paid staff and volunteers was rated as <i>average</i> The combined responses indicate that working relations between paid staff and volunteers was rated as <i>good</i>

8.2.2 Section 2 – Elements of the Partnership Model

Prior to examining the research questions of the partnership model, the individual elements contributing to its whole were assessed. The measures employed for this purpose are outlined in Chapter 6 (Quantitative - Stage Two - Questionnaire Design). Each measure was screened using descriptive analysis; factor analysed to justify the inclusion of items and correlations conducted to determine the extent of association between variables. As a result of this analytical process, scales were constructed to represent each element of the partnership model. Section 2 details the findings of this process in terms of the organisational dynamics, flexibility practices, various continua and performance indicators of the partnership model.

8.2.2.1 Organisational Dynamic - Strategy

Table 8.2 indicates that in comparison to volunteer respondents, paid staff considered all aspects of strategy to have a greater effect on their jobs on a day-to-day basis. As might be expected, volunteer policy provides an exception to this pattern, with volunteers suggesting that this strategy item *greatly* (mean = 3.68) influences their role.

To create the strategy scale, principal axis factoring was used to reduce the Stage Two data. The item of “volunteer policy” was deleted from the factor solution as its inclusion downgraded the magnitude of the KMO value (.570) and reliability analysis including the variable produced a score on Cronbach’s alpha well below 0.7, the accepted standard for a reliable set of items (de Vaus 2002). The revised solution is outlined in Table 8.3. According to Kaiser’s (1974) guidelines, its KMO value of .648 means that the solution can be interpreted as ‘mediocre’. The alpha coefficient also indicates that the items contained in the set are reliable.

8.2.2.2 Organisational Dynamic - Structure

Paid respondents indicated in Table 8.5 that the structural characteristic of “clearly defined reporting relationships” described the NMA (mean = 4.21) and the MM

(mean = 4.14) to *a considerable extent*. The only other characteristic to obtain a similar score was that of “all decisions must be reviewed by senior management”. Ivancevich and Matteson (1990, p. 446) suggested that such an emphasis on “authority and accountability” is typical of a mechanistic organisational structure. In terms of the research setting, these results possibly reflect the fact that both museums are government institutions held publicly accountable for the activities they undertake and how their funding is administered.

The items Sashkin and Morris (1984) used to assess structure on an organic-mechanistic continuum were employed in the current context to create the structure scale. The hypothetical factor solution was examined using principal axis factoring. A single factor was extracted after several rounds of analysis (each deleting those items indicated to be a poor fit with the other variables). According to Kaiser’s (1974) guidelines, its KMO value of .764 means that the solution can be interpreted as ‘middling’. As depicted in Table 8.6, the alpha coefficient also indicates that the items contained in the set are reliable. In terms of content, all the items (except item 2) have been aligned with the mechanistic characteristics of organisational structure (Ivancevich and Matteson 1990). The factor was consequently named “mechanistic structure”.

8.2.2.3 Organisational Dynamic – Culture

The 4 culture indexes and 12 scales comprising the Denison Organizational Culture Survey were analysed using principal axis factoring. Firstly, the individual scales were examined. Single factor solutions were extracted for each; however, variables from 7 of the scales were deleted based on the relevant communality statistics. Analysis of the cultural indexes (excluding these deleted variables) also produced 4 separate single factor solutions. Table 8.8 indicates that the items comprising the “creating change” solution accounted for the least amount of variance (53.5%) explained by any of the scale solutions. The solution best represented by the relevant scale items was the “customer focus” solution (total variance explained = 74%). Reliability testing reveals that the “strategic direction

and intent” scale was the most reliable ($\alpha = .87$). Table 8.9 details the KMO value of each solution and interprets this output according to Kaiser’s (1974) guidelines.

Table 8.10 details the results of descriptive analysis on the scales constructed to represent the cultural component of the partnership model. As can be seen from this table, the culture scale to attract the highest mean score was “capability development” (mean = 3.46). Denison (2001) suggested that this scale depicts the extent to which organisations are willing to invest in skill development to meet business needs (for further explanation see Chapter 6 – Table 6.1). In terms of reliability, the inter-items (comprising each index) and the 3 scales (comprising each index) were separately examined and the sets of items found to be highly reliable (all with Cronbach alphas above 0.80).

Organisational Dynamics – Measures of Association

To determine the extent of association between the organisational dynamics of the partnership model, Table 8.12 details the results of bivariate correlations that were conducted. It can be noted that the mechanistic structure scale correlated at a significant level with all of the indexes of the Denison Organizational Culture Survey. The strategy scale, however, failed to correlate at a significant level with both the structure and cultural variables.

Table 8.2: Stage Two - Influence of Strategy

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Very Little, 2 = Little, 3 = Moderately, 4 = Greatly, 5 = Very Greatly

	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Volunteers	Volunteers	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Corporate/business strategy	141	3.16	1.13	124	1.72	.96	265	2.49	1.27
HR strategy	137	2.69	1.13	123	2.14	1.16	260	2.43	1.18
Volunteer policy	138	2.25	1.24	134	3.68	1.19	272	2.95	1.41
Enterprise bargaining agreement	139	2.83	1.40	121	1.98	1.19	260	2.43	1.37

Table 8.3: Stage Two - Factor Analysis of Strategy Items

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Initial Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Factor 1		1.97	65.5	0.73
Corporate/business strategy	.635			
HR strategy	.880			
Enterprise bargaining agreement	.583			
Total Variance Explained			65.5	

Table 8.4: Stage Two - Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Strategy Items

	1	2	3
1 Corporate/business strategy	--		
2 HR strategy	.56	--	
3 Enterprise bargaining agreement	.37	.52	--

Note. All coefficients are significant at $p < .01$.

Table 8.5: Stage Two - Structural Characteristics

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Almost No Extent, 2 = A Slight Extent, 3 = A Moderate Extent, 4 = A Considerable Extent, 5 = A Very Great Extent

Paid Respondents - Structural Characteristics	NMA	NMA	NMA	MM	MM	MM	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Item 1 - Organisation has clear rules and regulations	70	3.26	1.02	71	3.23	.94	141	3.24	.98
Item 2 - Policies are reviewed by the people they affect	70	2.90	.97	71	3.13	1.21	141	3.01	1.10
Item 3 - A major concern is skills development (RS)	70	3.10	1.02	71	3.27	1.01	141	3.18	1.02
Item 4 - Reporting relationships are clearly defined	70	4.21	.85	71	4.14	.91	141	4.18	.88
Item 5 - Jobs are clearly defined	70	3.33	1.02	71	3.00	.97	141	3.16	1.00
Item 6 - Work groups are temporary (RS)	70	3.19	1.05	70	3.49	1.02	140	3.34	1.04
Item 7 - All decisions must be reviewed by senior management	69	3.61	.93	71	3.79	1.03	140	3.70	.98
Item 8 - Emphasis on adapting to environmental change (RS)	70	2.71	1.02	70	2.86	1.05	140	2.79	1.04
Item 9 - Jobs broken down into specialised, smaller tasks	69	2.84	1.02	71	2.94	1.11	140	2.89	1.06
Item 10 - Standard activities are covered by clearly outlined procedures	70	2.79	1.15	71	2.68	1.00	141	2.73	1.08

RS = Reverse scored

Table 8.6: Stage Two - Factor Analysis of Structure Items

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Initial Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Factor 1 – Mechanistic Structure		2.68	53.5	0.78
Item 1 - Organisation has clear rules and regulations	.630			
Item 2 - Policies are reviewed by the people they affect	.524			
Item 4 - Reporting relationships are clearly defined	.716			
Item 5 - Jobs are clearly defined	.689			
Item 10 - Standard activities are covered by clearly outlined procedures	.673			
Total Variance Explained			53.5	

Table 8.7: Stage Two - Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Structure Items

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Reporting relationships are clearly defined	--				
2 Jobs are clearly defined	.58	--			
3 Standard activities are covered by clearly outlined procedures	.41	.51	--		
4 Organisation has clear rules and regulations	.43	.34	.47	--	
5 Policies are reviewed by the people they affect	.38	.30	.33	.42	--

Note. All coefficients are significant at $p < .01$.

Table 8.8: Stage Two - Factor Analysis of Denison Organizational Culture Survey Items

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Total Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Empowerment Scale (Item 1 deleted)		2.34	58.4	0.76
Item 2 - Decisions are usually made at the level where the best information is available	.764			
Item 3 - Information is widely shared	.785			
Item 4 - Everyone believes that he or she can have a positive impact	.599			
Item 5 - Business planning is ongoing and everyone is involved in the process to some degree	.520			
Team Orientation Scale		3.09	61.7	0.84
Item 6 - Co-operation across different parts of the organisation is actively encouraged	.642			
Item 7 - People work like they are part of a team	.777			
Item 8 - Teamwork is used to get work done, rather than through a chain of command	.842			
Item 9 - Teams are the primary building blocks of the organisation	.657			
Item 10 - Work is organised so that each person can see how their role relates to goals	.689			
Capability Development Scale (Item 15 deleted)		2.34	58.6	0.76
Item 11 - Authority is delegated so that people can act on their own	.587			
Item 12 - The capability of people is constantly improving	.685			
Item 13 - There is continuous investment in skills of paid staff/volunteers	.680			
Item 14 - The capabilities of people are viewed as positively contributing to visitor experiences	.726			
Involvement Index (Empowerment, Team Orientation, Capability Development)		6.27	48.2	0.91
Core Values Scale (Items 17 & 19 deleted)		1.81	60.4	0.67
Item 16 - The leaders and managers "practice what they preach"	.567			
Item 18 - There is a clear and consistent set of values that influences organisational operations	.790			
Item 20 - There is an ethical code that guides behaviour and determines right from wrong	.563			
Agreement Scale (Item 22 deleted)		2.26	56.6	0.74
Item 21 - When disagreements occur, we work hard to achieve "win-win" solutions	.500			
Item 23 - It is easy to reach consensus, even on difficult issues	.761			
Item 24 - We often have trouble reaching agreement on key issues (Reverse Scored - RS)	.730			
Item 25 - There is clear agreement about the right and wrong way to do things	.602			
Coordination and Integration Scale		2.80	55.9	0.80
Item 26 - The approach to working is very consistent and predictable	.513			
Item 27 - People from different parts of the organisation share common perspective	.756			
Item 28 - It is easy to coordinate work projects across different parts of the organisation	.803			
Item 29 - Working with from another section is like working with another organisation (RS)	.542			
Item 30 - There is a good alignment of goals across the organisation and between the workers	.725			
Consistency Index (Core Values, Agreement, Coordination and Integration)		5.10	42.5	0.87

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Total Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Creating Change Scale		2.68	53.5	0.78
Item 31 - The way things are done is very flexible and easy to change	.677			
Item 32 - Management is responsive to external changes	.612			
Item 33 - New and improved ways to do work are continuously adopted	.760			
Item 34 - Attempts to create change usually meet with resistance (RS)	.521			
Item 35 - Different parts of the organisation often cooperate to create change	.662			
Customer Focus Scale (Items 38 & 40 deleted)		2.22	74.0	0.82
Item 36 - Customer comments and recommendations often lead to changes	.935			
Item 37 - Customer input directly influences decisions made	.828			
Item 39 - The interests of the customer often get ignored in organisational decisions (RS)	.591			
Organisational Learning Scale		2.68	53.6	0.78
Item 41 - Mistakes are viewed as opportunities to learn and improve	.686			
Item 42 - Innovation and risk taking are encouraged and rewarded	.704			
Item 43 - Lots of things get overlooked (Reverse Scored - RS)	.637			
Item 44 - Learning is an important objective in our day-to-day work	.673			
Item 45 - It is ensured all divisions of the organisation are informed of each others activities	.540			
Adaptability Index (Creating Change, Customer Focus, Organisational Learning)		5.35	41.1	0.88
Strategic Direction & Intent Scale		3.30	66.0	0.87
Item 46 - There is a long-term organisational purpose and direction	.807			
Item 47 - The strategic focus leads other organisations to change their operations	.602			
Item 48 - There is a clear mission that gives meaning and direction to our work	.841			
Item 49 - There is a clear strategy for the future	.877			
Item 50 - The strategic direction (of the organisation) is unclear to me (RS)	.656			
Goals & Objectives Scale (Item 53 deleted)		2.30	57.7	0.76
Item 51 - There is widespread agreement about goals	.697			
Item 52 - Leaders set goals that are ambitious, but realistic	.701			
Item 54 - Progress against our stated goals is continuously tracked	.581			
Item 55 - People undertaken what needs to be done for us to succeed in the long run	.663			
Vision (Item 60 deleted)		2.48	61.9	0.79
Item 56 - We have a shared vision of what the organisation will be like in the future	.827			
Item 57 - Leaders have a long-term viewpoint	.696			
Item 58 - Short-term thinking often comprises the long-term vision of the organisation (RS)	.636			
Item 59 - The organisational vision creates excitement and motivation for the workers	.648			
Mission Index (Strategic Direction & Intent, Goals & Objectives, Vision)		6.30	48.4	0.91

Table 8.9: Stage Two - Denison Organizational Culture Scales and Indexes - KMO Values of Factor Solutions

	KMO Value	Interpretation		KMO Value	Interpretation
Involvement Index	.914	Marvellous	Consistency Index	.862	Meritorious
Empowerment Scale	.758	Middling	Core Values Scale	.641	Mediocre
Team Orientation Scale	.844	Meritorious	Agreement Scale	.734	Middling
Capability Development Scale	.730	Middling	Coordination and Integration Scale	.815	Meritorious
Adaptability Index	.852	Meritorious	Mission Index	.904	Marvellous
Creating Change Scale	.806	Meritorious	Strategic Direction & Intent Scale	.852	Meritorious
Customer Focus Scale	.658	Mediocre	Goals & Objectives Scale	.755	Middling
Organisational Learning	.796	Meritorious	Vision Scale	.775	Middling

Note: For an explanation of Kaiser's (1974) guidelines see Chapter 6 (Stage One - Data Analysis Techniques).

Table 8.10: Stage Two - Denison Organizational Culture Scales and Indexes – Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Coefficients

Denison Organizational Culture Scales & Indexes	N	M	SD	α from Inter-items	α from Inter-items	α from 3 scales
Involvement Index					0.91	0.88
Empowerment Scale	200	3.12	.73	0.76		
Team Orientation Scale	205	3.44	.72	0.84		
Capability Development Scale	206	3.46#	.67	0.76		
Consistency Index					0.87	0.84
Core Values Scale	199	3.43	.71	0.67		
Agreement Scale	185	3.05	.63	0.74		
Coordination and Integration Scale	178	3.03	.70	0.80		
Adaptability Index					0.88	0.77
Creating Change Scale	174	3.05	.65	0.78		
Customer Focus Scale	177	3.17	.78	0.82		
Organisational Learning	176	3.07	.71	0.78		
Mission Index					0.91	0.86
Strategic Direction & Intent Scale	156	3.23	.73	0.87		
Goals & Objectives Scale	155	3.20	.65	0.76		
Vision Scale	174	3.02	.73	0.79		

RS = Reverse scored, #Skewed Result

Table 8.11: Stage Two - Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Denison Organizational Culture Scales

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Empowerment	--											
2 Team Orientation	.72**	--										
3 Capability Development	.68**	.70**	--									
4 Core Values	.65**	.63**	.64**	--								
5 Agreement	.71**	.71**	.58**	.63**	--							
6 Coordination and Integration	.64**	.69**	.57**	.58**	.70**	--						
7 Creating Change	.68**	.71**	.66**	.56**	.66**	.63**	--					
8 Customer Focus	.45**	.42**	.39**	.28**	.39**	.40**	.52**	--				
9 Organisational Learning	.68**	.73**	.68**	.62**	.69**	.75**	.66**	.47**	--			
10 Strategic Direction & Intent	.47**	.55**	.44**	.66*	.54**	.55**	.49**	.30**	.65**	--		
11 Goals & Objectives	.63**	.67**	.65**	.63**	.63**	.59**	.67**	.39**	.63**	.63**	--	
12 Vision	.70**	.68**	.68**	.65**	.64**	.69**	.70**	.46**	.71**	.67**	.77**	--

**p <.01.

Table 8.12: Stage Two - Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Organisational Dynamics

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Mechanistic Structure Scale	--					
2 Strategy Scale	.09	--				
3 Culture – Involvement Index	.33**	-.01	--			
4 Culture – Consistency Index	.53**	-.09	.83**	--		
5 Culture – Adaptability Index	.34**	-.08	.81**	.80**	--	
6 Culture – Mission Index	.46**	.02	.72**	.78**	.76**	--

**p <.01

8.2.2.4 Flexibility Practices

Available & Valued Flexibility Practices

Table 8.13 suggests that volunteer respondents rated most of the temporal work practices (zero hours arrangements, variable hours arrangements, shift work, voluntary reduced hours) higher in terms of availability than paid respondents. In comparison, the results indicate that paid staff had greater access to two of the three functional flexibility practices (job enlargement, job enrichment) that were assessed. This finding highlights the investment both museums have in retaining the skills of their paid staff. The combined results indicate that the highest mean score obtained by any of the variables related to the temporal practice of flexitime. Reflecting the fact that these provisions are incorporated into the workplace bargaining agreements of both the NMA and the MM, paid staff and volunteer respondents indicated that flexitime was *often* (mean = 3.77) made available to them.

In identifying the flexibility needs of paid staff and volunteers, the results of the value variables contained in Table 8.14 demonstrate a similar pattern to the availability data. Mean scores indicate that paid respondents value functional flexibility practices more than their volunteer counterparts. Likewise, nearly all of the temporal practices were more highly valued by volunteer respondents. While flexitime was again popular with paid respondents (mean = 4.23, *greatly* valued), voluntary reduced hours obtained the highest mean score (mean = 4.09, *greatly* valued) of the variables assessed by volunteers. Given the opportunity to expand upon their assessments of the value of flexible work options, respondents were able to list reasons why or why not these practices were valued. Appendix I contains a summary of positive and negative attributes assigned to each practice.

Convergence of Flexibility Practices

A key focus of Stage Two of the study was to assess the degree of convergent flexibility between available flexibility practices and the flexibility needs of paid

staff and volunteers. New variables were created for this purpose using the availability variables and the value variables to represent employee/volunteer flexibility needs (see Chapter 6 – Figure 2). Just as Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry (1990) calculated the difference between paired service expectations and perceptions in the context of the SERVQUAL instrument, for each flexibility practice a new convergence variable was computed as follows:

$$\text{Flexibility Practice (Convergence)} = \text{Availability Score} - \text{Value Score}$$

By subtracting the result obtained on the availability variable from the corresponding value variable (scored on separate 5-point Likert scale), the potential distribution of these convergence variables ranged from –4 through to 4. For example, the practice of job enrichment may have been scored as 1 (*never*) on the original 5-point Likert scale assessing its availability, while its value might have been rated as 5 (*very greatly*). Subtracting the matching variables, the convergence score is –4, representing a flexibility practice that is very much valued and yet unavailable to the respondent. For reasons of comparison, the new variables, each representing 9 points of potential convergence (-4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4), were also recoded on 5-point scales where:

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1 = -4, -3 | Very over valued, unavailable |
| 2 = -2, -1 | Over valued, unavailable |
| 3 = 0 | Convergence |
| 4 = 1, 2 | Under valued, available |
| 5 = 3, 4 | Very under valued, available |

Based on combined returns, Table 8.15 indicates that shift-working (mean = 3.04), fixed-term contracts/arrangements (mean = 2.99) and flexitime (mean = 2.93) were the practices to most closely converge in terms of availability and the value placed on them by paid staff and volunteers. For those practices assessed by both groups, mean scores also reveal that volunteer respondents rated all variables (with the

exception of job enlargement and fixed-term contracts/arrangements) higher than paid respondents.

Flexibility Practices - Exploratory Factor Analysis

For data reduction purposes, principal components analysis (see Chapter 6 - Stage One - Data Analysis Techniques) was used to determine whether the flexibility variables could be grouped according to a common structure. As with the Stage One data, prior to undertaking analysis there was no expectation that the variables would all be highly correlated, as they were not specifically designed to measure a single flexibility construct. The results outlined in Table 8.16 and 8.17 confirm this to be the case. In general, variables assessing the availability and value of functional flexibility practices fail to correlate at a significant level with the equivalent temporal and numerical variables. As such an orthogonal (Varimax) method was selected to rotate the Stage Two flexibility data.

Available Flexibility Practices

In relation to the availability analysis, an acceptable solution was obtained (KMO = .680) after deleting the variable of flexitime (which had the lowest communality score and loaded on two separate components of the rotated matrix). It should be noted, however, that while the resulting solution was based on analysis of total returns (n = 284), the inclusion of variables (part-time permanent work and casual work) assessed only in the paid staff questionnaire meant that excluding cases listwise, the solution was the same as if it had been based on the paid respondent data. (A separate solution excluding these variables was generated but disregarded as it demonstrated a reduction in the KMO value and the reliability coefficient).

Table 8.18 indicates that the three extracted components accounted for nearly 70% of the total variance explained. As with the Stage One analysis, the findings partially support the grouping of variables according to the recognised forms of functional, temporal and numerical flexibility. For example, the functional practices of job enlargement and job enrichment loaded together on Component 3.

As these practices denote an investment in worker development, the component was labelled “most secure”. The remaining two components represent a mix of flexibility forms. Defined by the respondent perspective, these components also appeared to represent differing levels of security. As might be expected, the numerical practices of casual work and fixed-term contracts/arrangements loaded on the component representing the “least secure” work options. Job rotation also loaded on Component 1. This finding possibly suggests that shifting between jobs or departments, a requirement of this functional practice, was not associated with skill development but rather viewed by respondents in terms of reduced status in the one role. Reilly (1998, p. 11) noted that zero hours contracts represented an “unstructured” form of flexibility. The similar practice of variable hours contracts/arrangements may also be viewed in this light. Considering the degree of uncertainty involved with these temporal practices (in relation to number of hours worked and the scheduling of them), it is perhaps not surprising that they also loaded on Component 1.

The available flexibility practices comprising Component 2 may be interpreted as being “moderately secure”. A comparison can be made between the content of this component and a factor extracted from the Stage One analysis of volunteer flexibility practices (see Chapter 7 – Factor Analysis). In both cases, the numerical practice of job sharing was linked with temporal flexibility practices. While the specific practices contained in each solution do vary (it should be noted that part-time permanent work and voluntary reduced hours were not assessed in the Stage One questionnaire), this outcome provides further support for an association already identified in the relevant literature (Reilly 1998) and the exploratory data. The temporal practices contained in Component 2 have been recognised (Reilly 2001) as means by which workers can meet domestic responsibilities or other personal preferences. Component 2 may therefore also represent a more employee-driven approach to flexibility.

Valued Flexibility Practices

Accounting for approximately 70% of the variance explained, data reduction of the valued flexibility variables yielded a satisfactory three-component solution (see Table 8.19). Initial analysis identified the practices of permanent part-time work and job rotation to be a poor fit with the other flexibility variables. Their deletion from subsequent analysis resulted in a final solution assessed to be adequate in terms of sampling accuracy (KMO value = .739, Kaiser's interpretation = middling). Despite deletion of different variables, the available component solution and the valued component solution both group most of the flexibility practices according to the same underlying constructs (least secure, moderately secure, most secure). Bearing in mind this similarity of content, the researcher felt it unnecessary to repeat observations made in relation to the availability solution that had equal application to the value solution. As such, further explanation of the value solution is not provided.

Convergence of Flexibility Practices

As a composite of the availability and value data, it was to be expected that principal components analysis of the convergence flexibility variables would produce a similar solution to those outlined in Tables 8.18 and 8.19, demonstrating similar properties (KMO value, total variance explained). Indeed, Components 2 and 3 of the convergence solution (outlined in Table 8.20) contain the same variables found in the equivalent components of the availability solution. As with the value solution, in order to avoid repetition, a separate explanation of the convergence solution is not provided.

Table 8.13: Stage Two - Available Flexibility Practices

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = Always

Flexibility Practices - Availability	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Volunteers	Volunteers	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Job enlargement	132	3.46	.98	119	3.17	.99	251	3.32	.99
Job enrichment	133	3.23	1.01	111	2.95	1.03	244	3.10	1.03
Job rotation	124	2.29	1.16	107	2.90	1.21	231	2.57	1.22
Flexitime	126	3.97#	1.33	76	3.43	1.55	202	3.77	1.44
Zero hours contracts/arrangements	77	2.19	1.29	74	2.70	1.60	151	2.44	1.47
Variable hours contracts/arrangements	82	2.48	1.35	67	2.88	1.49	149	2.66	1.43
Shift-working	70	2.34	1.50	48	2.85	1.60	118	2.55	1.56
Job sharing	92	2.32	1.14	55	2.49	1.37	147	2.38	1.23
Voluntary reduced hours	98	2.76	1.23	82	3.80	1.38	180	3.23	1.40
Part-time permanent work (paid version only)	104	3.14	1.31				104	3.14	1.31
Casual work (paid version only)	88	2.65	1.43				88	2.65	1.43
Fixed-term contracts/arrangements	98	3.33	1.31	56	2.54	1.29	154	3.04	1.36

Table 8.14: Stage Two - Valued Flexibility Practices

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Very Little, 2 = Little, 3 = Some, 4 = Greatly, 5 = Very Greatly

Flexibility Practices - Value	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Volunteers	Volunteers	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Job enlargement	129	3.88	.91	119	3.70	1.00	248	3.79	.95
Job enrichment	131	4.05#	.87	107	3.64	1.00	238	3.87	.95
Job rotation	120	3.14	1.25	101	3.49	1.16	221	3.30	1.22
Flexitime	123	4.23#	1.10	75	3.44	1.38	198	3.93#	1.27
Zero hours contracts/arrangements	75	2.51	1.29	69	2.99	1.39	144	2.74	1.35
Variable hours contracts/arrangements	83	2.95	1.39	71	3.04	1.40	154	2.99	1.39
Shift-working	67	2.34	1.29	47	2.68	1.51	114	2.48	1.38
Job sharing	95	3.34	1.33	56	2.79	1.33	151	3.13	1.35
Voluntary reduced hours	99	3.65	1.23	80	4.09#	1.18	179	3.84	1.23
Part-time permanent work (paid version only)	104	3.99*	1.16				104	3.99#	1.16
Casual work (paid version only)	90	2.93	1.51				90	2.93	1.51
Fixed-term contracts/arrangements	97	3.13	1.34	61	2.90	1.49	158	3.04	1.40

#Skewed Result

Table 8.15: Stage Two - Flexibility Practices – Convergence

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where: **1** = -4, -3 (Very Over Valued, Unavailable) **2** = -2, -1 (Over Valued, Unavailable)
3 = 0 (Convergence) **4** = 1, 2 (Under Valued, Available) **5** = 3, 4 (Very Under Valued, Available)

Flexibility Practices - Convergence	Paid Staff			Volunteers			Combined Total		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Job enlargement	129	2.69	.81	118	2.59	.75	247	2.64	.78
Job enrichment	131	2.40	.74	107	2.54	.72	238	2.47	.73
Job rotation	117	2.48	.88	100	2.64	.79	217	2.55	.84
Flexitime	122	2.85	.80	72	3.07	.76	194	2.93	.80
Zero hours contracts/arrangements	71	2.82	.68	67	2.93	.96	138	2.87	.83
Variable hours contracts/arrangements	77	2.70	.69	65	2.94	.88	142	2.81	.79
Shift-working	63	2.98	.77	45	3.11	.80	108	3.04	.78
Job sharing	89	2.38	.75	52	2.77	.73	141	2.52	.76
Voluntary reduced hours	96	2.42	.78	80	2.80	.75	176	2.59	.79
Part-time permanent work (paid version only)	102	2.47	.77				102	2.47	.77
Casual work (paid version only)	86	2.84	.92				86	2.84	.92
Fixed-term contracts/arrangements	96	3.11	.88	54	2.76	.76	150	2.99	.86

Table 8.16: Stage Two - Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Available Flexibility Practices

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Job Enlargement	--											
2 Job Enrichment	.65**	--										
3 Job Rotation	.18**	.17**	--									
4 Flexitime	.24**	.25**	.10	--								
5 Zero hours contracts/arrangements	-.06	.04	.11	.09	--							
6 Variable hours contracts/arrangements	.03	.04	.27**	.36**	.51**	--						
7 Shift-working	-.20*	-.13	.28**	.05	.39**	.40**	--					
8 Job sharing	.07	.02	.34**	.21**	.18*	.24**	.36**	--				
9 Voluntary reduced hours	.11	-.02	.33**	.06	.21**	.22**	.41**	.45**	--			
10 Part-time permanent work	.04	-.10	.21*	.07	.25*	.36**	.31**	.44**	.58**	--		
11 Casual work	-.04	-.20*	.24*	.05	.40**	.50**	.32**	.20*	.36**	.50**	--	
12 Fixed-term contracts/arrangements	.18*	.08	.25**	.18*	.23**	.32**	.36**	.24**	.28**	.31**	.56**	--

*p <.05, **p <.01.

Table 8.17: Stage Two - Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Valued Flexibility Practices

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Job Enlargement	--											
2 Job Enrichment	.56**	--										
3 Job Rotation	.21**	.17**	--									
4 Flexitime	.30**	.30**	.06	--								
5 Zero hours contracts/arrangements	-.07	-.15*	.04	.05	--							
6 Variable hours contracts/arrangements	.08	-.02	.22**	.20*	.55**	--						
7 Shift-working	.02	-.05	.31**	-.03	.50**	.53**	--					
8 Job sharing	.10	.16*	.34**	.21**	.15	.26**	.32**	--				
9 Voluntary reduced hours	.06	.10	.21**	.21**	.31**	.35**	.32**	.50**	--			
10 Part-time permanent work	-.13	-.10	.17	.02	.19	.30**	.27*	.62**	.58**	--		
11 Casual work	-.01	-.06	.03	.10	.46**	.54**	.51**	.32**	.39**	.38**	--	
12 Fixed-term contracts/arrangements	.08	.14*	.15*	.13	.32**	.29**	.31**	.29**	.27**	.38**	.53**	--

*p <.05, **p <.01.

Table 8.18: Stage Two - Principal Components Analysis of Available Flexibility Practices

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Initial Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Component 1 – Flexibility Practices (Least Secure)		4.23	38.4	0.82
Job rotation	.595			
Zero hours contracts/arrangements	.778			
Variable hours contracts/arrangements	.740			
Shift-working	.690			
Casual work (paid version only)	.717			
Fixed-term contracts/arrangements	.776			
Component 2 – Flexibility Practices (Moderately Secure)		1.96	17.8	0.76
Job sharing	.901			
Voluntary reduced hours	.778			
Part-time permanent work (paid version only)	.678			
Component 3 – Flexibility Practices (Most Secure)		1.25	11.4	0.78
Job enlargement	.933			
Job enrichment	.953			
Total Variance Explained			67.6	

Table 8.19: Stage Two - Principal Components Analysis of Valued Flexibility Practices

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Initial Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Component 1 – Flexibility Practices (Least Secure)		3.84	38.4	0.86
Zero hours contracts/arrangements	.820			
Variable hours contracts/arrangements	.829			
Shift-working	.848			
Casual work (paid version only)	.758			
Fixed-term contracts/arrangements	.744			
Component 2 – Flexibility Practices (Moderately Secure)		1.66	16.6	0.66
Job sharing	.834			
Voluntary reduced hours	.820			
Component 3 – Flexibility Practices (Most Secure)		1.34	13.4	0.65
Job enlargement	.682			
Job enrichment	.855			
Flexitime	.623			
Total Variance Explained			68.4	

Table 8.20: Stage Two - Principal Components Analysis of Convergence Flexibility Practices

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Initial Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Component 1 – Flexibility Practices (Least Secure)		3.19	35.5	0.77
Zero hours contracts/arrangements	.863			
Variable hours contracts/arrangements	.846			
Shift-working	.767			
Casual work (paid version only)	.631			
Component 2 – Flexibility Practices (Moderately Secure)		1.97	21.9	0.75
Job sharing	.927			
Voluntary reduced hours	.790			
Part-time permanent work (paid version only)	.709			
Component 3 – Flexibility Practices (Most Secure)		1.17	13.0	0.66
Job enlargement	.834			
Job enrichment	.738			
Total Variance Explained			70.4	

8.2.2.5 Continuum - Human Resource Investment

Available & Valued Human Resource Management Practices

Tables 8.21 and 8.22 depict a similar pattern of results. The mean scores indicate that with the exception of internal training, paid respondents rate the availability and value of HR practices more highly than their volunteer counterparts. Separate analysis suggests that the practices considered to be most available vary between paid staff (job descriptions) and volunteers (internal planning). This outcome corresponds with the Stage One analysis (See Chapter 7 – Human Resource Management Practices). Based on combined responses, “job descriptions” obtained the highest mean score of any of the HR availability variables. Respondents indicated that this practice was *sometimes* (mean = 3.44) made available to them. Undertaking the same comparison in relation to the value variables, “career planning” was found to be the most favoured of the practices, with respondents revealing that they *greatly* (mean = 4.07) value its provision. This disparity between the availability and value results appears to suggest that presently the HR function at both museums is concerned with addressing standard activities, possibly (for time or cost reasons) at the expense of more developmental functions.

To create the HR investment scale, principal axis factoring was used to reduce the availability data. The distinction between standard and developmental HR activities was further highlighted, as an acceptable factor solution could not be obtained until the items of “external training”, “internal training” and “career planning” were deleted (all with low communality scores). According to Kaiser’s (1974) guidelines, the KMO value of .706 means that the solution contained in Table 8.23 can be interpreted as “middling”. The alpha coefficient also indicates that the items contained in the set are reliable.

8.2.2.6 Continuum – Worker Commitment

Comparing responses, Table 8.25 reveals that volunteers scored higher than paid staff on most items of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).

Principal axis factoring was used to examine the hypothetical solution of Mowday et al. (1979). After dropping four variables (Item 1, Item 3, Item 4, Item 7) that had low loadings, a single factor solution was obtained. The output contained in Table 8.26 is taken from the resulting factor matrix (not the rotated solution). In terms of sampling accuracy, the accompanying KMO value (.893) means that the solution can be interpreted as “meritorious” in light of Kaiser’s (1974) guidelines.

Table 8.21: Stage Two - Available Human Resource Management Practices
 Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = Always

HRM Practices – Availability	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Volunteers	Volunteers	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
External training	135	3.06	1.14	108	2.43	1.25	243	2.78	1.23
Internal training	137	2.74	.95	129	3.82	.98	266	3.27	1.10
Career planning	130	1.75	.84	56	1.54#	.97	186	1.69#	.88
Performance assessment	135	3.27	1.05	85	2.12	1.20	220	2.82	1.24
Job descriptions	129	3.72	1.27	87	3.03	1.37	216	3.44	1.35
Complaint handling procedures	124	3.06	1.19	71	3.03	1.54	195	3.05	1.32

#Skewed Result

Table 8.22: Stage Two - Valued Human Resource Management Practices

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Very Little, 2 = Little, 3 = Some, 4 = Greatly, 5 = Very Greatly

HRM Practices - Value	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Volunteers	Volunteers	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
External training	132	4.25	.80	102	3.67	1.21	234	4.00#	1.04
Internal training	135	3.98	.93	129	4.17#	.82	264	4.07	.88
Career planning	128	3.74	1.14	52	2.75	1.56	180	3.46	1.35
Performance assessment	133	3.62	1.08	86	3.29	1.17	219	3.49	1.12
Job descriptions	128	3.66	1.10	86	3.36	1.06	214	3.54	1.10
Complaint handling procedures	122	3.71	1.09	72	3.62	1.01	194	3.68	1.06

#Skewed Result

Table 8.23: Stage Two - Factor Analysis of Available HR Practices

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Initial Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Factor 1		2.11	70.5	0.79
Performance Assessment	.714			
Job Descriptions	.779			
Complaint Handling	.748			
Total Variance Explained			70.5	

Table 8.24: Stage Two - Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Available HR Practices

	1	2	3
1 Performance Assessment	--		
2 Job Descriptions	.47	--	
3 Complaint Handling	.53	.57	--

Note. All coefficients are significant at $p < .01$.

Table 8.25: Stage Two - Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) Items

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Volunteers	Volunteers	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Item 1 - Willing to put effort in beyond what is normally expected	144	4.15#	.83	139	3.80	.80	283	3.98	.83
Item 2 - Talk up this organisation as a great organisation to work/volunteer for	144	3.65	.95	139	3.97	.88	283	3.81	.93
Item 3 - I feel very little loyalty to this organisation (RS)	144	3.83	1.10	140	4.11#	1.26	284	3.97#	1.19
Item 4 - I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation	144	2.47	1.15	139	2.87	1.12	283	2.66	1.15
Item 5 - I find my values and the organisation's values are very similar	144	3.22	.90	140	3.71#	.86	284	3.46	.91
Item 6 - I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation	144	4.16	.73	140	4.55#	.62	284	4.35#	.70
Item 7 - I could just as well be working/volunteering for a different organisation as long as the type of work were similar (RS)	144	3.03	1.16	139	2.98	.96	283	3.01	1.07
Item 8 - This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of work performance	144	3.17	1.04	140	3.65	.85	284	3.40	.98
Item 9 - It would take very little change on my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organisation (RS)	144	3.53	1.06	140	3.76	1.15	284	3.64	1.11
Item 10 - I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work/volunteer for the others I was considering	143	3.80	.88	139	3.83	.90	282	3.82	.89
Item 11 - There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely (RS)	144	3.30	1.07	139	4.01	.98	283	3.65	1.09
Item 12 - Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organisation's policies on important matters relating to its paid workers/volunteers (RS)	144	3.06	.97	138	3.81	.96	282	3.43	1.03
Item 13 - I really care about the fate of this organisation	144	4.14#	.82	140	4.32#	.83	284	4.23#	.83
Item 14 - For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work/volunteer	144	3.19	.91	139	3.47	.94	283	3.33	.93
Item 15 - Deciding to work/volunteer for this organisation was a definite mistake on my part (RS)	144	4.49#	.73	139	4.78#	.54	283	4.63#	.66

RS = Reverse scored, #Skewed Result

Table 8.26: Stage Two - Factor Grouping of Commitment Items

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Initial Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Factor 1		4.45	40.5	0.84
Item 2 - Talk up this organisation as a great organisation to work/volunteer for	.679			
Item 5 - I find my values and the organisation's values are very similar	.613			
Item 6 - I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation	.711			
Item 8 - This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of work performance	.698			
Item 9 - It would take little change to cause me to leave this organisation (RS)	.539			
Item 10 - I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work/volunteer for over others	.472			
Item 11 - There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely (RS)	.611			
Item 12 - Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organisation's policies (RS)	.619			
Item 13 - I really care about the fate of this organisation	.403			
Item 14 - For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work/volunteer	.581			
Item 15 - Deciding to work/volunteer for this organisation was a definite mistake (RS)	.519			
Total Variance Explained			40.5	

Table 8.27: Stage Two - Pearson Correlation Coefficients for OCQ Items

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Item 2	--										
2 Item 5	.48	--									
3 Item 6	.55	.48	--								
4 Item 8	.52	.44	.52	--							
5 Item 9	.33	.29	.41	.37	--						
6 Item 10	.40	.33	.31	.37	.21	--					
7 Item 11	.39	.35	.41	.43	.42	.24	--				
8 Item 12	.38	.51	.38	.47	.34	.24	.46	--			
9 Item 13	.25	.22	.40	.25	.31	.28	.23	.21	--		
10 Item 14	.38	.32	.43	.44	.33	.38	.32	.25	.33	--	
11 Item 15	.36	.25	.36	.32	.33	.30	.30	.33	.23	.35	--

Note. All coefficients are significant at $p < .01$.

8.2.2.7 Performance Indicators - Turnover Cognitions

The turnover cognitions results outlined in Table 8.28 confirm the commitment of volunteer respondents to both museums. Unlike the other scales examined so far, a lower mean score on these items indicates a better result. Despite the potential for volunteer-organisation relations to be more tenuous (as compared to paid workers linked for reasons of economic necessity), the volunteer respondents scored lower than their paid counterparts on all turnover variables, indicating less intention to leave the NMA and the MM in spite of their greater freedom to do so. Pearce (1983) reported a similar finding in a study of volunteers and paid staff working in separate but comparable organisations. Table 8.29 indicates that a single factor solution (KMO value = .776) was extracted from the existing items (Mowday et al. 1984; Mobley et al. 1978) after 'Item 3' was deleted to improve fit.

8.2.2.8 Performance Indicators - Job Satisfaction

Examining the combined results in Table 8.31, it is interesting to note that on the basis of mean scores, the only item paid staff and volunteers did not *agree* with was Item 4. The *neutral* response (mean = 2.80) to this item appears to suggest that both groups of workers are willing to keep their options open to other suitable jobs or volunteer roles should they arise. Factor analysis also highlighted this difference of response. For an adequate single solution to be extracted (KMO value = .800), communality statistics indicated that it was necessary to delete Item 4 and Item 2. Table 8.32 reveals that the remaining items of Price and Mueller's (1981; 1986) satisfaction measure account for 71% of the total variance explained.

Table 8.28: Stage Two - Turnover Cognitions Items

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Volunteers	Volunteers	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Item 1 - I will probably look for a new organisation to work/volunteer in the near future	144	2.67	1.17	140	1.72#	.90	284	2.20	1.14
Item 2 - At the present time, I am actively looking for a different organisation to work/volunteer for	144	2.05	1.11	139	1.47#	.77	283	1.76#	1.00
Item 3 - I do not intend to leave my leave my paid job/volunteer role (RS)	143	1.90#	1.07	140	1.88#	.92	283	1.89#	.99
Item 4 - It is unlikely that I will actively look for a different organisation to work/volunteer for in the next year (RS)	144	2.70	1.29	140	1.99#	1.06	284	2.35	1.23
Item 5 - I am not thinking about leaving my paid job/volunteer role at the present time (RS)	144	2.10	1.09	140	1.73#	.86	284	1.92#	1.00

RS = Reverse scored, #Skewed Result

Table 8.29: Stage Two - Factor Grouping of Turnover Cognitions Items

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Initial Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Factor 1		2.74	68.4	0.84
Item 1 - I will probably look for a new organisation to work/volunteer in the near future	.901			
Item 2 - At the present time, I am actively looking for a different organisation to work/volunteer for	.827			
Item 4 - It is unlikely that I will actively look for a different organisation to work/volunteer for in the next year (RS)	.744			
Item 5 - I am not thinking about leaving my paid job/volunteer role at the present time (RS)	.570			
Total Variance Explained			68.4	

Table 8.30: Stage Two - Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Turnover Cognitions Items

	1	2	3	4
1 Item 1	--			
2 Item 2	.78	--		
3 Item 4	.66	.59	--	
4 Item 5	.49	.45	.48	--

Note. All coefficients are significant at $p < .01$.

Table 8.31: Stage Two - Job Satisfaction Items

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Volunteers	Volunteers	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Item 1 - I find real enjoyment in my paid job/volunteer role	144	3.93	.75	140	4.33#	.77	284	4.13#	.78
Item 2 - I like my paid job/volunteer role better than the average person does	144	3.81	.84	136	3.21	.73	280	3.52	.84
Item 3 - I am seldom bored in my paid job/volunteer role	144	3.74	.97	140	3.84#	.95	284	3.79	.96
Item 4 - I would not consider taking on another kind of paid job/volunteer role	144	2.85	1.01	139	2.75	1.06	283	2.80	1.03
Item 5 - Most days I am enthusiastic about my paid job/volunteer role	144	3.88#	.79	139	4.25#	.66	283	4.06#	.75
Item 6 - I feel fairly well satisfied with my paid job/volunteer role	144	3.80#	.75	139	4.15#	.76	283	3.97#	.78

RS = Reverse scored, #Skewed Result

Table 8.32: Stage Two - Factor Grouping of Job Satisfaction Items

	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Initial Variance Explained (%)	Reliability Coefficient
Factor 1		2.85	71.1	0.85
Item 1 - I find real enjoyment in my paid job/volunteer role	.849			
Item 3 - I am seldom bored in my paid job/volunteer role	.621			
Item 5 - Most days I am enthusiastic about my paid job/volunteer role	.806			
Item 6 - I feel fairly well satisfied with my paid job/volunteer role	.860			
Total Variance Explained			71.1	

Table 8.33: Stage Two - Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Job Satisfaction Items

	1	2	3	4
1 Item 1	--			
2 Item 3	.56	--		
3 Item 5	.66	.51	--	
4 Item 6	.74	.49	.72	--

Note. All coefficients are significant at $p < .01$.

8.2.2.9 Elements of the Partnership Model – Descriptive Summary

Based on the factor solutions outlined in Section 2, scales were constructed to represent each element of the partnership model (for an explanation see Chapter 6 - Stage Two - Data Analysis Techniques).

Interpreting some selected results in Table 8.34:

- Paid respondents rated more highly (based on mean scores) than volunteer respondents the influence of strategy upon their jobs and the availability of HR practices.
- Volunteer respondents were more committed, satisfied with their jobs and less likely to leave than their paid counterparts. They also rated higher the indexes defining the culture of both museums, that is the degree of participation enjoyed by organisational members (involvement), having a “strong culture” (consistency), the capacity to adapt to internal and external environments (adaptability) and having a shared sense of purpose (mission).
- The NMA rated higher than the MM on all of the indexes (involvement, consistency, adaptability, mission) defining organisational culture. A comparison of the mean scores obtained by both museums on the strategy and structure scales also indicates that NMA respondents felt that strategy had a greater influence on their jobs/roles and that the organisation was more characteristic of having a mechanistic structure. Further testing, however, indicated that there were no significant differences between the museums in relation these organisational dynamic variables.
- The MM’s respondents were more committed, satisfied with their jobs and less likely to leave than their NMA counterparts. They also rated more highly the availability of HR practices than NMA respondents. Further testing, however, indicated that there were no significant differences between the museums in relation these variables.

Table 8.34: Stage Two - Partnership Model Scales

	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total MM	Total MM	Total MM	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Strategy Scale	137	2.89	.94	120	1.94	.88	99	2.50	1.10	158	2.41	.98	257	2.45	1.03
Mechanistic Structure Scale	141	3.27	.73				70	3.30	.72	71	3.23	.75	141	3.27	.73
Commitment Scale	143	3.61	.58	134	4.00	.49	105	3.72	.63	172	3.84	.53	277	3.80	.57
Turnover Scale	144	2.38	.98	139	1.73	.67	106	2.19	.90	177	1.99	.90	283	2.06	.90
Job Satisfaction Scale	144	3.84#	.68	138	4.14#	.65	106	3.93#	.75	176	4.02	.64	282	3.99#	.68
Culture – Involvement Index	102	3.15	.58	59	3.67	.57	66	3.39	.57	95	3.31	.66	161	3.34	.63
Culture – Consistency Index	104	2.96	.56	47	3.53#	.41	70	3.15	.60	81	3.13	.57	151	3.14	.58
Culture – Adaptability Index	89	2.93	.58	43	3.39	.44	62	3.10#	.60	70	3.06	.57	132	3.08	.58
Culture – Mission Index	86	3.03	.61	42	3.39	.47	55	3.18	.58	73	3.12	.60	128	3.15	.59
HR Investment Scale (Availability)	118	3.35	.97	47	2.65	1.17	67	3.04	.97	98	3.23	1.14	165	3.15	1.07
Available Flexibility – Component 1 (Least Secure) Scale													56	2.32	.92
Available Flexibility – Component 2 (Moderately Secure) Scale													83	2.62	.98
Available Flexibility – Component 3 (Most Secure) Scale													239	3.21	.92

8.2.3 Section 3 – Research Questions

Having examined the individual elements in detail, the focus of the study now turns to the series of research questions stemming from the partnership model. Various questions were examined using various analysis techniques (see Chapter 6 - Stage Two - Data Analysis Techniques - Section 3). Section 3 details the findings of this analysis in relation to each research question.

8.2.3.1 Research Question 1 (Convergence)

Does a larger degree of convergent flexibility between available flexibility practices and the flexibility needs of paid staff/volunteers increase the probability of positive performance outcomes?

Significance Testing - T Tests

To examine the key research question of the partnership model, the convergence flexibility variables and the accompanying component solution (see 8.2.2.4) were significance tested. The variables were recoded to assess group differences on the basis of median scores. As such the analysis was able to compare sample means on the dependent variables (the performance outcomes of job satisfaction and turnover cognitions) based on the degree of convergence flexibility (below and above the median). Table 8.35 outlines the results of this analysis in which significant differences were found in the dependent variables, equal variances assumed.

Table 8.35: Stage Two - t Tests – Convergence Flexibility Practices – Median Split

Performance Outcomes	Individual Flexibility Practices – Convergence	M	SD	df	t
Turnover Scale	Fixed-term Contracts – Below Median	2.12	.90	148	-2.00*
	Fixed-term Contracts – Above Median	2.47	1.00		
Job Satisfaction Scale	Job Enrichment – Below Median	3.86#	.73	235	-2.53*
	Job Enrichment – Above Median	4.09#	.64		
	Job Rotation – Below Median	3.85#	.73	214	-2.55*
	Job Rotation – Above Median	4.08	.56		
	Zero Hours Contracts – Below Median	3.96#	.69	136	2.09*
	Zero Hours Contracts – Above Median	3.64	.78		

Performance Outcomes	Flexibility Components – Convergence	M	SD	df	t
Job Satisfaction Scale					
	Component 2 (Moderately Secure) – Below Median	3.75#	.65	68	-2.19*
	Component 2 (Moderately Secure) – Above Median	4.07	.57		
	Component 3 (Most Secure) – Below Median	3.86#	.76	229	-2.67*
	Component 3 (Most Secure) – Above Median	4.11#	.60		

*p<.05 # Skewed Result

Interpreting these results:

- Paid staff and volunteers grouped above the median in terms of convergent job enrichment and convergent job rotation demonstrated a higher mean score on the job satisfaction scale. In other words, those respondents that demonstrated a larger degree of convergence between their views on the availability and value of these functional flexibility practices were more satisfied with their jobs/roles.
- Paid staff and volunteers grouped below the median on the convergent flexibility practice of zero hours contracts/arrangements demonstrated a higher mean score on the job satisfaction scale. In other words, those respondents that demonstrated a lesser degree of convergence between their views on the availability and value of this temporal flexibility practice were more satisfied with their jobs/roles.
- Paid staff and volunteers grouped below the median on the convergent flexibility practice of fixed-term contracts/arrangements demonstrated a lower mean score on the turnover cognitions scale. In other words, those respondents that demonstrated a lesser degree of convergence between their views on the availability and value of this numerical flexibility practice were less likely to leave their jobs/roles.
- Paid staff and volunteers grouped above the median in terms of convergence components 2 and 3 demonstrated a higher mean score on the job satisfaction scale. In other words, those respondents that demonstrated a larger degree of convergence between their views on the availability and

value of these moderately secure and most secure flexibility practices were more satisfied with their jobs/roles.

As an overview of the significance testing undertaken, the results outlined in Table 8.35 would appear to provide some credence to the concept of convergence, particularly in relation to functional flexibility and certain temporal and numerical flexibility practices. That is to say, there was general support found for the underlying premise of Research Question 1 that performance outcomes are more positive the larger the degree of convergent flexibility. However, this finding only applied to the functional flexibility practices that were examined. The literature on flexibility (Atkinson 1984) has acknowledged that in its various forms, the concept can result in very different outcomes for workers. Such differences were evidenced in the convergence results. In the case of the temporal practice of zero hours contracts/arrangements and numerical practice of fixed-term contracts/arrangements, lesser degrees of convergence resulted in more positive job satisfaction and turnover outcomes. These differences will be explored further in the context of the discussion chapter.

Cluster Analysis

In relation to Research Question 1, cluster analysis was used to group paid respondents according to the degree their views on the availability and value of flexibility practices converged. This analysis involved the same process as was used for the Stage One data. Regression analysis was conducted (dependent variable – job satisfaction scale, independent variables – convergence flexibility practices) to generate output on the Mahalanobis distance statistic. The *t* scores accompanying the regression coefficients were also examined to assist in determining the relative importance of each variable to the analysis. Based on this assessment, the convergence variables of job rotation, job sharing, fixed-term contracts/arrangements and shift working were excluded from further analysis. Comparison of the Mahalanobis distance statistic against the critical value of chi-

square at the alpha level of .001 (24.3219) failed to identify any outlying cases that would unduly affect the results of the cluster analysis.

As a result of undertaking the first stage of the two-stage methodology (hierarchical clustering), a four-cluster solution was chosen to group paid respondents on the basis of the convergence flexibility variables. As with the Stage One analysis, the solution was assessed to be adequate in terms of guidelines (Moscardo et al. 2000) on cluster interpretation and separation, however, small cluster sizes had the potential to limit the explanatory value of the final solution. Subsequent analysis (K-means clustering) produced a final cluster solution containing 57 cases. This classification was also examined and deemed to be satisfactory. Table 8.36 outlines the mean scores generated by the final cluster solution (for ease of interpretation the highest mean score for each variable is highlighted).

Table 8.36: Stage Two - Final Cluster Solution – Paid Convergence Flexibility Practices - Mean Score Profiles

Flexible Work Practices - Convergence	Cluster 1 (n=9)	Cluster 2 (n=10)	Cluster 3 (n=18)	Cluster 4 (n=20)
Job Enlargement	2.89	1.90	3.22	2.30
Job Enrichment	2.11	2.00	3.17	2.10
Flexitime	2.44	3.00	3.22	2.85
Zero Hours Contracts/Arrangements	3.22	1.90	2.72	3.25
Variable Hours Contracts/Arrangements	3.00	1.70	2.72	3.05
Voluntary Reduced Hours	1.67	1.70	2.78	2.55
Part-time Permanent Work	1.67	1.80	3.00	2.75
Casual Work	2.22	1.90	3.00	3.40

 Highest Mean Score

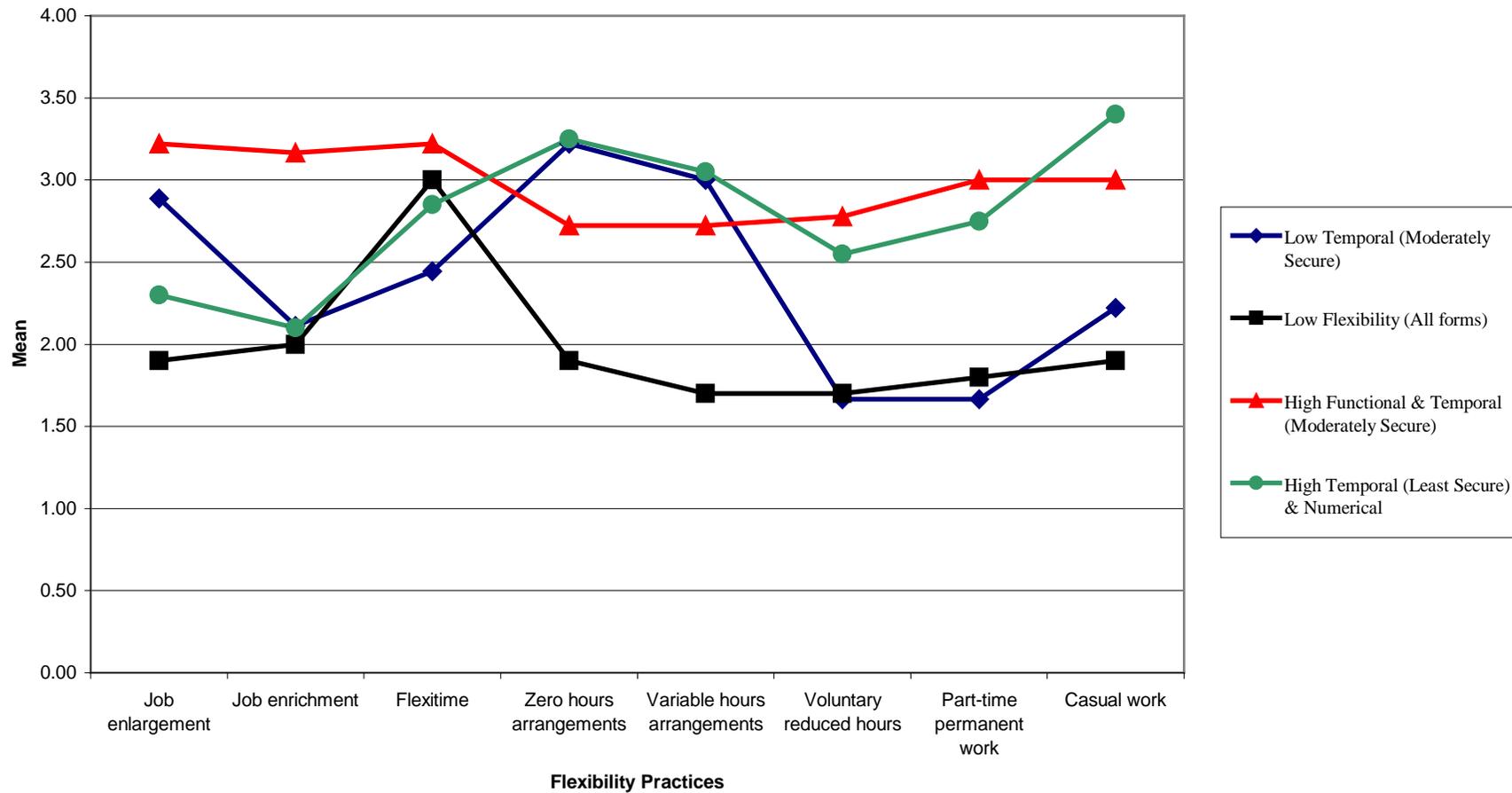
In interpreting the cluster solution, the output can be closely aligned with the results of the Stage One cluster analysis (see Chapter 7 – Section 2 – Further Analysis – Cluster Analysis) and Stage Two principal components analysis (convergence solution). For example, Table 8.36 depicts Cluster 3 as representing those paid staff that demonstrated the largest degree of convergence in relation to the variables of job enlargement, job enrichment and flexitime. The Stage One analysis also attributed the application of these practices to the same cluster of the exploratory solution (on the basis of highest mean scores). There is some crossover

as well in terms of analysis technique, with two of these variables loading on the Stage Two component representing the “most secure” convergence flexibility practices. Cluster 3 further classifies paid respondents whose perspectives on the availability and value of voluntary reduced hours and part-time permanent work accounted for the greatest degree of convergence in these temporal practices. This finding corresponds with the loading of both of these variables on the “moderately secure” component of the Stage Two convergence solution (see Table 8.20).

Further comparison with the exploratory solution, shows a consistent pattern in relation to zero hours contracts/arrangements and variable hours contracts/arrangements. Cluster 4 of the Stage Two solution reflects the responses of those paid staff that rate these convergence variables highly. The additional numerical practice of casual work is also aligned with this cluster (on the basis of highest mean score), as it was on the “least secure” component of the convergence analysis (see Table 8.20). The low mean score profile of Cluster 2 represents a general assessment that all forms of flexibility (functional, temporal, numerical) are viewed as being over valued and unavailable by the paid respondents. In the case of Cluster 1, this assessment only extends to the temporal work practices of flexitime, voluntary reduced hours and part-time permanent work.

The cluster output of the final solution is graphically presented in Figure 8.1. The distance measures accompanying the solution indicated that Cluster 3 was the least homogenous cluster, demonstrating the greatest dispersion of cases from its classified centre. It should be noted that the same clustering process was used to obtain a convergence solution based on the volunteer data. Unfortunately, as was the case with the Stage One data, the exclusion of cases listwise did not generate sufficient cases upon which to base an adequate volunteer solution. The reason for the missing cases might be associated with the limited amount of contact that volunteers have with their host organisations compared to paid staff. As such these workers may have a reduced awareness of workplace labour practices and feel less certain in their ability to adequately assess the availability and value of them.

Figure 8.1: Stage Two - Paid Convergent Flexibility Practices - Mean Score Profiles



To provide a more complete profile of the paid workers assigned to the various clusters, Table 8.37 details the results of descriptive analysis using the performance outcome variables. While the parameters of the current research limit causal inferences from being made, it is interesting to note that Cluster 3 obtained the highest mean score on the job satisfaction scale. To reiterate, this cluster represented those paid workers who experienced the largest degree of convergence in relation to certain functional and temporal (moderately secure) flexibility practices. In relation to turnover cognitions, the paid staff assigned to Cluster 1 appeared to be the group least likely to leave their organisations. At the opposite end of the spectrum, Cluster 4 emerged as the group most likely to leave. Representing greater degrees of convergence in relation to certain less secure temporal and numerical practices, the association of this cluster with negative turnover outcomes, whilst perhaps not surprising, adds further weight to the suggestion (resulting from the significance testing) that the performance outcomes resulting from the convergence process may vary dependent upon the different forms (functional, temporal, numerical) of flexibility.

Table 8.37: Stage Two - Descriptive Profile of the Convergence Clusters (Paid Workers) - Performance Outcomes

Convergence Clusters – Number and Name	Turnover Scale	Job Satisfaction Scale
1 - Low Temporal Flexibility (Moderately Secure)	1.97	3.92#
2 - Low Flexibility (All forms)	2.38	3.68
3 - High Functional & Temporal (Moderately Secure) Flexibility	2.15	4.13
4 - High Temporal (Least Secure) & Numerical Flexibility	2.41	3.89

Skewed Result

Supplementing the results of the significance testing, the cluster output lends further support to the convergence concept, particularly in regard to the link between functional flexibility and the performance outcome of job satisfaction. The current findings suggest that further examination of this link would prove to be a beneficial focus for future research activity.

8.2.3.2 Research Questions 2-7 (Level of HR Investment and Commitment)

Do paid staff and volunteers working according to numerical/temporal/functional flexible practices respectively experience low/moderate/high levels of HR

investment by organisations and demonstrate equivalent levels of organisational commitment?

Research Questions 2 through to 7 were analysed in a similar descriptive fashion to the cluster output of Research Question 1. This technique was used for comparable reasons also, namely to profile respondents in light of the research parameters. The questions were separately analysed using the flexibility components of the availability solution and the work status variables. It should be noted that attempts to base the analysis purely on the recognised forms of flexibility were abandoned when scale variables created to represent functional, temporal and numerical flexibility were found to contain unreliable items (all scales scored below the accepted standard of 0.7 on Cronbach's alpha). In relation to work status, in addition to separately examining the relevant paid staff status and volunteer frequency variables, a composite set of variables were created by aligning comparable levels of organisational contact (for example, full-time permanent workers with weekly volunteers). In line with Atkinson's (1984) Flexible Firm model, these variables were subsequently named core, peripheral and distance.

The results outlined in Table 8.38 reveal that regardless of available flexibility component, work status or volunteering frequency, mean scores obtained on the commitment and HR investment scales were comparable. In other words, commitment levels and HR availability did not appear to vary between paid workers who were employed on either a full-time permanent, part-time permanent or fixed-term contractual basis or volunteers working on a weekly, fortnightly or monthly basis. Significant testing confirmed these findings. Using paid work status and volunteer frequency as the grouping variables with which to compare sample means, no significant differences in the commitment and HR investment variables were found (equal variances assumed). In light of these findings (and subject to further testing), the merit of incorporating the HR investment and worker commitment continua into the partnership model may be questioned.

Table 8.38: Stage Two - Level of HR Investment and Worker Commitment

		Commitment Scale			HR Investment Scale (Availability)	
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Analysis on Flexibility Components						
Available Flexibility – Component 1 Scale (Least Secure)	56	3.70	.56	51	3.46	1.04
Available Flexibility – Component 2 Scale (Moderately Secure)	83	3.69	.53	77	3.33	.96
Available Flexibility – Component 3 Scale (Most Secure)	236	3.79	.58	151	3.16	1.09
Analysis on Work Status						
Paid Workers						
Full-time Permanent	97	3.61	.55	85	3.35	.95
Part-time Permanent	28	3.52	.68	21	3.48	.98
Fixed-term Contractor & Agency Worker or Sub-contractor	16	3.70	.59	11	3.06	1.10
Volunteers						
Weekly Volunteers	56	4.10	.42	18	2.54	1.10
Fortnightly Volunteers	43	3.92	.51	15	2.62	1.25
Monthly Volunteers	24	3.97	.53	11	2.73	1.38
Paid Workers & Volunteers						
Core - Full-time Permanent Paid Workers & Weekly Volunteers	153	3.79	.55	103	3.21	1.02
Peripheral - Part-time Permanent & Fortnightly Volunteers	72	3.78	.62	36	3.12	1.16
Distance – Fixed-term Contractors & Monthly Volunteers	40	3.86	.56	22	2.89	1.23

Despite the lack of significant differences in the findings, some interesting response patterns can be evidenced in Table 8.38. Simply ranking the mean scores obtained (highest through to lowest), separate analysis revealed that fixed-term contractors and weekly volunteers obtained the highest mean scores on the commitment scale and the lowest mean scores on the HR investment scale. The construct representing the most secure available flexibility practices demonstrated a similar pattern. While it is not unreasonable to expect that weekly volunteers and respondents with access to functional flexibility practices are more committed, it might be considered surprising the lower levels of HR investment directed towards these groups. These results, however, could reflect the fact that the HR investment scale represented the more standard (non-developmental) activities of the HR function. As such, these committed respondents, possibly more established in their roles, might not have as much need of such practices (performance assessment, job descriptions, complaint handling) or have been kept updated of their availability. It is only in ranking the composite variables in relation to HR investment that a response pattern emerges similar to that proposed in the research questions. That is

to say, despite obtaining comparable scores overall, core paid staff and volunteers rank highest (mean = 3.21) on the HR investment scale, their peripheral counterparts are positioned in the middle and distance workers (paid and unpaid) rank lowest (mean = 2.89). At face value, this outcome has the potential to suggest that improved operationalisation of the variables representing numerical, temporal and functional flexibility could yield worthwhile results in relation to future testing of the research questions concerning commitment and HR investment.

8.2.3.3 Research Question 8 (Equality)

Does the lesser difference between flexibility (numerical, temporal, functional) and HRM practices applied to paid and unpaid staff increase the probability of positive work outcomes between these human resources?

To assess group differences, the variables rating equality of flexible work options and HR practices for paid staff and volunteers were recoded. In undertaking testing, no significant differences (equal variances assumed) were found in relation to job satisfaction and turnover cognitions. Given the lack of distinction (below and above the median) in these performance outcomes, it would appear that the Stage Two quantitative data does not support the importance of this theme initially highlighted in the Stage One qualitative data.

8.2.4 Section 4 – Other Analysis

To determine the full research contribution of the Stage Two data, additional analysis was undertaken using the techniques of significance testing and regression analysis.

8.2.4.1 Significance Testing - T Tests

Apart from significance testing undertaken in relation to the research questions, other factors selected for analysis were chosen on the basis of descriptive purposes (demographics, work status) and to continue investigation of themes examined in the exploratory data (flexibility practices and working relations). These variables

were used either in their original form or recoded based on median scores. In general, the dependent variables analysed included those representing flexibility practices (available, valued), HR practices (available, valued) and the various scales of the partnership model. Mindful of thesis length, the results tables, reporting significant differences in the dependent variables (equal variances assumed), are presented as appendices at the end of the thesis. An overview interpreting some selected findings for each topic is presently provided.

8.2.4.1.1 Paid Staff and Volunteer Differences

Table 8.39 interprets some results (see Appendix J) assessing group differences on the basis of paid staff and volunteer status. As might be expected, some findings (for example, those relating to the partnership model scales) confirm the results of descriptive analysis undertaken on the Stage Two data (see Section 2).

Table 8.39: Stage Two - Significance Testing – Interpretation of Paid Staff and Volunteer Differences

Dependent Variables	Interpretation
Flexibility Practices - Availability	
Job Enlargement Job Enrichment	Paid workers rated the availability of these functional flexibility practices more highly than volunteers
Voluntary Reduced Hours	Volunteers rated the availability of this temporal flexibility practice more highly than paid staff
Flexibility Practices - Value	
Zero Hours Contracts Voluntary Reduced Hours	Volunteers rated the value of these temporal flexibility practices more highly than paid staff
Flexibility Practices - Convergence	
Job Sharing Voluntary Reduced Hours	Volunteers demonstrated a larger degree of convergence between their views on the availability and value of these flexibility practices than paid staff
Fixed-term Contracts/Arrangements	Paid staff demonstrated a larger degree of convergence between their views on the availability and value of this numerical practice than volunteers
HRM Practices – Availability	
External Training Performance Assessment Job Descriptions	Paid workers rated the availability of these HR practices more highly than volunteers
Internal Training	Volunteers rated the availability of this HR practice more highly than paid staff
Partnership Model Scales	
Strategy Scale HR Investment Scale	Paid staff rated higher on these scales than volunteers
Commitment Scale Job Satisfaction Scale Culture – Involvement Index Culture – Adaptability Index Culture – Mission Index	Volunteers rated higher on these scales than paid staff

8.2.4.1.2 Gender Differences

Table 8.40 interprets some results of the analysis (see Appendix J) assessing group differences on the basis of gender.

Table 8.40: Stage Two - Significance Testing – Interpretation of Gender Differences

Dependent Variables	Interpretation
Flexibility Practices - Availability	
Flexitime Voluntary Reduced Hours	Females (paid staff and volunteers) rated the availability of these temporal flexibility practices more highly than males
Fixed-term Contracts/Arrangements	Females rated the availability of this numerical flexibility practice more highly than males
Flexibility Practices - Value	
Job Sharing Fixed-term Contracts/Arrangements	Females rated the value of these numerical flexibility practices more highly than males
HRM Practices – Value	
Career Planning Performance Assessment	Females rated the value of these HR practices more highly than males
Partnership Model Scales	
Strategy Scale	Females rated higher on this scale than males
Commitment Scale Job Satisfaction Scale Turnover Scale	Males rated higher on the commitment and job satisfaction scales and lower on the turnover scale than females, indicating that they were more committed, more satisfied and less likely to leave

8.2.4.1.3 Age Differences

Table 8.41 interprets some results (see Appendix J) found in relation to age. For these group differences to be identified, the original grouped numerical variable measuring age was split based on the median score (3 = 40-49 years).

Table 8.41: Stage Two - Significance Testing – Interpretation of Age Differences

Dependent Variables	Interpretation
Flexibility Practices - Availability	
Voluntary Reduced Hours	Respondents (paid staff and volunteers) grouped above the median rated the availability of this temporal flexibility practice more highly than their younger counterparts
Flexibility Practices - Value	
Job Enrichment	Respondents grouped below the median rated the value of this functional flexibility practice more highly than their older counterparts
HRM Practices – Availability	
External Training	Respondents grouped below the median rated the availability of this HR practice more highly than their older counterparts
Internal Training	Respondents grouped above the median rated the availability of this HR practice more highly than their younger counterparts
HRM Practices – Value	
Career Planning Job Descriptions	Respondents grouped below the median rated the value of these HR practices more highly than their older counterparts
Partnership Model Scales	
Commitment Scale Job Satisfaction Scale	Respondents grouped above the median rated higher on the commitment and job satisfaction scales than their younger counterparts, indicating that they were more committed and more satisfied

8.2.4.1.4 Frequency of Volunteering Differences

Table 8.42 interprets some results of the analysis (see Appendix J) assessing group differences on the basis of volunteering frequency.

Table 8.42: Stage Two - Significance Testing – Interpretation of Frequency of Volunteering Differences

Dependent Variables	Interpretation
Flexibility Practices - Availability	
Voluntary Reduced Hours	Weekly volunteers rated the availability of this temporal flexibility practice more highly than monthly volunteers
Flexibility Practices - Value	
Zero Hours Contracts Fixed-term Contracts/Arrangements	Weekly volunteers rated the value of these respective temporal and numerical flexibility practices more highly than fortnightly volunteers
Voluntary Reduced Hours	Weekly volunteers rated the value of this temporal flexibility practice more highly than monthly volunteers
Partnership Model Scales	
Job Satisfaction Scale Turnover Scale	Weekly volunteers rated higher on the job satisfaction scale and lower on the turnover scale than fortnightly volunteers, indicating that they were more satisfied and less likely to leave

8.2.4.1.5 Flexibility Differences

Table 8.43 sheds light on some significant results (see Appendix J) found in relation to the individual flexible work practices. Table 8.44 provides similar interpretation of the analysis undertaken on the available flexibility component solution. For group differences to be identified, the variables analysed were split on the basis of median scores.

Table 8.43: Stage Two - Significance Testing – Interpretation of Differences – Individual Flexible Work Practices

Dependent Variables	Grouping Variables	Interpretation
Partnership Model Scales		
Commitment Scale	Job Enlargement Job Enrichment Job Rotation	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of the availability of these functional flexibility practices rated higher on the commitment scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more committed
	Flexitime Voluntary Reduced Hours	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of the availability of these temporal flexibility practices rated higher on the commitment scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more committed
Turnover Scale	Job Enlargement Job Rotation	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of the availability of these functional flexibility practices scored lower on the turnover scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were less likely to leave

	Grouping Variables	Interpretation
Job Satisfaction Scale	Job Enlargement Job Enrichment Job Rotation	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of the availability of these functional flexibility practices rated higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more satisfied
	Flexitime Voluntary Reduced Hours	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of the availability of these temporal flexibility practices rated higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more satisfied

Table 8.44: Stage Two - Significance Testing – Interpretation of Differences – Available Flexibility Components

Dependent Variables	Grouping Variables	Interpretation
Partnership Model Scales		
Commitment Scale	Component 3 (Most Secure Flexibility Practices)	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of this available component rated higher on the commitment scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more committed
Job Satisfaction Scale	Component 3 (Most Secure Flexibility Practices)	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of this available component rated higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more satisfied

8.2.4.1.6 Differences in Satisfaction with Flexibility and HR Practices

Table 8.45 interprets some results of the analysis (see Appendix J) assessing group differences on the basis of satisfaction with flexibility and HR practices. A median split of the satisfaction variables was used to identify these differences.

Table 8.45: Stage Two - Significance Testing – Interpretation of Satisfaction Differences – Flexibility and HR Practices

Dependent Variables	Grouping Variables	Interpretation
Partnership Model Scales		
Commitment Scale	-Satisfaction with Flexibility Practices -Satisfaction with HR Practices	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of satisfaction with flexibility and HR practices rated higher on the commitment scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more committed
Turnover Scale	-Satisfaction with Flexibility Practices -Satisfaction with HR Practices	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of satisfaction with flexibility and HR practices scored lower on the turnover scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were less likely to leave
Job Satisfaction Scale	-Satisfaction with Flexibility Practices -Satisfaction with HR Practices	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of satisfaction with flexibility and HR practices rated higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more satisfied

8.2.4.1.7 Communication and Working Relationship Differences

Table 8.46 interprets some results (see Appendix J) found in relation to the communication and working relationship variables assessed in the Stage Two questionnaire. For group differences to be identified, these variables were split on the basis of median scores.

Table 8.46: Stage Two - Significance Testing – Interpretation of Communication and Working Relationship Differences

Dependent Variables	Grouping Variables	Interpretation
Partnership Model Scales		
Commitment Scale	-Communication between Paid Workers -Communication between Volunteers -Communication between Paid/Unpaid Workers -Working Relationship	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of the communication and working relationship variables rated higher on the commitment scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more committed
Turnover Scale	-Communication between Paid/Unpaid Workers	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of communication between paid staff and volunteers scored lower on the turnover scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were less likely to leave
Job Satisfaction Scale	-Communication between Paid Workers -Communication between Paid/Unpaid Workers -Working Relationship	Respondents grouped above the median in terms of the communication and working relationship variables rated higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more satisfied

8.2.4.2 Regression Analysis

For the purposes of regression analysis, variables representing the various elements of the partnership model were assigned either dependent or independent (predictor) status, based on the relationships theorised (see Table 8.47). The stepwise method of estimation was used to assess the contribution of predictor variables to the regression models generated. These models were subsequently assessed in terms of the assumptions underlying the use of regression (Coakes 2001). Based on the recommendation of Tabachnick and Fidell (1983), the ratio of cases to independent variables proved satisfactory given that the models were generated using stepwise procedures. In relation to outliers, Coakes (2001, p. 172) noted that the decision to delete them “from the data set must be made with care because their deletion often results in the generation of further outlying cases”. Given this consideration and

the outcome that only a minimal number of univariate and multivariate outliers were detected in the regression models generated, it was decided to preserve the data set and let the models stand. Tables 8.48a-8.48k outline the results of the regression analysis. Each model contains those items that best explain the variance in the dependent variable, while deleting variables deemed unworthy of inclusion (based on statistically non-significant beta values).

Table 8.47: Stage Two - Regression Analysis – Dependent and Independent Variables Used

Table Number	Dependent Variable	Independent (Predictor) Variables
8.48a	Contact with HR Department	Strategy Scale, Structure Scale, Culture – Involvement Index, Consistency Index, Adaptability Index, Mission Index
8.48b	Contact with Senior Managers	Strategy Scale, Structure Scale, Culture – Involvement Index, Consistency Index, Adaptability Index, Mission Index, Contact with HR Department
8.48c	Contact with Middle Managers	Strategy Scale, Structure Scale, Culture – Involvement Index, Consistency Index, Adaptability Index, Mission Index
8.48d	Contact with Middle Managers	Contact with Senior Managers, Contact with HR Department
8.48e	Contact with First-level Managers	Contact with Senior Managers, Contact with Middle Managers, Contact with HR Department
8.48f	Contact with HR Department	Contact with Senior Managers, Contact with Middle Managers, Contact with First-level Managers
8.48g	Contact with Senior Managers	Contact with Middle Managers, Contact with First-level Managers
8.48h	Strategy Scale	Contact with Senior Managers, Contact with Middle Managers, Contact with First-level Managers, Contact with HR Department
8.48i	Available Flexibility – Component 3 Scale (Most Secure)	Contact with Senior Managers, Contact with Middle Managers, Contact with First-level Managers, Contact with HR Department
8.48j	Available Flexibility – Component 3 Scale (Most Secure)	Strategy Scale, Structure Scale, Culture – Involvement Index, Consistency Index, Adaptability Index, Mission Index
8.48k	Job Satisfaction Scale	Convergence Flexibility – Component 1 (Least Secure), Component 2 (Moderately Secure), Component 3 (Most Secure)

Table 8.48a: Stage Two - Organisational Dynamic Variables Predicting HR Contact

	Step 1	Step 2
Organisational Dynamics	β	β
Strategy Scale	.48***	.40***
Culture – Mission Index		.24*
R-squared	.23	.28
F (regression)	18.99***	12.04***

Note. N = 118 * $p < .05$ *** $p < .01$

Table 8.48b: Stage Two - Organisational Dynamic Variables Predicting Senior Management Contact

	Step 1	Step 2
Organisational Dynamics	β	β
Contact with HR department	.46***	.38*
Culture – Adaptability Index		.25*
R-squared	.21	.27
F (regression)	16.28***	10.94***

Note. N = 126 * p < .05 ***p < .01

Table 8.48c: Stage Two - Organisational Dynamic Variables Predicting Middle Management Contact

	Step 1	Step 2
Organisational Dynamics	β	β
Culture – Adaptability Index	.33*	.68***
Culture – Consistency Index		-.47*
R-squared	.11	.21
F (regression)	7.56*	8.13***

Note. N = 116 * p < .05 ***p < .01

Table 8.48d: Stage Two - Organisational Member Levels Predicting Middle Management Contact

	Step 1
Organisational Member Levels	β
Contact with Senior Managers	.77***
R-squared	.59
F (regression)	362.32***

Note. N = 264 ***p < .01

Table 8.48e: Stage Two - Organisational Member Levels Predicting First Level Management Contact

	Step 1	Step 2
Organisational Member Levels	β	β
Contact with Middle Managers	.55***	.69***
Contact with Senior Managers		-.18*
R-squared	.30	.31
F (regression)	104.87***	55.89***

Note. N = 255 * p < .05 ***p < .01

Table 8.48f: Stage Two - Organisational Member Levels Predicting HR Department Contact

	Step 1
Organisational Member Levels	β
Contact with Senior Managers	.32***
R-squared	.11
F (regression)	28.96***

Note. N = 262 ***p < .01

Table 8.48g: Stage Two - Organisational Member Levels Predicting Senior Management Contact

	Step 1	Step 2
Organisational Member Levels	β	β
Contact with Middle Managers	.76***	.83***
Contact with First-Level Managers		-.12*
R-squared	.58	.59
F (regression)	348.54***	180.73***

Note. N = 255 * p < .05 ***p < .01

Table 8.48h: Stage Two - Organisational Member Levels Predicting Strategy

	Step 1	Step 2
Organisational Dynamics	β	β
Contact with HR department	.45***	.39***
Contact with Middle Managers		.23***
R-squared	.20	.25
F (regression)	59.34***	39.19***

Note. N = 243 ***p < .01

Table 8.48i: Stage Two - Organisational Member Levels Predicting Available Flexibility – Component 3 (Most Secure Practices)

	Step 1
Organisational Member Levels	β
Contact with Middle Managers	.27***
R-squared	.07
F (regression)	16.16***

Note. N = 230 ***p < .01

Table 8.48j: Stage Two - Organisational Dynamic Variables Predicting Available Flexibility – Component 3 (Most Secure Practices)

	Step 1
Organisational Dynamics	β
Culture – Adaptability Index	.54***
R-squared	.30
F (regression)	24.26***

Note. N = 118 ***p < .01

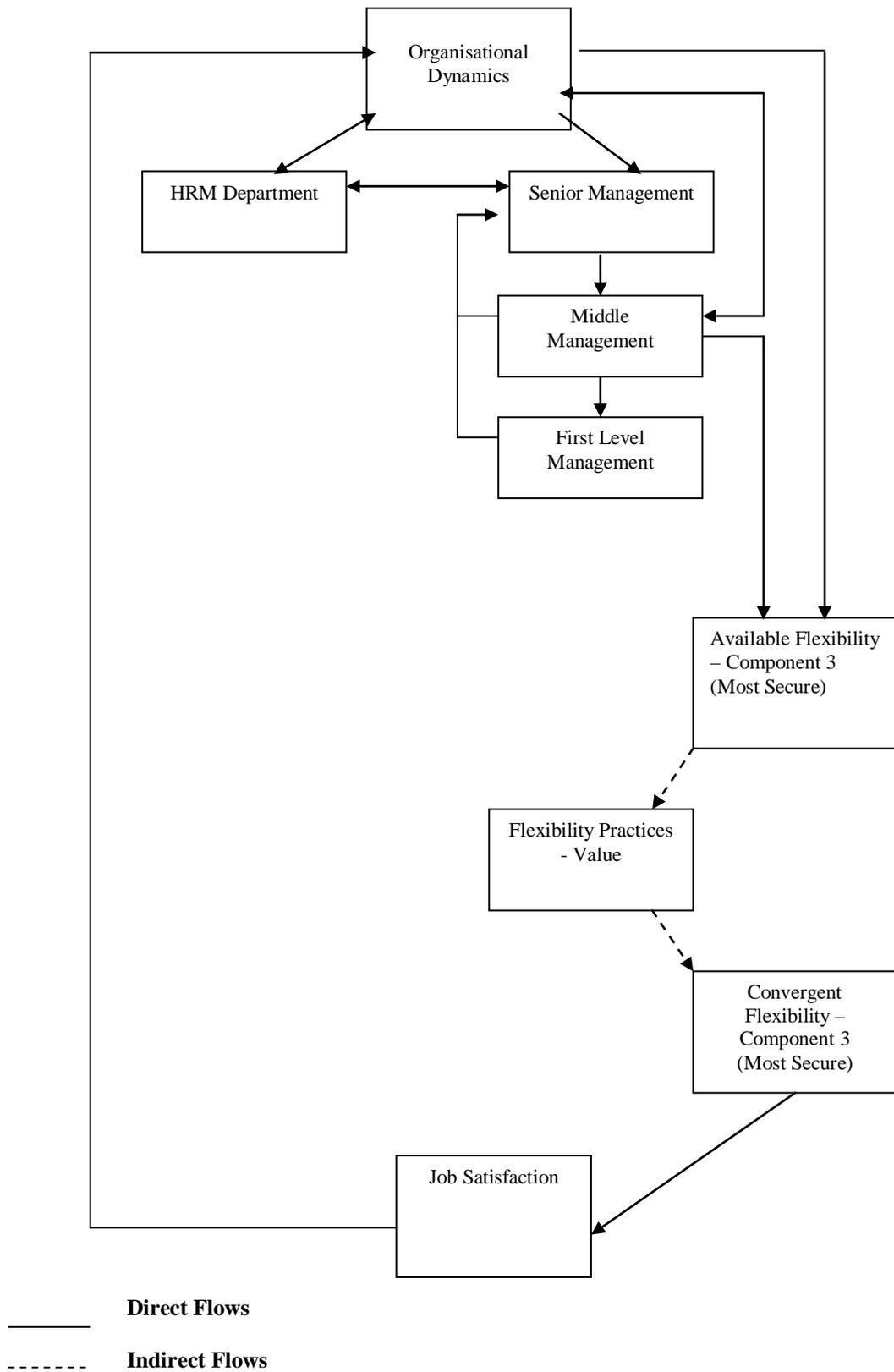
Table 8.48k: Stage Two - Convergence Flexibility Components Predicting Job Satisfaction

	Step 1
Convergence Flexibility Components	β
Component 3 (Most Secure)	.43*
R-squared	.18
F (regression)	10.83*

Note. N = 231 *p < .05

These regression models provide a focus for ongoing research activity, further building upon the tenets of the partnership model. It is interesting to note that once again, the results recognise the link between functional flexibility (as represented by the most secure flexibility practices) and job satisfaction. Incorporating this link and the others suggested by the generated models, a revised version of the partnership model is presented in Figure 8.2. It should be noted that the model includes a feedback loop from performance outcomes to organisational dynamics as was proposed in the original version (see Figure 6.2). As it had been beyond the scope of the current study to examine this relationship (see Chapter 6 – Research Questions), it was retained in the revised partnership model in expectation that future testing would evaluate its theoretical merit. The relationships suggested in light of the Stage Two regression analysis will be expanded on in the context of the ensuing discussion chapter.

Figure 8.2: Stage Two - Revised Partnership Model of Convergent Flexibility



8.3 Chapter Summary

The focus of Stage Two data collection narrowed to concentrate on the museums sector and the views of management, non-management paid staff and volunteers regarding the availability and value of flexibility practices. The National Museum of Australia (NMA) and the Melbourne Museum (MM) provided access so as to collect data for this particular stage of the research. A descriptive profile obtained from the quantitative data indicates that in general the respondents were highly educated; volunteers were commonly older (60+ years) than their paid counterparts (30-39 years) and females were represented in greater numbers in the returned sample. As an indication as to the health of the organisations surveyed, total responses revealed that working relations between paid staff and volunteers were “good”.

The main purpose behind conducting a second stage of data collection was to examine the theoretical merit of the partnership model of convergent flexibility (Lockstone et al. 2003). To do so, the elements comprising the model (see Chapter 6 – Figure 2) were firstly analysed to construct representative scale variables. The results of this analysis were extremely positive, with factor analysis producing reliable solutions using the individual structure, strategy, culture, commitment, HR, turnover cognitions and job satisfaction items. Similar to patterns found in the exploratory data, the factor analysis undertaken using the flexibility variables (available, valued, convergence) supported the grouping of certain practices according to the recognised forms of functional and temporal flexibility.

Turning to the proposed relationships of the model, various analysis techniques were employed to evaluate the associated research questions. Significance testing provided general support for the key question of model (Research Question 1), namely that performance outcomes were more positive the larger the degree of convergent flexibility. However, this finding was only applicable to the functional flexibility practices that were examined. The results of cluster analysis lent further support to the convergence concept, particularly the link between functional

flexibility and the performance outcome of job satisfaction. In examining Research Questions 2-7, descriptive analysis and significance testing did not endorse the suggestion that worker commitment and HR investment levels varied according to the different forms of flexibility (numerical, temporal and functional). It was put forward that in light of these findings (and subject to further testing), the HR investment and commitment continua might be excluded from the partnership model. Emerging from the findings of the Stage One data, it was suggested that the equality of treatment provided to paid staff and volunteers might potentially affect performance outcomes. Significance testing, however, did not support this view. In relation to Research Question 8, no significant differences were found in the job satisfaction and turnover cognitions ratings of these workers, on the basis of how equally they assessed the provision of flexible work options and HR practices.

Having examined the Research Questions of the partnership model, further analysis was conducted to determine the full research contribution of the Stage Two data. Using significance testing, a number of differences were identified on the basis of paid staff or volunteer status, gender, age and frequency of volunteering. These differences will be expounded upon during the course of the following discussion chapter. Regression analysis was also conducted. The various elements of the partnership model were assigned either dependent or predictor status based on the proposed relationships (see Chapter 6 – Figure 2). As a result of this analysis, a revised model (see Figure 8.2) was suggested. Indeed, the regression equations, whilst supporting the links of the original model (functional flexibility and job satisfaction), also provide direction for future testing of the partnership concept.

CHAPTER 9 – STAGE TWO - DISCUSSION

9.1 Chapter Introduction

The preceding chapter outlined the Stage Two quantitative results in four sections (descriptive overview, elements of the partnership model, research questions and other analysis). The current chapter discusses those results with reference to the partnership model of convergent flexibility (Lockstone et al. 2003). Aspects of the literature that contribute directly to the model are examined, as is the model itself, revisited in light of the research findings. To provide a more in-depth picture of various aspects of the model, qualitative data from Stage Two of the study are also incorporated into the discussion.

9.2 Revisiting the Partnership Model of Convergent Flexibility

To determine the research contribution of the partnership model, its various elements are discussed separately. These elements comprise the dynamics of the organisation, flexibility practices, commitment and HR investment continua and performance outcomes. A summary is provided of the key findings relating to the relevant element as a precursor to each discussion.

9.2.1 Organisational Dynamics – Strategy, Structure and Culture

9.2.1.1 Key Findings

- *The structure scale of mechanistic characteristics correlated at a statistically significant level with all of the indexes of the Denison Organizational Culture Survey (Table 8.12).*
- *The strategy scale failed to correlate at a significant level with both the structure and culture variables (Table 8.12).*
- *The NMA rated more highly on all of the variables representing the organisational dynamics of the partnership model (Table 8.34). Separate testing, however, indicated that these differences (comparing museums) were not significant.*
- *Significance testing indicated that volunteers rated the culture indexes of involvement, adaptability and mission more highly than paid staff (Table 8.39).*

- *Significance testing indicated that paid staff rated the influence of strategy on their roles more highly than volunteers (Table 8.39).*
- *Excluding certain variables (due to statistically non-significant beta values), stepwise regression revealed that of the organisational dynamics, the strategy scale and the mission index accounted for 28% of the variance in HR contact (Table 8.48a).*
- *Excluding certain variables (due to statistically non-significant beta values), stepwise regression revealed that of the organisational dynamics, the adaptability index and the consistency index accounted for 21% of the variance in middle management contact (Table 8.48c).*
- *Excluding certain variables (due to statistically non-significant beta values), stepwise regression revealed that the variables of contact with the HR department and contact with middle managers accounted for 25% of variance in the strategy scale (Table 8.48h).*
- *Excluding certain variables (due to statistically non-significant beta values), stepwise regression revealed that of the organisational dynamics, the adaptability index accounted for 30% of the variance in the availability component representing the most secure flexibility practices (Table 8.48j).*

In developing the partnership model as a theoretical framework for the management of paid and unpaid workers, the factors of strategy, structure and culture were examined with a view to determining their effects on the application of flexible work practices. These factors were identified and then grouped as the “organisational dynamics” of the model. As noted in Chapter 6 (see – Development of the Partnership Model of Convergent Flexibility), the sequencing of the relationships between these dynamics was not conjectured. This decision was made primarily with a view to focusing the research effort upon the impacts of flexibility. It should also be acknowledged, however, that as noted by Mintzberg (1979) in several studies which he conducted on structural issues, the cross-sectional design of the present study did not allow for the formal identification of causation. Such sequencing was not established.

9.2.1.2 Strategy

In assessing the influence of strategy (see Table 8.2), the collective returns indicated that corporate/business strategy, HR strategy and enterprise bargaining agreements had little impact on the work roles of paid staff and volunteers. This may explain why the strategy scale (comprising the above-mentioned items) failed

to correlate at a significant level with the scales operationalised to represent the dynamics of structure and culture. Significance testing, however, did reveal that paid staff rated the influence of strategy on their roles more highly than volunteers (see Table 8.39). Possible reasons may include the greater familiarity of paid workers with museum operations and the level of involvement sought by individual volunteers. For example, when asked about his contribution to policy, one interviewee replied:

“I best answer that by saying I don’t seek it. So to that extent I don’t believe I have any impact on policy”. (*Interview 10, Volunteer, NMA*)

In moving beyond the issue of organisational dynamics, the links between strategy and other elements of the partnership model were assessed. Regression analysis (see Chapter 8 – Section 8.2.4.2) revealed that the strategy scale contributed to predictions about the extent to which contact occurred with the HR department. Viewing this relationship from the reverse perspective, it was also found that the variable of HR contact, together with middle management contact, predicted changes in the strategy scale. By assigning independent variable status to the contact variables, the researcher attempted to assess potential variance in the other organisational dynamics. The analysis was, however, unsuccessful, either due to minimal variance being explained or to the dependent variable being dropped from the regression equations. The level of reciprocity suggested by this finding between the HR function and strategy is consistent with the earlier findings of Legge (1985) and Lengenick-Hall and Lengenick-Hall (1988).

While middle management contact affected strategy, the senior level of management, who it might reasonably be assumed would play a key role in setting the strategic agenda, did not. Indeed with strategy being a key driver behind HR contact, the results (Table 8.48f) indicate that the senior echelon was the only level of management interacting with the HR function. This relationship was identified as an element of an organisational restructure taking place at one of the research sites:

“At the moment they’re (HR) being very much the servants of the senior management, and they must be aware, ..., of things”. (*Interview 12, Manager, MM*)

It was found, however, that senior management was not being either influenced (Table 8.48b) or influencing strategy within the organisations examined. Instead, it appeared that this level of management had the opportunity to contribute to strategy indirectly through dealings with the HR department. Figure 8.2 presents these links in diagrammatic form. The extent to which these results would be applicable in other organisational settings would be the subject for future testing (possibly using different variables to represent the organisational dynamics and various management levels).

9.2.1.3 Structure

Based on the factor analyses that have been undertaken (see Table 8.6), the structure scale aligned with one of the “ideal types” of structure that featured in Burns and Stalker’s (1961) contingency theory. Descriptive analysis of the two research sites involved in Stage Two of the study revealed that the NMA rated more highly than the MM on the mechanistic structure scale. It is, however, worth noting that significance testing undertaken comparing group differences on the basis of the museums (the results of which for reasons of thesis length were not included in Chapter 8) indicated that this particular difference was not significant. Using the scale point anchors from the original structure variables (see Table 8.5) to scrutinise the results, the perspectives of paid workers at the NMA and the MM suggest that both museums exhibited mechanistic qualities to “a moderate extent” (see Table 8.34). Ivancevich and Matteson noted that such qualities are characterised by “extensive rules and procedures, centralised authority and high specialisation”, (1990, p. 446). The structuring of museum operations (e.g. conservation, exhibitions, education, research, outreach, visitor services) with a view to meeting public sector requirements may have contributed to this result.

“This whole idea that we are the ..., part of the APS (Australian Public Service). We spend all our time making this organisation fit, no, that’s not true. We spend all our time trying to make public service rules and regulations fit with the design of this organisation. We certainly don’t want to design this organisation on public sector rules”. (*Interview 3, Manager, NMA*)

“The Union has been pushing for a while to sort of align us, well get us back into the Victorian Public Service and that is kind of happening by default. We won’t, I don’t think ever move into the inner public service but our Enterprise Partnership Agreement will start to align more closely”. (*Interview 17, Manager, MM*)

The structure scale was excluded in the regression equations involving the organisational dynamics and various contact levels (see Tables 8.48a-8.48c) and also the availability of certain (most secure) flexibility practices (see Table 8.48j). The relatively stable nature of the concept may partially explain why the structure variable failed to predict any changes.

9.2.1.4 Culture

An important aspect of Stage Two of the study was gauging the influence of organisational culture on other elements of the partnership model. This task was undertaken in part to follow through on recognised links (Gunnigle and Moore 1994; Mayne et al. 2000; Reilly 2001; Truss et al. 1997) and also to extend culture research into the unpaid workforce, which had been the subject of limited previous study. For these reasons, the Denison Organizational Culture Survey (used with the permission of Denison Consulting) was incorporated into both the paid staff and volunteer versions of the survey instrument.

As was the case with the structure scale, the results indicated that the NMA rated more highly on the indexes (Denison's terminology) that made up the culture survey. Once more, however, separate testing revealed that the inter-museum differences were not significant. Whilst the mean scores in question were not extreme, to the bottom or upper limits of the scales used, [see Table 8.34] the fact that these various cultural aspects were viewed more prominently at the NMA could potentially be a by-product of the intense controversy that has surrounded the museum in terms of design (Duffy 2001), layout (Morgan 2002) and content (Windschuttle 2001; 2002). Such external criticism may have had a unifying effect on how paid and unpaid workers regard their organisation. This would be consistent with Rousseau's (1990) view that shared cognitions form the basis of organisational culture.

It is interesting to note that involvement in the case of both museums was the element of culture which recorded the highest mean scores (see Table 8.34). The NMA and the MM may be characteristic of a culture where "high levels of involvement and participation create a sense of ownership and responsibility", (Denison and Mishra 1995, p. 214). The qualitative data lends support to this finding:

"We are very much an organisation about involvement, ..., we are very much about, you know, bottom up, we've tended to, which is interesting because the way in which we have tended to work is in hierarchical nature, and there is, it is hierarchical and I think people do respond to authority as well. So it's, there's some quite interesting, ..., kind of characteristics about the organisation, ..., but you know, we want to maintain, we've got a staff consultative committee so, the involvement works well for us, ..., and we want to sort of, I think continue with that principle". (*Interview 17, Manager, MM*)

In extending culture research to include the perspectives of unpaid workers, significance testing revealed that volunteers rated the indexes of involvement,

adaptability and mission more highly than paid staff (see Table 8.39). In terms of involvement, the interview data provided an indication that this cultural element also encompassed volunteer activities:

“The volunteers initially were very much involved in just the staffing of the touch trolleys whereas now its gone on to be much more involved. They actually come up with ideas and they actually develop the touch trolleys, so there’s quite a sense of ownership, particularly with some of the volunteers”.

(Interview 6, Non-Management Paid Staff Member, NMA)

A potential qualifier to the extent of this volunteer involvement is the principle that volunteers should not encroach upon or threaten the jobs of paid staff (as recognised in guidelines such as those developed by Volunteering Australia (Cordingley 2000)). In the context of both museums, through probably to a greater extent at the MM, this standard has been observed in the concept of “core” roles and enhancement.

“The volunteers are very closely aligned to the concept of core business and that volunteers don’t carry out the core business of the organisation. That they supplement work of the paid staff but they don’t supplant paid staff. So that means that volunteers never have the responsibility for anything financial, or that they need to deliver programs that the public have paid for”.

(Interview 18, Manager, MM)

“There was always an understood role that volunteers enhance a program, so it’s an evaluated or an add on. So if there is something that’s happening we can not get a volunteer, ..., then we would, potentially still deliver the product, not perhaps as great as we could but it is, was, and always is the volunteer role is about enhancement”. *(Interview 2, Manager, NMA)*

In relation to the adaptability index, the results suggest that volunteers, more so than paid staff, perceive the museums as being capable of internal change in

response to external conditions. Volunteers may identify with the organisational learning and customer focus components of this index. For example, from the quantitative data detailing the reasons given for working at the NMA and MM by paid staff and volunteers (see Appendix H), “skills/knowledge development” and “gain/apply work experience” when combined accounted for at least 25% of the volunteer responses to the three separate reasons given. An equivalent sizeable percentage was only achieved in the case of Reason One of the paid staff responses. These findings appear to connect volunteers with the underlying precepts of organisational learning, namely “gaining knowledge and developing capabilities” (Denison 2001, p. 356). Indeed, research undertaken by Goodlad and McIvor (1998) indicated that “museum volunteers find their work rewarding because they are offered a learning experience”, (p. 85). The deployment of volunteers in front-of-house roles at both museums (as detailed in Chapter 6 – Stage Two – Research Sites) suggests that they possess a working knowledge with which to assess organisational culture from the customer relations perspective. This result is also supportive of Freeman’s (2001) assertion that best practice volunteer programs should embody a culture of continual improvement.

As previously mentioned, significance testing indicated that strategy had a greater effect on the roles of paid staff than on volunteers. Surprisingly it was volunteers who rated higher on the index which Denison considered to be “the most important cultural trait of all”, (1990 p. 356). In light of its focus on strategic direction and organisational vision, volunteers may have been familiarised with the mission trait through the process of internal training. Indeed, significance testing suggested that volunteers rated the availability of this HR practice more highly than paid staff (see Table 8.39). The orientation material given to volunteers at both museums provides strong reinforcement of the vision, mission and strategic priorities of both the NMA and MM.

In considering the wider effects of the cultural dynamic, regression analysis demonstrated that certain of the culture indexes explained variance in various other elements of the partnership model. It was found that two distinct indexes predicted

middle management contact (see Table 8.48c) and that the adaptability index was the best indicator of change in the availability component which represented the most secure flexibility practices (see Table 8.48j). Denison and Mishra noted that the indexes of adaptability and consistency are frequently at odds with one another. The former index is primarily concerned with change and the latter focusing on an organisation's capacity to remain stable over time (1995). As both of these variables were predictive of middle management contact in the organisations being examined, the findings suggest that these members were equally driven in their roles by the contrasting dynamics of change and predictability. The adaptability index was also found to make a small contribution to the prediction of senior management contact (see Table 8.48b).

Organisational flexibility provides a template for adjusting and utilising labour resources in response to changing demand (Brewster et al. 2000). It is therefore not surprising that the adaptability index was found to be the best predictor of variance of the various organisational dynamics in the availability component representing the most secure flexibility practices. The practices in question involved job enlargement and job enrichment, which have been primarily associated with the functional form of flexibility (Atkinson 1987). Through the creation of a multi-skilled workforce, whose skills can be shifted between functions as required, this form of flexibility has the potential to enable the museums to adapt to external conditions. One MM interviewee, whose role was outside the museum's Education and Visitor Programs function, provided an example of this potential:

“Job enlargement is, is available to paid staff, we're often asked to participate in a lot of the education visitor programs activities and deliver those. ..., and people that have the skills and abilities certainly they take the extra work”. (*Interview 13, Manager, MM*)

It should be noted that regression testing using the dynamic variables to predict changes in the least secure and moderately secure available flexibility components

(see Table 8.18) was unsuccessful. This was due either to minimal variance being explained or to the dependent variable being dropped from the regression equations. It might be anticipated that these less stable flexibility practices (including zero hours contracts, casual work and fixed-term contracts) would be more susceptible to demand based external decisions and more influenced by a culture of adaptability. The public sector environment within which museums operate may have had a dampening effect upon the development of such a culture. The influence of culture on organisational flexibility provides an introduction to what is the focal point of the thesis. Findings relating to the flexibility practices of paid staff and volunteers will now be discussed.

9.2.2 Flexibility Practices

9.2.2.1 Key Findings

- *Respondents who demonstrated a larger degree of convergence between their views on the availability and value of certain functional practices (job enrichment and job rotation) rated higher on the job satisfaction scale, indicating that they were more satisfied (Table 8.35).*
- *Respondents who demonstrated a lesser degree of convergence between their views on the availability and value of zero hours contracts/arrangements (temporal flexibility) rated higher on the job satisfaction scale, indicating that they were more satisfied (Table 8.35).*
- *Respondents who demonstrated a lesser degree of convergence between their views on the availability and value of fixed-term contracts/arrangements (numerical flexibility) rated lower on the turnover cognitions scale, indicating that they were less likely to leave their jobs/roles (Table 8.35).*
- *Respondents grouped above the median in terms of the convergence components representing moderately secure (Component 2) and the most secure (Component 3) flexibility practices rated higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more satisfied (Table 8.54).*
- *Paid workers rated the availability of functional practices (job enlargement and job enrichment) more highly than volunteers. Unpaid workers rated the availability of voluntary reduced hours (temporal flexibility) more highly than paid staff (Table 8.39).*
- *Volunteers rated the value of certain temporal practices (zero hours contracts and voluntary reduced hours) more highly than paid staff (Table 8.39).*

- *In terms of gender, females rated the availability of certain temporal practices (flexitime and voluntary reduced hours) more highly than males. Females also rated the value of the numerical practices of job sharing and fixed-term contracts more highly than males (Table 8.40).*
- *In terms of age, respondents (paid staff and volunteers) grouped above the median (40-49 years) rated more highly the availability of voluntary reduced hours than their younger counterparts. Respondents grouped below the median rated more highly the value of job enrichment than their older counterparts (Table 8.41).*
- *Respondents grouped above the median in terms of the availability of certain functional (job enlargement, job enrichment and job rotation) and temporal practices (flexitime and voluntary reduced hours) rated higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more satisfied (Table 8.43).*
- *Respondents grouped above the median in terms of the availability of certain functional practices (job enlargement and job rotation) scored lower on the turnover scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were less likely to leave (Table 8.43).*
- *Respondents grouped above the median in terms of the availability component representing the most secure flexibility practices (Component 3) rated higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were more satisfied (Table 8.44).*
- *Excluding certain variables (due to statistically non-significant beta values), stepwise regression revealed that of the convergence flexibility components, Component 3 (representing the most secure flexibility practices) accounted for 18% of the variance explained in the job satisfaction scale (Table 8.48k).*

Reminiscent of existing flexibility theory (Atkinson 1984), the partnership model incorporated three separate forms of flexibility into its framework [functional, temporal and numerical]. Unlike employer-driven approaches characteristic of previous theories, the underlying tenet of partnership aimed to ensure that when the flexibility needs of paid staff and volunteers converged with the work options offered, performance outcomes would be enhanced. To examine the theoretical merit of the convergence concept, an assessment was sought from paid and unpaid workers as to the availability and value of certain flexibility practices. Using a similar approach to Zeithaml et al. (1990) in relation to the SERVQUAL instrument, for each flexible work option its availability variable was subtracted from the corresponding value variable to create a measure of convergence. The availability, value and convergence results form the basis of the discussion relating to flexibility as an element of the partnership model.

Principal components analysis, undertaken separately on the availability, value and convergence variables, was able to group the relevant flexibility variables according to a common structure. Viewed from the perspective of paid staff and volunteers, for each set of variables, three components were identified (see Tables 8.18-8.20). What makes these groupings interesting is that the practices contained in each align relatively closely with the recognised theory (Atkinson 1984) in assigning them functional, temporal or numerical status. The researcher considered that respondents (paid staff and volunteers) might not be aware of these theoretical forms and would identify more closely with the level of security offered by each component. Consistent with this expectation the three components comprising the separate solutions (available, valued, convergence) were labelled “least secure”, “moderately secure” and “most secure”. Although there was some variance across the solutions, in general the “most secure” component represented the functional flexibility variables, the “moderately secure” component represented a structured response to temporal and numerical flexibility and the “least secure” component represented the unstructured equivalent of these practices. The various components are further discussed in relation to the flexibility variables comprising each solution.

9.2.2.2 Available Flexibility Practices

The perspectives of paid staff and volunteers at the NMA and MM provide insights into the flexibility practices that were made available to the two groups of workers. The descriptive findings noted in Table 8.13 revealed that volunteers rated the availability of several temporal work practices (zero hours arrangements, variable hours arrangements, shift work and voluntary reduced hours) more highly than paid staff. Significance testing, however, indicated that of these, the opportunity to adjust working hours to pursue domestic or other interests (voluntary reduced hours) was the only temporal practice for which a significant difference was found between the two groups of workers (see Table 8.39). Apart from determining that volunteers rated the availability of voluntary reduced hours more highly than paid

staff, further testing (see Tables 8.40 and 8.41) revealed that females and persons aged above the median (40-49 years) also rated the availability of this option more highly than their respective counterparts (males and persons aged below the median). Not surprisingly the demographic data outlined in Appendix G, revealed that 64% of all volunteer respondents were female and if the relevant response categories are combined, 67% were aged 40 years or older.

Volunteering implies the exercise of free will (Brudney 1999; Noble 1991; Paull 1999). Whether in respect of the amount of time that volunteers give up and/or (to a lesser extent) the types of activities they perform. An early indication as to the extent of say volunteers had over the time they contributed was revealed in the exploratory data (see Chapter 7 – Volunteer Contribution). The Stage One findings suggested that the majority (52%) of volunteer hours were scheduled based on volunteer availability (as opposed to mutual agreement or the decisions of co-ordinators/managers alone). Apart from the quantitative data appearing to support the general notion and application of voluntary reduced hours in relation to volunteering, the Stage Two qualitative data also provided examples in the context of both museums:

“The organisation has offered and communicated a great deal of flexibility, both in time, sorts of work to be done, and, ..., and even within that just precisely what you do within that period of time is, is quite flexible”.
(Interview 10, Volunteer, NMA)

“They (the volunteers) choose their own hours”. *(Interview 15, Manager, MM)*

Regardless of worker status (paid staff or volunteer), significance testing revealed that those respondents who considered the temporal work option of voluntary reduced hours to be more widely available, rated higher on the job satisfaction scale (see Table 8.43). It would appear, therefore, that paid staff and volunteers with greater access to this option were more satisfied than counterparts who may

have experienced a reduced level of availability or complete absence of such opportunities.

In the organisations surveyed, organisational flexibility, in its functional form, was found to impact upon job satisfaction. Unlike temporal practices that aim to achieve flexibility through internal adjustments, functional flexibility has the potential to upskill workers so as to allow them to undertake a wider range of duties. The results of significance testing indicated that paid workers rated the availability of job enlargement and job enrichment more highly than volunteers (see Table 8.39). This finding suggests that the museums were more willing to invest in the skills of their paid workers, a reasonable conclusion when it is considered that these organisations have a greater level of control over paid workers (economic compliance) and the types of specialised tasks they complete (for example, conservation, research and exhibition management).

In the context of the Flexible Firm model, Atkinson (1984) posited that functional flexibility was delivered by a core group of workers who tended to be employed in full-time and permanent positions. It is worth noting that the majority of paid workers at both the NMA and MM (see Appendix G) possessed the same work status (full-time permanent), congruent with the provision of functional flexibility. These results also align with the findings of the exploratory data (see 7.2.1.2 – Organisational Flexibility), potentially suggesting an industry standard or normal practice relating to the application of these work options. An approximate assessment of the Stage One data (based on comparison of mean scores) indicated that in the visitor information centers, visitor attractions and cultural institutions surveyed, the practices of job enlargement and job enrichment were provided to paid staff more regularly. Further research is required to examine these links in the context of the partnership model.

In quantifying the extent of functional flexibility within the organisations studied, the Stage Two data collection instrument was careful to delineate between job enlargement and job enrichment. In seeking to assign workers across functional

boundaries, these practices were associated respectively with work quantity and work quality. Reilly noted that, “proper functional flexibility involves training people to perform work outside of their normal functional area of expertise. In practice the term has blurred into what may be called task flexibility, where employees carry out a wider range of duties than their job title might imply” (2001, p. 29). Given this view, job enrichment may be aligned more to the ideal form of functional flexibility, with job enlargement linked to the concept of task flexibility. Research by O’Reilly (1992) has also tested the distinction between upskilling and task enlargement.

Despite the potential for very different work outcomes as a result of job enrichment and job enlargement, separate significance tests revealed that those respondents grouped above the median in terms of the availability of job enrichment and job enlargement, rated higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below (see Table 8.43). In other words, paid staff and volunteers who felt that they had greater access to these functional practices were more satisfied in their jobs/roles. Confirming these findings, a significant difference was also found on the job satisfaction scale when using the “most secure” availability component (comprising the flexibility practices of job enrichment and job enlargement) as the grouping variable. The positive ties between functional flexibility and job satisfaction also extended to the availability of job rotation options. One interviewee acknowledged the difficulty of initiating such programs in the museum context:

“That’s an interesting one because just by the nature of our work it’s a little bit harder to rotate throughout the museum because other areas are quite specialised. But, ..., in saying that, one of our staff members is actually working in the Curatorial team at the moment so. So there are opportunities to do that if, if I suppose our background is diverse enough to allow that.
(Interview 6, Non-Management Paid Staff Member, NMA)

Job rotation, as well as that of job enlargement, was further linked to the performance outcomes of the partnership model in terms of turnover cognitions. Significance testing revealed that respondents who rated these practices as being more available scored lower on the turnover scale, indicating that they were less likely to leave the organisations where they worked or volunteered. The qualitative data provided an insight into the positive benefits functional flexibility practices can provide:

“Job enrichment that’s made available to me by my supervisor and is, is very valuable to me in terms of just improving my skills and keeping me interested in the work here. Job enlargement, again that’s made available to me and for similar reasons as above, to enhance my skills and to keep me interested and motivated, and, ..., I guess it makes me feel valued”.

(Interview 5, Non-Management Paid Staff Member, NMA)

Discussion of the various forms of flexibility (functional, temporal and numerical) will continue in relation to the value assessments that paid staff and volunteers assigned to these work options.

9.2.2.3 Valued Flexibility Practices

The variables rating the value of each flexibility practice were analysed using the same techniques employed on the availability variables. Once again, significant differences were found on the basis of work status, gender and age. The temporal work practice of voluntary reduced hours was found to be more highly valued by unpaid workers than by their paid counterparts (see Table 8.39). Another temporal option, zero hours contracts/arrangements, was also valued more highly by volunteers than by paid staff. Whilst this form of arrangement is typically organised at the employer’s request (Reilly 1998), in common with the more employee-focused practice of voluntary reduced hours, it does allow the worker a great amount of freedom, as regular work hours are not specified. The issue of freedom or free will was discussed in the previous section in relation to voluntary

reduced hours. From the results of both the value and availability assessments, it would appear that the organisations surveyed have recognised the importance that volunteers place on such freedom and have acted to ensure that it is embodied in the delivery of their flexible work options.

On the basis of gender, significance testing revealed that females rated the value of certain numerical flexibility practices more highly than males. The practices in question were job sharing and fixed-term contracts/arrangements (see Table 8.40). The contrasting promise of some contingent work options has been previously noted. In relation to part-time employment, Hall et al. (1998) commented that “working arrangements involving shortened, or greater flexibility and control over, hours of work hold some positive potential”, (p. 57). Job sharing has been closely associated with part-time working (Reilly 1998; Reilly 2001) as it shares many of these same characteristics. In a study of part-time work and job sharing in the British health service, a returned sample of job sharers (97% of whom were women) said that their main reason for choosing to job share was to “enable them to combine work with family commitments. They said that job sharing enabled them to continue working while bringing up children and thus avoiding career breaks”, (Branine 2003, p. 62). An earlier study of women-friendly HRM by Chiu and Ng (2001) reported that job sharing was related to the continuance commitment of the females studied. In the context of the organisations surveyed, “meeting domestic responsibilities”, “personal/lifestyle needs” and “leave/return to work options” emerged as some of the reasons why job sharing was valued (see Appendix I). Although this analysis was not gender specific, it appears reasonable to assume that these reasons may have particular relevance for paid and unpaid female workers. Once again, both museums have acknowledged the significance of flexibility practices, in this case job sharing, as a means of balancing work and life demands and have incorporated provisions for such opportunities within their enterprise bargaining agreements.

Continuing to view the potential positives of numerical flexibility, fixed-term contracts have been labelled beneficial in terms of short-term working time

predictability (Hall et al. 1998). However, the authors go on to note that “this type of employment generally has none of the hours flexibility that can be delivered through permanent part-time or job sharing arrangements, and hence it offers less to those seeking flexibility to assist with the combination of work and family responsibilities”, (p. 59). The appeal of fixed-term contracts to female workers may therefore lie in terms of career development. The Stage Two data (see Appendix I) suggested that a leading reason this option was valued by male and female respondents related to “improving skills/career opportunities”. Significance testing of various human resource management practices found that females rated the value of career planning more highly than males (see Table 8.40). Together these results provide a picture of females indirectly using short-term work opportunities as a means of enhancing their long-term career prospects.

In relation to age differences, career development opportunities might also assist in explaining the value assessments assigned to certain flexibility practices. In particular, significance testing revealed that respondents grouped below the median in terms of age (40-49 years) rated the value of job enrichment more highly than their older counterparts (see Table 8.41). This finding aligns with a separate result indicating that younger respondents valued the provision of career planning options more highly than those grouped above the median age. As has been noted in the discussion to date, the very nature of enrichment involves skill development. It is only natural that paid staff and volunteers should seek out and value flexible work options that provide such development opportunities during the early stages of their careers. A young volunteer at the MM provided a thorough insight into the value of job enrichment:

“That’s always good. I mean part of volunteering I suppose you want to, ..., experience as much as you can because you’re sort of, it’s kind of your putting your time out and, ..., I suppose part of this for, for any young person would be that they can say well I’ve been involved in this big organisation doing this and this and this, and, ..., I’m sure they’re probably going to put, you know, a lot of their energy into it.” (*Interview 22, Volunteer, MM*)

Having examined the determinants of convergent flexibility (the availability and value variables), it is time to turn the discussion towards the concept itself.

9.2.2.4 Flexibility Practices – Convergence (Research Question 1)

As a key focus of the study, some interesting findings emerged from examining the impact of the convergence process (for an explanation see 8.2.2.4 – Convergence of Flexibility Practices) upon the performance outcomes of the partnership model. Suggestive of Atkinson's (1984) Flexible Firm theory, there was indication that this process impacted differently upon the outcomes, dependent upon whether a flexibility practice was of the functional, temporal or numerical form. As a result of significance testing, cluster analysis and regression analysis, the most solidly supported finding was that of the positive link between functional flexibility and job satisfaction.

Aligned with the basic tenet of Research Question 1, significance testing (see Table 8.35) revealed that respondents who demonstrated a larger degree of convergence between their views on the availability and value of certain functional practices (job enrichment and job rotation) rated higher on the job satisfaction scale, thereby indicating that they were more satisfied. Paid staff and volunteers grouped above the median in terms of the convergence component, judged to represent the most secure flexibility practices (job enlargement and job enrichment) also rated higher on the job satisfaction scale. Descriptive analysis of the Stage Two cluster output (see Table 8.37) further confirmed the link. Although the research design precluded causal inferences from being made, it was interesting to note that the cluster whose profile depicted the highest mean scores (the largest degrees of convergence) in relation to the functional flexibility variables, demonstrated the most positive rating on the job satisfaction scale. Stepwise regression analysis (see Table 8.48k) also established that of the three components of convergence flexibility, the scale variable representing the “most secure” or

functional practices was the best predictor of job satisfaction, accounting for 18% of the variance explained.

In light of the temporal and numerical flexibility practices examined, a less clear picture emerged as to the effects of convergence on the performance outcomes. For example, mirroring the functional flexibility findings, significance testing (see Table 8.35) indicated that respondents grouped above the median on convergence component 2 (representing the moderately secure practices of job sharing, voluntary reduced hours and part-time permanent work) rated higher on the job satisfaction scale. Testing of the individual practices, however, found that in relation to certain less secure temporal and numerical options, performance outcomes were more positive the lesser the degree of convergence between availability and value assessments assigned to each. Whereas the partnership model proposed that positive outcomes were the likely result of greater degrees of convergence in all forms of flexibility, it appears that in relation to zero hours contracts/arrangements (temporal) and fixed-term contracts/arrangements (numerical), a reduced level of agreement between the views of respondents (paid staff and volunteers) regarding the availability and value of these practices, aligned respectively with greater job satisfaction and less intention to leave.

These results attest to the different outcomes that can accrue from the various forms of flexibility. Given that temporal and numerical practices have often been associated with the more negative effects of flexibility including job insecurity, irregular hours, reduced career opportunities and limited training opportunities (Brewster et al. 2000; Guerrier and Lockwood 1989; Tailby 1999), it is perhaps not surprising that dissonance between the availability and value assessments assigned to these practices would positively influence the performance outcomes. Obviously these individual results do not recognise the more beneficial aspects associated with these practices (e.g. family friendly initiatives). It would therefore be interesting to ascertain whether further testing of the partnership model would account for these beneficial effects upon convergence or if the same delineations in

performance outcomes would occur dependent upon dissonance in the form of flexibility examined.

Before leaving the discussion of convergence outcomes relating to temporal and numerical flexibility practices, it should be noted that the cluster analysis provided an example where larger degrees of convergence impacted negatively (not positively as is proposed by the partnership model) upon performance. Cluster 4 of the solution, comprising paid respondents who assigned the convergence variables of zero hours contracts/arrangements, variable hours contracts/arrangements and casual work the highest ratings, were profiled against the least favourable score on the turnover scale (see Table 8.37). This result is not unreasonable given that these practices are largely unstructured and associated high levels of uncertainty (in relation to the number of hours worked and the scheduling of them). It further attests to the varying effects of different flexibility practices, but instead of suggesting some kind of dissonance leading to positive outcomes, it suggests more that the effect on performance outcomes is aligned to the perceived negative nature of these temporal and numerical flexibility practices. Future testing of the partnership model may wish to include some means of weighting the two factors that determine convergence, availability and value, to ascertain which is the more important driver behind such convergence evaluations.

Central to the concept of convergence flexibility is the notion of partnership. Organisations that seek to determine the flexibility needs of their paid staff and volunteers and adapt ways of working to them, can only do so if they move away from the employer-centered approaches of seminal flexibility theorists such as Atkinson (1984; 1987) and adopt a more balanced perspective of flexibility such as that proposed by Reilly (2001) and Sheridan and Conway (2001), and most recently embodied in the partnership model. The qualitative data provided examples of both museums managing flexibility to take into consideration the needs of their paid staff and volunteers.

“It’s 58 hosts, it’s 58 different needs, individual expectations and requirements and, and motivations to do the job. ..., so we know that we will not be able to satisfy every single request, ..., however, we, I believe that, ..., where we can accommodate it we do work with, with the individuals and we’ve had a really good success rate of hosts moving to other roles in the museum”. (*Interview 2, Manager, NMA*)

“So we’ve actually identified, ..., programs for different, for volunteers, but I’ve also, ..., started negotiating individual jobs for people depending if they, have very specific skills or, ..., unusual expertise, or, I don’t think that they’ll actually, they’re not really fitted into any one of those programs but they would be great on a one-to-one, you know own individual project and I’ve actually started negotiating, ..., individual projects for, for volunteers as well”. (*Interview 4, Non-Management Paid Staff, NMA*)

“It’s what people’s personal needs are and it’s the balancing of, balancing of home and work”. (*Interview 14, Manager, MM*)

Despite such recognition afforded to the flexibility requirements of paid staff and volunteers, there appeared to be indications from both the quantitative and qualitative data that moves to incorporate these needs were done so more at the request of the worker, rather than as a result of proactive measures undertaken by the organisations surveyed. Closely aligned to the partnership approach, Sheridan and Conway (2001) argued that in relation to managing mutual flexibility, the HR function should play a key role in being “responsible for the “balancing” of different stakeholders’ needs and the identification of appropriate (and mutually satisfying) flexibility strategies to implement”, (p. 9). There appeared to be little evidence of such a role being played in the context of the museums. In terms of contact, descriptive analysis (outlined in Appendix G) revealed that paid respondents *sometimes* (mean score = 2.73) had contact with the HR department, whereas volunteers *rarely* (mean score = 1.90) had dealings with these organisational members. Regression analysis (see Tables 8.47 and 8.48i)

confirmed this degree of separation. The variable representing HR contact failed to account for variance (based on a statistically non-significant beta value) in relation to the availability of certain “most secure” functional flexibility practices (component 3). Further testing also discounted the variable as a predictor of component 1 (least secure practices) and component 2 (moderately secure practices). The interview data provided examples of flexibility driven by the initiative of workers:

“It was only because I pushed to organise it as such that I got to do it and it’s worked out pretty successfully I think in the end. I sure they think the same but, um, if I hadn’t been a bit pushy I wouldn’t have done that, but, in that particular project then I had the full say because they were happy for what I was proposing. So I proposed the whole thing and went through the whole process or whatever, and, um, I then did it and ran it”. (*Interview 9, Volunteer, NMA*)

“If they (volunteers) want to change, they need to tell us that they want to change, um, and if they don’t talk to us about it we assume they want to stay in the same area”. (*Interview 18, Manager, MM*)

These quantitative and qualitative results suggest that the basic framework for adopting a partnership approach to convergence flexibility is already in existence at both museums. The delivery of this framework, however, might benefit from the further integration of organisational resources (HR included) to the task of ascertaining and adapting work practices to the flexibility needs of paid staff and volunteers. The role of HR will now be examined in terms of worker investment.

9.2.3 Continua – HR Investment and Worker Commitment

9.2.3.1 Key Findings

- *Paid workers rated higher on the HR investment scale than volunteers, whereas unpaid workers rated more highly on the commitment scale than paid staff (Table 8.39).*

- *Paid workers rated the availability of external training, performance assessment and job descriptions more highly than volunteers. Volunteers rated access to the HR practice of internal training more highly than paid staff (Table 8.39).*
- *In terms of gender, males rated higher on the commitment scale than females, indicating that they were more committed to the organisations surveyed (Table 8.40).*
- *Females rated the value of certain HR practices (career planning and performance assessment) more highly than males (Table 8.40).*
- *In terms of age, respondents grouped above the median (40-49 years) rated higher on the commitment scale than their younger counterparts, indicating that they were more committed to the organisations surveyed (Table 8.41).*
- *In terms of age, respondents (paid staff and volunteers) grouped below the median (40-49 years) rated the availability of external training more highly than their older counterparts. In contrast, respondents grouped above the median age rated the availability of internal training more highly than their younger counterparts (Table 8.41).*
- *In terms of age, respondents (paid staff and volunteers) grouped below the median (40-49 years) rated the value of career planning and job descriptions more highly than their older counterparts (Table 8.41).*

The partnership model proposed that two separate continua existed with which to frame the effects on workers resulting from the convergence process. These continua suggested scope in terms of HR investment and worker commitment aligned to the differing forms of flexibility. Research by several authors (Geary 1992; Gooderham and Nordhaug 1997; Lowry 2001; Mayne et al. 1996) had revealed that HR functions were applied in a less than ideal manner to those workers providing numerical flexibility. Lowry suggested that the assumptions made by organisations regarding a reduced level of commitment by these workers could potentially lead to self-fulfilling outcomes if such workers were afforded fewer HR investment opportunities (2001). In the context of the partnership model, numerical flexibility was positioned towards the lower end of the investment and commitment continua, with functional flexibility placed towards the higher end of the scales. This placement recognised the potential use of the “soft” developmental model of HRM (Beer et al. 1985) to generate commitment amongst “core” workers (Legge 1995). The continua and their links to the various forms of flexibility (numerical, temporal and functional) were embodied in Research Questions 2-7 of the model. The findings relating to these questions will now be examined, before

discussing some of the more generalised findings regarding the commitment of and level of HR investment afforded to paid workers and volunteers in the organisations surveyed.

9.2.3.2 Research Questions 2-7

To restate the basic tenets of Research Questions 2-7 of the partnership model, it was proposed that paid staff and volunteers associated with delivering either numerical, temporal or functional forms of flexibility, would respectively experience a low, moderate or high level of HR investment and demonstrate corresponding levels of commitment. Descriptive analysis (see Table 8.38) profiling HR investment and commitment levels against the available flexibility component, work status and volunteering frequency variables found that mean scores in relation to the two scales were comparable regardless of the variables analysed. In other words, commitment levels and HR availability did not appear to vary between paid workers who were employed on either a full-time permanent (functional), part-time permanent (temporal) or fixed-term contractual (numerical) basis or volunteers working on a weekly, fortnightly or monthly basis. Significant testing confirmed these findings. Using paid work status and volunteer frequency as the grouping variables with which to compare sample means, no significant differences were found in the commitment and HR investment variables.

In the context of HR investment, these findings appear to support those made by Boreham, Hall, Harley and Whitehouse (1996) in a study of the employment conditions of administration workers in law and accounting firms. The study employed the HR practice of training to represent one specific aspect of these conditions. The authors noted that “in particular we find little support for the argument that firms relying solely on full-time administrative staff tend to provide higher quality “core” jobs, while those that depend on a large number of part-time and casual staff provide lower quality “peripheral” jobs”, (p. 35). As an alternative to the comparable findings obtained using the measures (level of training) operationalised, it was suggested that organisational size might be a better

predictor of employment conditions. Whilst testing of the partnership model was based on data collected from two relatively large organisations (in terms of paid staff and volunteer numbers), future testing may involve research sites of varying sizes to determine the effects of this predictor on HR investment and worker commitment. In light of the present findings, indicating a lack of differentiation in HR investment and commitment levels aligned to the various forms of flexibility, the merit of incorporating these continua into the partnership model may be questioned (subject to further testing).

9.2.3.3 HR Investment

Analysing the availability and value assessments assigned to individual HR practices, a degree of disparity appeared between those practices that paid staff and volunteers viewed as being made most available to them and the ones that were of most value. Descriptive analysis (see Tables 8.21 and 8.22) revealed that based on combined returns, the HR practice rated most highly in terms of availability was the provision of job descriptions. Paid and unpaid workers rated career planning as the most valuable practice. In the context of the organisations surveyed, these results allude to the HR function focusing upon the provision of standard HR activities, potentially (for time or cost reasons) at the expense of more developmental tasks. In the process of creating a scale to represent HR investment, factor analysis (see Table 8.23) further confirmed the delineation between standard (performance assessment, job descriptions and complaint handling procedures) and developmental (external training, internal training and career planning) HR practices. Only the standard practices were retained in the resulting solution. The importance of adopting a more progressive approach to HRM was recognised by one interviewee in relation to career development:

“We’re in times of change; the organisation has been I think quite good at supporting individuals through kind of individual, ..., counselling and career development issues. ..., so other than that there hasn’t been any sort of great focus on it. ..., with all the stuff we’ve got to do now and with corporate, we

are setting up a corporate training, ..., function, we do need to look at, well sort, ..., just identifying people's individual development needs. So that will get better too, we hope". (*Interview 17, Manager, MM*)

Moving on from the collective results, analysis was undertaken in order to identify what differences, if any, stemmed from the HR availability and value variables on the basis of work status, gender and age. In terms of work status, significance testing (see Table 8.39) indicated that paid workers rated higher on the HR investment scale than volunteers. An explanation for this finding may be the greater level of interaction inferred in the paid staff-organisational relationship. In comparison, volunteers are often limited in the contributions they can make. It would therefore appear reasonable to assume that organisations would wish to invest their resources accordingly. Both museums indicated that volunteer contributions were capped according to set guidelines:

"The Volunteering Australian Standard for maximum hours is 16 hours a week at any one organisation. So we'd never have an open-ended time". (*Interview 4, Non-Management Paid Staff Member, NMA*)

"What we're after is a minimum of 24 across a year as a way of ensuring that they are keeping a, ..., fairly regular contact with the museum, enough to be kept in the loop and not lose any skills and knowledge that they've built up in their time here. But beyond that; we also have an upper limit, ..., which is, I think the most we'd anyone is 2 days a week or 16 hours a week, but anywhere in between that we're happy to be quite flexible". (*Interview 18, Manager, MM*)

Examining the findings in relation to individual HR practices, it was confirmed that paid respondents perceived they had greater access to standard measures, in particular performance assessment and job descriptions. In addition to these practices, significance testing (see Table 8.39) also revealed that paid workers rated the availability of external training more highly than their volunteer

counterparts. An association can be drawn between this outcome and better access by paid staff to enrichment and enlargement opportunities (see 9.2.2.2). It might not be possible to fulfill the multi-skilling agenda related to these particular flexibility practices without organisations investing in training. It may be questioned as to why external training, as opposed to the internal equivalent, would impact upon the work of paid staff. After a reasonable length of time, and considering the specialised nature of museum operations, it might be realistic to suppose that paid staff would realise all there is to learn from the internal environment (for example, other staff members, accepted procedures), with further development requiring input from outside sources (for example, other museum professionals).

In contrast, volunteers rated access to internal training more highly than paid staff. It has already been suggested that this HR practice may act as a conduit for transmitting to unpaid workers cultural aspects of the organisational mission (see 9.2.1.4). In the context of the museums, this training may be aligned to more generic learning opportunities such as induction training.

“Internal training, induction and on-site courses. We, we do all our own, ..., orientation sessions, ..., and we also do our own training for, ..., job specific training I suppose you could call it”. (*Interview 4, Non-Management Paid Staff Member, NMA*)

A comparable pattern of results emerged in relation to what HR practices were made available to people of certain ages. Significance testing (see Table 8.41) indicated that respondents grouped below the median age (40-49 years) rated the availability of external training more highly than their older counterparts. However, separate testing revealed that older respondents felt that they had greater access to internal training opportunities. Indeed, these results may be closely linked to the work status findings as 56% of the paid respondents were aged between 18-39 years old, compared to only 32% of volunteer respondents categorised according to the same age bracket (see Appendix G). It appears that external

training was made available to paid workers that comprise a youthful component of the organisational workforce. In comparison, internal training was offered to volunteers, the majority of whom bring greater life experience to their museum roles.

Examining the HR practices from differing perspective of value, significance testing (see Table 8.41) revealed that respondents grouped below the median age (40-49 years) rated career planning more highly than their older counterparts. Similarly, in terms of gender, females were found to more fully value this practice than males (see Table 8.40). Both of these results have been separately linked to the valuations assigned to various flexibility practices. That is to say, it might be reasonable to draw a parallel between younger respondents that valued the practice of career planning and opportunities for job enrichment more highly (see 9.2.2.3). The completion of fixed-term contracts/arrangements were also suggested as a means by which female respondents could enhance their career prospects. Further testing of the partnership model may provide additional insights in relation to these parallels.

9.2.3.4 Commitment

In testing the partnership model, the commitment scale that was used to assess organisational commitment was based on an established attitudinal measure developed by Mowday et al. (1979). Significance testing revealed that volunteers, males and older respondents rated higher on the commitment scale than their respective counterparts (paid staff, females and younger respondents), indicating that they were more committed to the organisations surveyed (see Tables 8.39, 8.40 and 8.41).

Exclusive of monetary incentives that may provide an impetus for the generation of commitment in paid workers, several studies (Catano et al. 2001; Lammers 1991; Ryan et al. 2001) have examined what drives volunteers to commit to organisations. Pearce (1993) noted that in relation to volunteers' attitudes "we can

be reasonably confident that current volunteers are more positive about volunteering in general and about their particular organisations than are non-volunteers”, (p. 89). Indeed, the Stage Two finding that volunteer workers were more committed than their paid counterparts aligns with this view. The author goes onto provide some reasons why this might be the case. It is suggested by Pearce (1993) that Staw’s (1976) sufficiency-of justification hypothesis may be of some relevance. That is to say, volunteers that experience insufficient justification for their work (lack of financial rewards) may compensate by developing favourable attitudes in order to justify their work efforts. A further reason offered is that only volunteers with positive attitudes remain with organisations. The freedom these unpaid workers have to exit organisations at any time may mean that those volunteers who are less committed choose to discontinue their involvement or over time reduce their contributions. As a volunteer at one of the museums suggested:

“There’s a certain type of volunteer who doesn’t care if it’s a boring job but most won’t stick around too long if they get a bit bored with it”. (*Interview 9, Volunteer, NMA*)

Table 9.1 provides some indication as to why male respondents and those aged above the median (40-49 years) were more committed to the organisations surveyed. As the frequency data indicates, a larger percentage of males and older respondents were employed in full-time permanent positions, had accrued longer tenure with their organisations and the majority had roles encompassing management responsibilities. In contrast, it was more common for females and younger respondents to demonstrate shorter organisational tenure and possess roles with no management responsibility. In regard to age, work status did not appear to vary between younger or older respondents, with the majority of workers employed in full-time permanent positions. Previous literature (Guest 1992) has identified various antecedents of high organisational commitment including the personal characteristic of age (older). Job responsibility was another item acknowledged as affecting commitment generation. Cuskelly’s (1995) study of volunteer sports administrators revealed that male volunteers had significantly

higher levels of organisational commitment compared to females. Aligned to this research, the current results suggest that the committed respondents were those males and older workers who had effectively invested their time into relatively secure jobs and were given opportunities to act accountably in these positions.

Table 9.1: Stage Two Respondents Based on Gender and Age

	Male	Female	Below Median Age	Above Median Age
Tenure				
1 month – 2 years	43%	54%	59%	35%
3+ years	57%	46%	41%	65%
Work Status (Paid Workers Only)				
Full-time Permanent	81%	64%	69%	65%
Management Level (Paid Workers Only)				
No Management Responsibilities	47%	57%	58%	35%
Management Responsibilities	53%	43%	42%	65%

9.2.4 Performance Outcomes –Turnover Cognitions and Job Satisfaction

9.2.4.1 Key Findings

- *Volunteers rated higher on the job satisfaction scale than paid staff (Table 8.39).*
- *Males rated higher on the job satisfaction scale and lower on the turnover scale than females, indicating that they were more satisfied and less likely to leave (Table 8.40).*
- *Respondents grouped above the median age (40-49 years) rated higher on the job satisfaction scales than their younger counterparts, indicating that they were more satisfied (Table 8.41).*
- *Weekly volunteers rated higher on the job satisfaction scale and lower on the turnover scale than fortnightly volunteers, indicating that they were more satisfied and less likely to leave (Table 8.42).*
- *Respondents grouped above the median in terms of satisfaction with flexibility practices scored lower on the turnover scale and higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were less likely to leave and more satisfied (Table 8.45).*
- *Respondents grouped above the median in terms of satisfaction with HR practices scored lower on the turnover scale and higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below, indicating that they were less likely to leave and more satisfied (Table 8.45).*

Performance outcomes comprise the final element of the partnership model. Representing the results of the convergence process, these outcomes were assessed

in terms of the subjective measures of turnover cognitions and job satisfaction. The Stage Two items used to rate turnover cognitions were based on the work of Mowday et al. (1984) and Mobley et al. (1978) and job satisfaction was measured using an instrument developed by Price and Mueller (1981; 1986). Various results involving these scales have already been discussed in relation to the other elements of the partnership model. For example, it was reported that the key research question of the study was partially supported when respondents, demonstrating a larger degree of convergence between their views on the availability and value of functional flexibility practices, rated higher on the job satisfaction scale (see 9.2.2.4). The following section will detail satisfaction and turnover results that have not yet been the subject of examination. As many of the findings appear related, the discussion of both performance outcomes will be combined.

9.2.4.2 Turnover Cognitions and Job Satisfaction

As can be seen from the key findings, a similar pattern emerged to that found in the case of the commitment scale, with volunteers, males and older respondents demonstrating more favourable responses in terms of the performance indicators, in particular job satisfaction (see Tables 8.39, 8.40 and 8.41). Although the partnership model did not propose a specific relationship between commitment and these outcomes, previous literature has suggested a close association between the variables. Turnover cognitions have been suggested as a mediating factor between commitment and actual labour turnover (Legge 1995). Job satisfaction has been espoused as a prospective antecedent of organisational commitment (Bagozzi 1980; Bartol 1979; Reichers 1985), an outcome of it (Bateman and Strasser 1984), while other studies have found no causal relationship between the variables (Curry et al. 1986). Despite these contradictions, Guest (1992) maintained that, “all of the studies show a complex relationship between satisfaction and commitment. They are strongly correlated, but the causality is not clearly from satisfaction to commitment”, (p. 121). Further analysis of the Stage Two data (see Table 9.2) points to relatively strong correlations (positive and negative) between all of the variables in question.

Table 9.2: Stage Two - Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Commitment Scale and Performance Outcomes

	1	2	3
1 Commitment Scale	--		
2 Job Satisfaction Scale	.64	--	
3 Turnover Cognitions Scale	-.57	-.48	--

Note. All coefficients are significant at $p < .01$.

Given the results of these measures of association, it appears reasonable to suggest that the reasons provided why volunteers, males and older respondents were more committed should also apply to any explanations of their more favourable ratings in terms of the performance outcomes. For example, a study by Pearce (1983) examined Staw's (1976) "sufficiency-of-justification" hypothesis (a potential factor behind volunteer commitment) and found that aligned with its effects, volunteers reported greater job satisfaction than paid staff working at separate (but comparable) organisations. The Stage Two finding that volunteers were more satisfied than paid staff lends further support to this early work. In relation to males and older workers, the findings regarding the superior organisational standing experienced by these respondents in terms of tenure, work status and management level (see Table 9.1), might also provide an explanation for their greater levels of satisfaction, and in the case of male respondents, their reduced likelihood of leaving the organisations in question.

Beyond these demographic factors, analysis of the performance outcomes uncovered significant differences depending upon the regularity with which volunteer respondents worked. It was found that weekly volunteers rated higher on the job satisfaction scale and lower on the turnover scale than fortnightly volunteers. This indicated that they were more satisfied and less likely withdraw their contributions from the organisations surveyed (see Table 8.42). The more favourable ratings achieved by weekly volunteers might be a product of their greater level of contact with the work environment, leading to greater opportunities to make use of their skills and enhanced interaction with fellow volunteers and paid staff. The motivations and expectations of certain unpaid workers might also affect the frequency with which they volunteer and their subsequent ratings in

terms of performance outcomes. Both museums recognised these differences within the context of their volunteer workforces:

“Well obviously there’s a variety or a diversity amongst the group. There’s certainly a group of about, ..., well follow through in that commitment in terms of the time that they give to the Museum. ..., I think there are many people that are here for the reasons that are traditionally outside what volunteering is about, it’s really much more aligned with work experience rather than the traditional idea of volunteering. And you know I don’t want to place those in a hierarchy, but they are; the intent behind them is slightly different”. (*Interview 18, Manager, MM*)

“I think hopefully my previous answers sort of indicated that some programs have a very dedicated pool of volunteers who, that’s their little niche and expertise, ..., and I think that’s the majority of them. However, we do, there is, ..., a proportion that sort of come in for maybe a 12 months tenure, particularly we find with students or people who, ..., for example hope that volunteering will lead to paid jobs and it may not necessarily work out in the time frame that they expect”. (*Interview 2, Manager, NMA*)

As a general overview of the flexibility practices and HR practices made available at both museums, respondents were asked to rate their satisfaction with them as a whole on a 5-point Likert scale. Significant testing (see Table 8.45) revealed that respondents grouped above the median in terms of their satisfaction with the flexible work options and HR practices offered scored lower on the turnover scale and higher on the job satisfaction scale than those grouped below. In other words, the greater the satisfaction ratings given by respondents to the practices provided, the less likely these workers (paid and unpaid) were to leave the organisations surveyed and the more satisfied they were with their jobs/roles. This result is indicative of the positive benefits that can accrue to organisations that invest in providing their paid staff and volunteers with flexible means of working, while addressing important human resource issues. These results may be qualified,

however, in relation to the organisations surveyed. The Stage Two data (see Appendix H) indicated that “work/volunteering conditions” (encompassing the flexibility and HR practices) had only a negligible to small effect on the three separate reasons provided as to why paid staff and volunteers choose to work at the NMA and the MM. It might be that while these practices do influence satisfaction and turnover, paid workers and volunteers assume that they will be made available to them as standard, particularly in the context of the relatively regulated and secure public sector framework within which both museums operate.

9.2.5 Equality (Research Question 8)

Before concluding discussion on the merits of the partnership model, the issue of equality of treatment afforded to paid staff and volunteers will be examined. The issue was identified as being important in the context of the Stage One qualitative data. It was determined that the research question would benefit from quantitative analysis to ascertain whether equal treatment applied to paid and unpaid workers would increase the probability of positive performance outcomes. Stage Two significance testing failed to differentiate between ratings on the job satisfaction scale and the turnover cognitions scale using the equality items as the grouping variables (see 8.2.3.3). In other words, job satisfaction levels and intention to leave did not vary in light of the extent to which respondents felt that flexibility practices and HR practices were made available equally to paid staff and volunteers. Based on these findings, the relative importance of equality as a stimulus for enhanced work outcomes might be questioned in relation to the partnership model. Having said that, however, it should be noted that the Stage Two qualitative data provided several examples of interviewees who acknowledged the value of equality of treatment:

“It is absolutely essential because we deal with the same client, we have to work well together. You know if there were issues of disunity or you know, a sense of us and them that would rebound on us very badly because I mean

85,000 school students come through here are, are ultimately are our critics”.
(*Interview 1, Manager, NMA*)

“I suppose it would be a bit hard with the different constraints to sort of have that total equality because, ..., you know, I suppose it’s slightly a different role, but to sort of integrate the volunteers more would be a really good thing if they wanted to”. (*Interview 6, Non-Management Paid Staff Member, NMA*)

Despite these insights, there was recognition of the secondary treatment paid staff can sometimes receive in comparison to volunteers. This detail also emerged in relation to the exploratory findings (see 7.3.1.5).

“I think there’s a greater level of care and concern for the health and well being of our volunteer staff, exhibited by our volunteer managers than there is by and large for the health and well being of our paid staff”. (*Interview 12, Manager, MM*)

“I would say that actually volunteers are treated or are getting better services than the paid staff, in with our Horizons program. That’s a, that’s a great thing. Maybe paid staff have some benefits which I don’t know, apart from money, ..., but, so I really feel volunteers are very well looked after, more so than perhaps the paid staff”. (*Interview 21, Volunteer, MM*)

Such insights highlight the importance of maintaining the delicate balance between paid and volunteer relations. The tailored approach to labour management suggested by the partnership model should better assist in identifying the various workplace needs of paid and unpaid workers and over time enhance relations between all organisational members (management, non-management paid staff and volunteers).

9.3 Chapter Summary

After discussing the Stage Two findings relating to the partnership model and revisiting topics of literature based on its underlying elements, its summary contribution to existing theory can be reviewed in terms of the research questions that accompanied the model.

Research Question 1

Does a larger degree of convergent flexibility between available flexibility practices and the flexibility needs of paid staff/volunteers increase the probability of positive performance outcomes?

Partial support was found for the key research question of the model. In relation to functional flexibility practices, the performance outcome of job satisfaction was found to be more positive the larger the degree of convergence between the perceived availability of these practices and the value placed on them by paid staff and volunteers (see 9.2.2.4). There were mixed findings in relation to the temporal and numerical flexibility practices studied.

Research Question 2-7

Do paid and unpaid staff working according to numerical/temporal/functional flexible practices respectively experience a low/moderate/high level of HR investment by organisations and demonstrate equivalent levels of organisational commitment?

Based on the analysis techniques and the test variables available, no differences were found on the basis of HR investment and commitment levels, regardless of whether paid staff worked in a functionally, temporally or numerically flexible manner. Furthermore, no distinction was made between HR investment and commitment levels using frequency of volunteering to differentiate between the volunteer respondents. In light of these findings (and subject to future testing), the merit of incorporating the HR investment and worker commitment continua into the partnership model (see Figure 6.2) should be questioned.

Research Question 8

Does a lesser difference between flexibility (numerical, temporal, functional) and HRM practices applied to paid and unpaid staff increase the probability of positive work outcomes between these human resources?

Based on the quantitative analysis techniques and the test variables available, the performance outcomes were found to be comparable regardless of the degree of difference in the equality variables. In other words, the extent to which flexible work options and HR practices were made available equally to paid staff and volunteers, did not appear to be a prevailing factor accounting for differences in the performance outcomes of respondents. Although, there were some qualitative indications that equality was valued, it would have to be said that based on these findings (and subject to further testing), this supposition cannot be presently supported.

Despite the less than overwhelming support for the research questions stemming from the partnership model, analysis and discussion of the Stage Two data did uncover many interesting insights into the workings of the various elements of the model (organisational dynamics, flexibility practices, HR investment and worker commitment continua and performance outcomes), the research sites involved in the study (the NMA and the MM) and the paid staff and volunteers who participated (including work status, gender and age differences). It is worthwhile noting the revised form of the partnership model (see Figure 8.2) resulting from the Stage Two regression analysis. This model suggests new relationships between the various elements and would benefit in time from further testing. The possible scope of this testing will be detailed in the concluding chapter of the thesis. For the present, the partnership model has succeeded in its objective of extending existing flexibility theory through the incorporation of a wider range of elements acknowledged as affecting labour flexibility and its move to recognise the contribution of unpaid workers in organisations.

CHAPTER 10 - CONCLUSION

10.1 Introduction

Over the course of this thesis, the partnership model of convergent flexibility has been developed and tested (Lockstone et al. 2003). The model has added to previous flexibility theories (Atkinson 1987; Piore and Sabel 1984) by incorporating organisational elements that have a potential impact on labour flexibility and by considering the implications of making flexible work options available to both volunteers and paid workers. Chapters 8 and 9 provided an in-depth examination of these implications. The present concluding chapter will provide an overall appraisal of the conceptual model, highlight significant management findings, identify data limitations and suggest directions for future research.

10.2 An Appraisal of the Conceptual Model

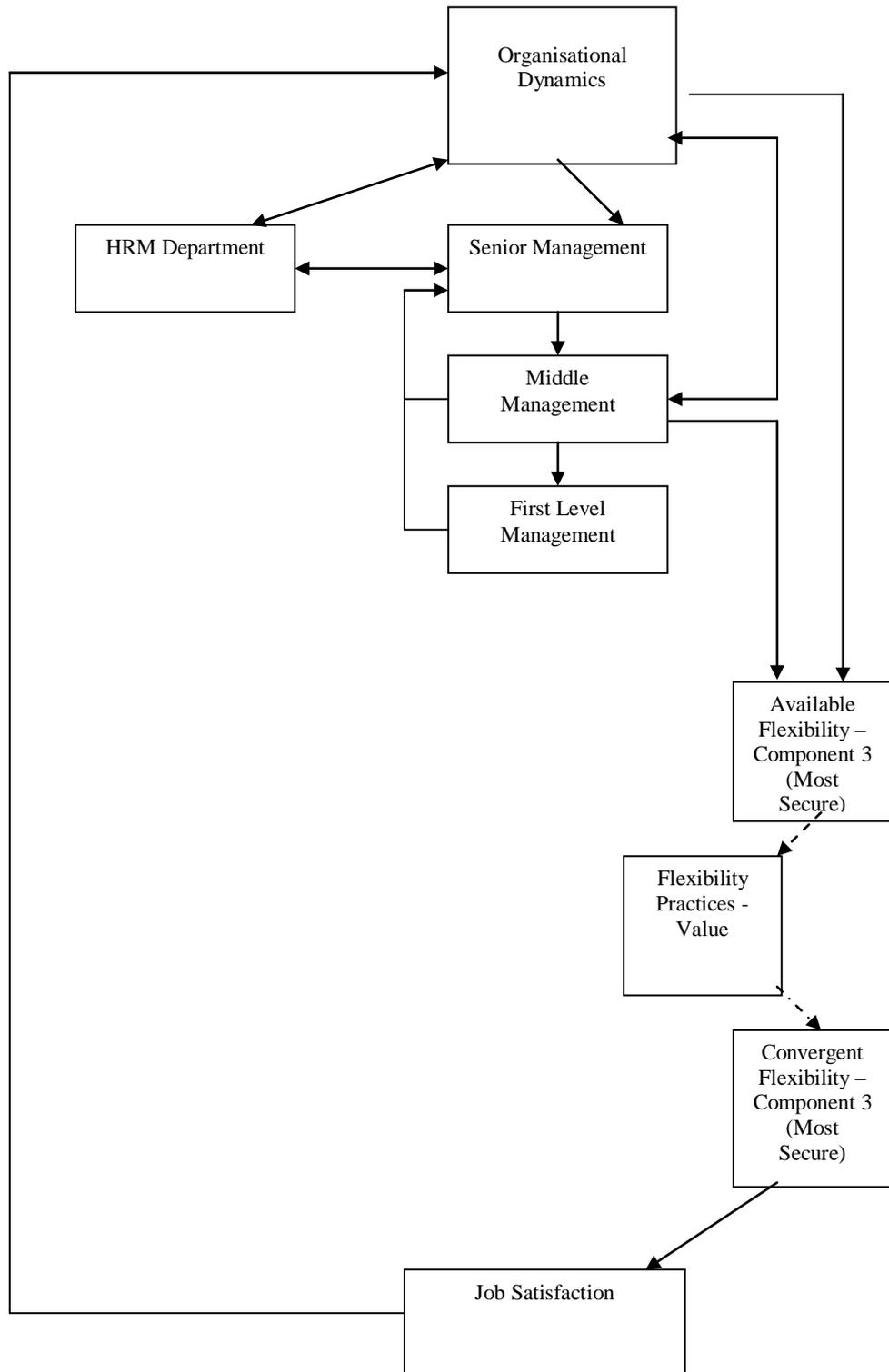
Revisions were suggested to the partnership model as originally conceptualised based on the Stage Two data. To facilitate comparison between the original version (Figure 6.2) and the revised version (Figure 8.2), the two models have been replicated as Figure 10.1 (revised) and Figure 10.2 (original). In comparing the models, a number of salient points are evident:

- The original model proposed that performance outcomes would be enhanced when the flexibility needs of employees and volunteers converged with the flexibility practices offered (numerical, temporal, functional) (Research Question 1). In the present study and with a view to providing a measure of convergence, the availability rating for each flexible work option was subtracted from the corresponding value rating (representing employee/volunteer flexibility needs). Using these measures, the regression analysis (see Table 8.48k) provided partial support for the research question. In the case of job enlargement and job enrichment, the convergence component representing these “most secure” practices predicted variance in job satisfaction. These functional practices did not,

however, account for changes in the model's other performance outcome, namely turnover cognitions. The remaining convergence components (see Table 8.20), representing "least secure" (component 1) and "moderately secure" (component 2) flexibility practices, were deleted from the stepwise analysis due to their poor prediction of either performance outcome. In view of these findings, the link proposed in the original model between functional flexibility and the performance outcomes (specifically job satisfaction) stands. The revised version, however, scraps the connection between numerical/temporal work practices and the performance outcomes (see Figure 10.1).

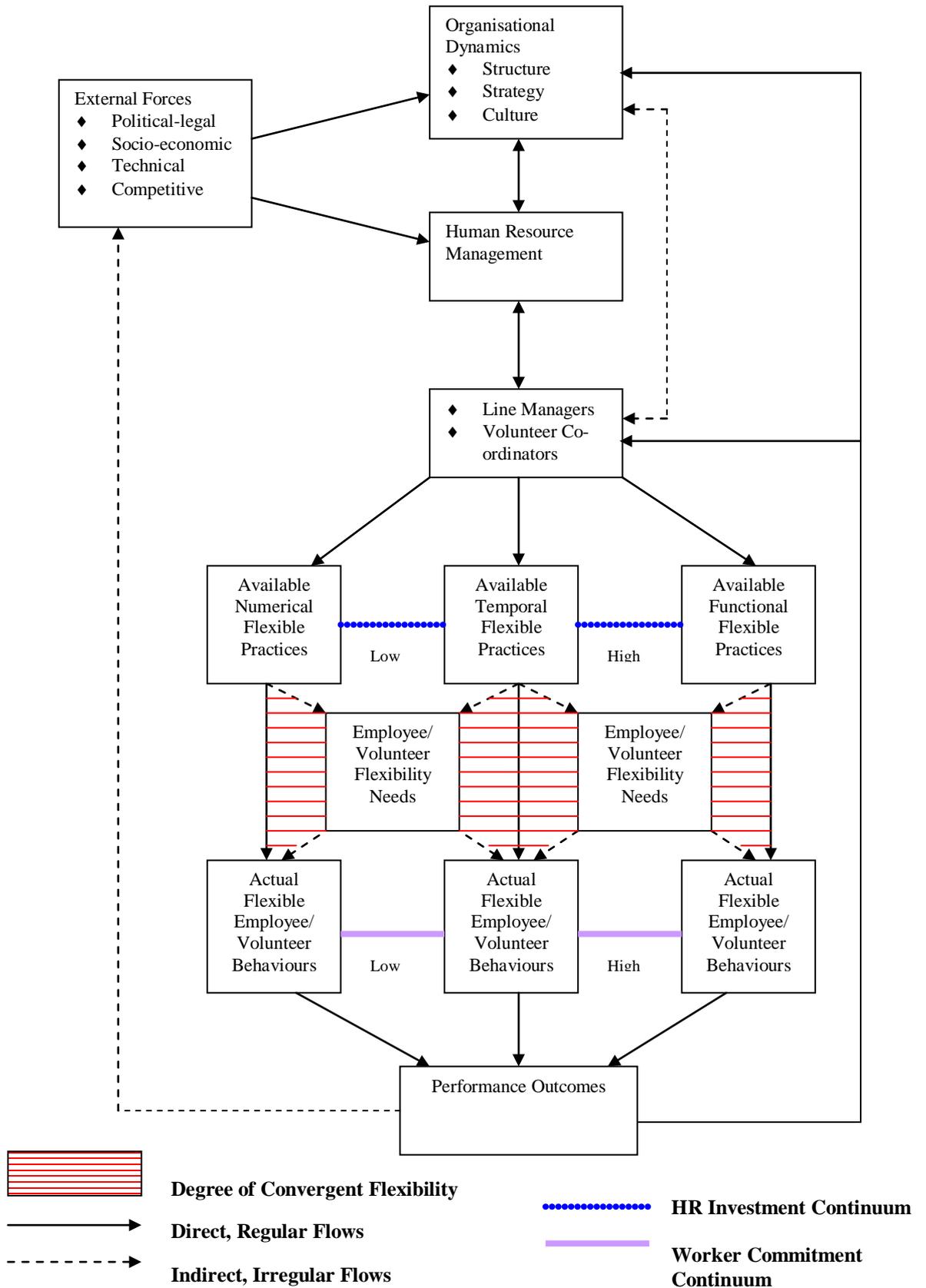
- Within the original model, the role of HRM was viewed as integral to understanding the key relationships. Drawing upon the findings of previous literature (Legge 1995; Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall 1988), a reciprocal relationship was proposed between HRM and various organisational dynamics factors (structure, strategy, culture). The findings of the relevant regression equations (see Table 8.48a and Table 8.48h) revealed a mutual relationship between these factors in relation to strategy. The attempt to identify equivalent links using the other dynamics was however unsuccessful. In the case of the organisations surveyed, it was found that the HR function was not as fully integrated as had originally been suggested. With strategy being a key driver behind the degree of HR contact, the results (see Table 8.48f) suggested that interaction with the HR function was confined to senior management (excluding middle and first level managers). That said, the original model (see Figure 6.1b) did recognise that organisational dynamics could affect the decisions of line managers indirectly with the HRM role being bypassed. This view was confirmed by the finding that two cultural traits (adaptability and consistency) predicted middle management contact (see Table 8.48c). Taking these results into account, the revised model as set out in Figure 10.1, depicts the HRM function as less central than was originally proposed.

Figure 10.1: Stage Two - Revised Partnership Model of Convergent Flexibility



— Direct Flows
 - - - Indirect Flows

Figure 10.2: Partnership Model of Convergent Flexibility in Organisations



- The original model proposed that the various forms of flexibility could be placed along a continuum of HR investment. Worker commitment was plotted on a separate continuum. In attempting to explain these relationships, Research Questions 2-7 proposed that where paid staff and volunteers work according to numerical, temporal or functional flexible practices, they would experience respective (low, moderate, high) levels of HR investment and demonstrate equivalent levels of worker commitment. As set out in Table 8.38, descriptive analysis and significance testing failed to highlight any differentiation in HR investment and organisational commitment levels on the basis of work status and volunteering frequency. The findings led the author to remove both continua from the revised model.

By incorporating these changes, the revised version of the partnership model offers a pragmatic representation of the provision of flexibility practices in the organisations surveyed. This “how it really is” perspective differs from the “ideal” proposed in the original model. Further revisions may arise as a result of future research depending upon the relevant organisational and industry settings. Specific directions for this research will be elaborated upon later in this chapter.

10.3 Significance of the Findings for Management

A substantial quantity of data was collected in the course of undertaking the present study. During Stages One and Two, the elements of strategy, structure, organisational culture, HR practices and worker commitment were investigated. With a view to providing concise conclusions, it was considered to be too expansive a task to include comment on the management significance of each of these findings. Since organisational flexibility was the main focus of the partnership model, comment was confined to examining those flexibility results with implications for the management of paid staff and volunteers. These results will now be examined in terms of available, valued and convergence flexibility practices.

10.3.1 Available Flexibility Practices

Based on the results of significance testing that are outlined in Table 8.43, positive outcomes were associated with the provision to paid staff and volunteers of certain flexibility practices. These practices by flexibility form and benefit type are classified in Table 10.1.

Table 10.1: Available Flexibility Practices Associated with Performance Outcomes

	Turnover Cognitions (Lower Mean Scores)	Job Satisfaction (Higher Mean Scores)
Functional Flexibility (Above Median)	Job Enlargement Job Rotation	Job Enlargement Job Enrichment Job Rotation
Temporal Flexibility (Above Median)	Voluntary Reduced Hours	Voluntary Reduced Hours Flexitime

It is a notable finding for management that paid staff and volunteer respondents who rated more highly the availability of job enlargement and job rotation in the organisations surveyed (i.e. they were grouped above the median), were generally more satisfied and were less likely to leave. There was a similar finding in relation to the temporal flexibility practice of voluntary reduced hours. The prospects that they offer for skill development and opportunities to pursue domestic or other interests may explain respectively why these functional and temporal practices were associated with enhanced performance outcomes.

10.3.2 Valued Flexibility Practices

The evaluation of flexibility practices in Stage Two offered insights into the flexibility needs of paid staff and volunteers. Separate testing (see Tables 8.39-8.41) identified significant differences in how practices were valued on the basis of work status (paid staff, volunteer), gender (male, female) and age (below and above the median of 40-49 years). These differences are detailed in Table 10.2. The results indicated that paid staff and females rated the value of job sharing (numerical flexibility) more highly than their volunteer and male counterparts. This parallel is unsurprising in the context of the organisations surveyed given that 74%

of all paid worker respondents were female (see Appendix G). The findings outlined in Table 10.2 offer a potential guide for museums and other organisations assessing what flexibility practices are valued by workers fitting a certain demographic profile, albeit subject to further testing.

Table 10.2: Valued Flexibility Practices Associated with Demographic Indicators

	Paid Staff	Volunteer	Male	Female	Age (Below Median) 40-49 years	Age (Above Median) 40-49 years
Functional Flexibility (Above Median)		Job Rotation		Job Rotation	Job Enrichment	
Temporal Flexibility (Above Median)		Zero Hours Contracts Voluntary Reduced Hours		Part-time Permanent Work	Flexitime	
Numerical Flexibility (Above Median)	Job Sharing			Job Sharing Fixed-term Contracts		

10.3.3 Flexibility Practices – Convergence (Research Question 1)

It was to be expected that being a composite of the availability and value data, testing of the convergence measures would reflect the positive outcomes associated with certain available flexibility practices (see 10.3.1). The basic premise of Research Question 1 was supported in relation to functional flexibility. The results of significance testing (see Table 8.35) suggested that a greater degree of convergence between respondents' views on the availability and value of job enrichment and job rotation was associated with greater job satisfaction. Cluster and regression analysis further endorsed the positive link between job satisfaction and the convergence measures associated with functional flexibility practices.

The reasons why managers may wish to maximise convergence flexibility have now been quantitatively established. The Stages One and Two qualitative data provided insights into the implications of this. The notion of partnership is central to the concept of convergent flexibility. It has become clear that organisations

seeking to determine the flexibility needs of their paid staff and volunteers and to adapt work methods accordingly, can only do so if they move away from the employer-centered approaches of seminal flexibility theorists such as Atkinson (1984; 1987). They must adopt a more balanced approach towards flexibility. The Stage Two qualitative data (see 9.2.2.4) provided relevant examples from both museums of managing flexibility with a view to accounting for the needs of both paid staff and volunteers. Maintaining their somewhat tenuous organisational links is vitally important in the case of volunteers. It is essential to assess whether flexibility practices help to foster volunteer interests and ultimately to assist organisations in their struggle to retain the services of this group. Alternatively some of the characteristics associated with these practices (new roles, added tasks or variations to working times) might overwhelm volunteers, leading to the opposite outcome.

Managers would be well advised to investigate the extent to which their organisations are able to accommodate the operation of various flexibility practices, in view of the influence of structural factors and the level of HR support that may be available. The high levels of job specialisation at the NMA and MM associated with the various museum activities (for example research, conservation and exhibitions) were acknowledged as limiting the potential operation of job rotation programs (see 9.2.2.2). Closely aligned to the partnership approach, Sheridan and Conway (2001) have argued that the HR function should play a key role in managing the concept of mutual flexibility. The Stage Two quantitative and qualitative data suggested that while the basic framework for adopting a partnership approach to convergence flexibility was already in existence at both museums, its delivery might benefit from the further integration of organisational resources including the HR function (see 9.2.2.4) and a more proactive attitude to the task of ascertaining and adapting work practices to the flexibility needs of paid staff and volunteers.

As was the case with Atkinson's theory (1984), the partnership model acknowledges the drive of many organisations to generate profits. A thorough

economic analysis is likely to be required as part of any management investigation into the viability of introducing flexibility practices to paid and unpaid workers. Managers and volunteer co-ordinators should give careful thought to ensuring that any proposed initiative involving volunteers does not encroach upon or substitute for the work undertaken by paid staff. Whilst a further constraint, this reality check may ultimately improve the effectiveness of the planning process.

10.3.4 Flexibility Practices – The Final Word

The Stage Two data provided a general assessment (separate from the availability, valued and convergence variables) of the level of satisfaction at both museums with the flexibility practices offered. Significance testing (see Table 8.45) revealed that the greater the satisfaction ratings given to the flexibility practices provided, the less likely that workers (paid and unpaid) were to leave the organisations surveyed and the more satisfied they were with their jobs/roles. This finding is indicative of the positive benefits accruing to organisations that provide their paid staff and volunteers with flexible means of working. These results may be moderated by other findings (see 9.2.4.2) indicating that “work/volunteering conditions” (encompassing flexibility practices) was a comparatively minor reason behind the choice of paid staff and volunteers to work at the NMA and the MM. Whilst such practices do influence satisfaction and turnover, paid workers and volunteers in such relatively secure public sector organisations may assume that they would be available as standard. Without discounting the positive findings of the present investigation, future testing may be needed to establish which factors, if any, have a greater influence on job satisfaction and turnover cognitions in flexible organisations. A proposed research agenda will be outlined late in this chapter. The limitations of the current study will now be reviewed with a view to identifying gaps which lead to the proposed future agenda.

10.4 Limitations

To fully assess the potential contribution of the present thesis, it is important to acknowledge its various limitations. Some considerations relating to the research

design and analysis methods used as part of the two-stage methodology are outlined in the following section.

The cross-sectional design of both research stages meant that it was difficult to establish causal relationships between the study variables. Whilst testing was able to determine correlated variables, ordering them was problematic. For example, Stage Two results (see Table 9.2) indicated that the commitment and job satisfaction scales were strongly correlated. Given the constraints of the study design, however, it was not possible to tell whether satisfaction caused commitment or visa versa. De Vaus (2001) argued that cross-sectional designs can compensate for their lack of temporal ordering through the testing of *a priori* models. It is the author's view that while testing of such models does not prove causality, "it at least provides a theoretical basis for arguing a case and provides empirical data that at least are consistent with this" (p. 180). The process that has been adopted to evaluate the partnership model may be seen in this light. De Vaus (2001) has noted that the next step in testing would be to adopt a design (for example, longitudinal) that would enable causality to be established.

In Stages One and Two, convenience (non-probability) samples were used. This means that "projecting the results beyond the specific sample is inappropriate", (Zikmund 1997, p. 428). This particular sampling procedure was considered to be the best available option in the case of Stage One because the boundaries of the working population were unknown. Information highlighting the breakdown of paid and volunteer workers in the museums/galleries, visitor information centres and visitor attractions surveyed was not readily available. Considerable expenditure (time and cost) would have been required to refine details of the sampling frame prior to study. This expenditure was deemed unwarranted since Stage One was exploratory. In the case of Stage Two of the study, various issues determined the use of a non-probability sampling technique. Based on the response rates during earlier stages (Stage One, Stage Two pilot testing) and the size of the working population, it was felt that if a probability technique had been employed, then the sample size would be significantly diminished. This concession was made

to address the interests of the industry partners in maximising paid staff and volunteer feedback, as well as the wider needs of the study, and to ensure access to a greater number of potential respondents.

The quantitative component of both research stages yielded response rates of approximately 30%. In reporting on the administration and responses to the Stage One survey (see 6.3.2.3), it was noted that Zikmund (1997), citing Erdos (1970), suggested that without further verification no mail survey could be considered reliable unless a minimum 50% response rate is obtained. Other sources (Denison and Mishra 1995, p. 217 citing Henderson 1990; Paxson 1995) have acknowledged a trend towards the inevitable acceptance of low response rates, equivalent to those experienced in the current study. A number of cases contained missing data for certain variables and this may also have led to some nonresponse bias. Since a limited number of responses were received (Stage One n=167, Stage Two n=284), the cases in question were retained.

De Vaus (2002) has noted that statistical inference only makes sense when probability samples are used. Consistent with this view, the tests of significance and certain other techniques used to analyse the Stage One and Stage Two data cannot be interpreted as inferential statistics in the true sense. It is, however, becoming increasingly common for social science journals to publish papers incorporating the results of significance testing based on non-probability samples (de Vaus 2002). Nonresponse bias may be expected to impact upon the resulting data analysis. If the achieved sample size had been larger, certain weak to moderate relationships found as a result of the Stage Two regression analysis might have been improved. If the cluster sizes of the Stage One and Stage Two solutions had been increased, their explanatory value might have been enhanced.

Other methodological qualifications affecting the current study:

- Skewed results on particular variables. Table 8.34 indicated that the distribution of both paid staff and volunteers on the job satisfaction scale

was non-symmetrical. In their study of service quality provided by paid staff and volunteers, Jago and Deery (2002) cautioned that “the skewing of data at the top end of the scale in each item reduces the ability to discriminate” (p. 232). This observation would be applicable to the results of Stages One and Two.

- Mintzberg (1979) commented that contingency theorists rely on perceptual measures when conducting research. He noted that researchers question people’s perceptions of reality where more objective yardsticks are absent. How these perceptions relate to the reality they are supposed to describe is not gauged. Mintzberg’s commentary is relevant to many aspects of social research. In the case of the current study, perceptual measures were used to represent various elements of the model including worker commitment, organisational culture, job satisfaction and turnover cognitions.
- Keyword searches were used to extract themes from the Stage One and Two qualitative data. However, it has previously been noted that this method is only suitable in the case of smaller-scale research projects (Anderson and Shaw 1999). Since the interview data for the current study was intended primarily to support the quantitative findings, such an approach was considered to be appropriate.

Despite the limitations that have been mentioned, the expansive nature of the data collected over various stages of the study, provides considerable insights into how paid staff and volunteers perceive issues relating to flexible work options, while simultaneously laying the foundation for future research activity relating to the partnership model of convergent flexibility.

10.5 Opportunities for Further Research

The need for ongoing research is evident, given the level of support found for the application of convergence processes towards certain flexible work practices. Several research avenues have been proposed in the previous discussion of the

Stage Two results (see Chapter 9). These specific suggestions are reviewed in the section which follows.

Any discussion on the future of the partnership model should acknowledge the recommendation of de Vaus (2001) that an appropriate research design (for example, longitudinal) should enable causality to be established amongst the various elements of the *a priori* model. It is noted that the cross-sectional design adopted for the purposes of the present study precluded an adequate examination of certain relationships depicted in the original model (replicated in Figure 10.2) and is a limitation. Namely, the effect of external forces upon organisational dynamics and the HR function, the relationship between performance outcomes and the feedback loop to external forces and finally the influence of direct flows resulting from these outcomes back to managers/co-ordinators and the organisational dynamics. With a view to providing a template for future research, the revised model (replicated in Figure 10.1) retained the feedback loop from performance outcomes to the organisational dynamics. It was intended that further testing would evaluate its theoretical merit (incorporating a time component in the research design).

Further testing of the partnership model should be based on probability sampling techniques using larger sample sizes. If the findings were generalised beyond sample boundaries to the wider population, the explanatory power of the model would be enhanced. Adopting a comparative dimension in such studies would allow determination of the relevance of the model to other industries or sectors that rely upon the integrated work efforts of paid staff and volunteers (for example, community/welfare, sport/recreation, emergency services). They might also allow the impact of organisational size to be taken into account, as compared to the current study, which collected Stage Two data only from two relatively large organisations. In the process of undertaking such research, it would be useful to clarify the effects of the temporal and numerical convergence process on the performance outcomes (see 9.2.2.4). At present, the current results only support the positive link between functional flexibility and job satisfaction.

In building further upon the present research, improved operationalisation of certain elements of the model would be beneficial. In particular:

- Future testing of the partnership model could include some means of weighting the two factors that determine convergence, availability and value, to ascertain which is the more important driver behind such convergence evaluations.
- Altering or using different variables to represent the various management levels (senior, middle, first-level) might enhance their proposed links to the organisational dynamics (see 9.2.1.2).

Taking into account both the current research and the proposed future agenda, the thesis provides a strong case for establishing the partnership model of convergent flexibility amongst the evolving fields of flexibility and volunteer research.

10.6 Concluding Comments

In this concluding chapter, the conceptual model has been appraised, significant management findings have been highlighted, data limitations identified and an agenda for future research provided. The research contribution of the partnership model of convergent flexibility (Lockstone et al. 2003) may be summarised as follows:

- Embedding flexible work options within the broader organisational landscape, incorporating the elements of structure, strategy, culture, human resource management and worker commitment.
- Recognising the contribution of unpaid workers in organisations. Moving beyond the traditional domain of flexibility theory, the paid workforce, to assess the practical value of this theoretical base in terms of volunteer retention and satisfaction.

- Finding positive support for the convergence concept, suggesting that when the provision of certain flexibility practices is considered in light of the flexibility needs of paid staff and volunteers, performance outcomes will be enhanced.

Hopefully the advances that have been reported in this thesis will inspire others to instigate research that builds on and extends knowledge beyond the parameters of the current study.

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APPENDIX A - STAGE ONE QUESTIONNAIRE

MANAGING VOLUNTEERS AND PAID WORKERS IN FLEXIBLE ORGANISATIONS

Victoria University with the assistance of the Melbourne Museum and the National Museum of Australia is undertaking a survey to examine working relations between volunteers and paid workers in the tourism sector, focusing in particular on the museums sector and visitor information services. We would like you to contribute by taking a few minutes to complete this questionnaire. **The information you provide will remain strictly confidential and will not be forwarded to any third parties.** By contributing you will be providing invaluable insight into a project that aims to develop strategies for the effective management of volunteer and paid workforces.

ORGANISATION DETAILS

1. What category best describes your organisation? Please circle the appropriate response
 Museum/Gallery **1** Visitor Information Centre **2** Visitor Attraction **3**

2. In which suburb is your organisation principally located? _____

3. What year was your organisation established? _____

4. What was the operational budget of your organisation for the financial year 2001/2002? Please circle the appropriate response

\$0-10,000	1	\$100,001-250,000	5
\$10,001-20,000	2	\$251,000-500,000	6
\$20,001-50,000	3	\$500,000-1,000,000	7
\$50,001-100,000	4	\$1million+	8

5. What is the approximate size of your *paid* and *volunteer* workforce?

	Paid Full-time Workers (work more than 35 hours per week)	Paid Part-time Workers (work less than 35 hours per week)	Volunteers
Male			
Female			
Total Number			

6. Please estimate how many *paid* workers and *volunteers* fall into the following categories:

	Employed by/joined organisation during 2001	Left organisation during 2001
Paid workers		
Volunteers		

7. Please estimate the number of current *volunteers* that have worked for:

Less than 2 months	
2-6 months	
7-11 months	
1-2 years	
3-5 years	
6+ years	
Total Number of Volunteers	

8. Approximately how many *paid* workers work directly with *volunteers* on a daily basis? _____

9. Approximately how many *paid* workers (apart from yourself) in your organisation supervise *volunteers* on a daily basis? _____

ORGANISATIONAL FLEXIBILITY

10. Please insert a number from the following scale to indicate how often your organisation uses the following flexible work practices in relation to the *paid* and *volunteer* workforces? Where 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Always and 0=not applicable

	Paid	Volunteer
Job rotation - <i>shifting workers between various areas of responsibility</i>		
Job enrichment – <i>providing workers with tasks that improve work quality</i>		
Job enlargement – <i>providing workers with tasks that extend the content or quantity of work</i>		
Fixed-term contracts or assignments - <i>workers are utilised for a limited but specified period of time</i>		
Flexitime - <i>working hours can be varied, however, a certain number of hours must be worked within a specified time period (usually a month)</i>		
Zero hours contracts or work arrangements - <i>contracts or work arrangements which do not specify hours so that the worker only works when requested by the organisation</i>		
Variable hours contracts or work arrangements - <i>similar to zero-hours contracts or arrangements, however, a minimum number of hours per week is specified (but no maximum)</i>		
Shift working		
Job-sharing		

11. How often does your organisation use agency, contract or sub-contract workers? Please circle the appropriate response

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5

12. Please estimate the number of *volunteers* in your organisation that work:

On a weekly basis	
On a fortnightly basis	
On a monthly basis	
Total Number of Volunteers	

13. In your organisation, over the course of a typical week please indicate:

The minimum number of hours that an individual volunteer might work _____
 The average number of hours that an individual volunteer might work _____
 The maximum number of hours that an individual volunteer might work _____

14. What determines work scheduling of *volunteer* hours for your organisation?

Scheduling based primarily on availability as indicated by volunteers **1 Go to q. 16**
 Scheduling based primarily on volunteer co-ordinator/manager decisions **2**
 Scheduling based on mutual agreement between volunteers and co-ordinator/managers **3**

15. If you selected option 2 or 3 of question 13, please indicate how often *volunteer* work patterns in your organisation are arranged as follows:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Shifts of a set number of hours, arranged on a regular basis	1	2	3	4	5
Shifts of a variable number of hours, arranged on a regular basis	1	2	3	4	5
The volunteer works on an irregular basis, only at the request of the co-ordinator/manager	1	2	3	4	5

16. Please list the three most frequently performed tasks of *paid* and *volunteer* workers in your organisation, in order of importance. (For example, administration/clerical work, day-to-day coordinating/supervising, providing information, guiding tours and sales/bookings).

	Paid Workforce	Volunteer Workforce
Task 1	_____	_____
Task 2	_____	_____
Task 3	_____	_____

17. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements as they relate to your organisation:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Paid staff have more responsibility in their jobs than volunteer workers	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers are more motivated to work than paid staff	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers are more difficult to manage/supervise than paid staff	1	2	3	4	5
Paid staff require less direction when performing tasks than volunteers	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers perform similar tasks to paid workers	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers work on more routine and easier tasks than paid staff	1	2	3	4	5

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES
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18. Please insert a number from the following scale to indicate how often your organisation uses the following human resource practices in relation to the *paid* and *volunteer* workforces? Where 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=Always and 0=not applicable

Human Resource Practices	Paid	Volunteer
External training (courses, seminars)		
Internal training (induction, on-site courses)		
Career planning		
Performance assessment		
Job descriptions		
Complaint handling procedures		

19. How often does your organisation conduct joint activities between the *paid* and *volunteer* workforce?

Please circle the appropriate response

Human Resource Practices	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Joint training sessions	1	2	3	4	5
Joint social functions	1	2	3	4	5

20. Please indicate if your organisation has developed the following items:

A written corporate/business strategy	YES	NO
A written human resource management strategy	YES	NO
A written volunteer policy	YES	NO
An enterprise bargaining agreement outlining the roles of paid and volunteer staff	YES	NO

21. Please indicate what methods your organisation uses to communicate with the *paid* and *volunteer* workforce. Circle the appropriate response

Communication Methods	Paid Workforce		Volunteer Workforce	
	YES	NO	YES	NO
Team briefings	YES	NO	YES	NO
Opinion surveys	YES	NO	YES	NO
Suggestion boxes	YES	NO	YES	NO
Newsletters	YES	NO	YES	NO
Notice boards	YES	NO	YES	NO
Email	YES	NO	YES	NO
Letters	YES	NO	YES	NO
Communal message book	YES	NO	YES	NO
Informal communication – Supervisor feedback	YES	NO	YES	NO

22. Please indicate what methods your organisation uses to recruit the *paid* and *volunteer* workforce. Circle the appropriate response

Recruitment Methods	Paid Workforce		Volunteer Workforce	
	YES	NO	YES	NO
Local/national media	YES	NO	YES	NO
Word of mouth	YES	NO	YES	NO
Unsolicited direct applications	YES	NO	YES	NO
Solicited direct applications	YES	NO	YES	NO
General/specialist employment agencies	YES	NO	YES	NO

23. In your opinion, how would you rate the relationship between *paid* and *volunteer* workers at your organisation overall?

Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good
1	2	3	4	5

RESPONDENT DETAILS

24. What statement best describes your role in the organization? Circle the appropriate response

Volunteer co-ordinator/manager paid 1 Supervisor/manager of paid & volunteer workers 3
 Volunteer co-ordinator/manager unpaid 2 Supervisor/manager of paid workers only 4

Other – Please specify _____

25. In your present role, how many *paid* workers and/or *volunteers* do you manage/coordinate?

Paid workers _____ Volunteers _____ Total _____

26. Please indicate your gender.

Male 1 Female 2

27. What is your age range? Please circle the appropriate response

18-29 years 1 40-49 years 3 60+ years 5
 30-39 years 2 50-59 years 4

28. Which statement best describes your highest level of education? Circle the appropriate response

Some secondary school 1 Completed/studying a tertiary diploma or degree 4
 Completed Matriculation/HSC/VCE 2 Post graduate 5
 Completed/studying at TAFE or equivalent 3

Other – Please specify _____

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS PROJECT

APPENDIX B - STAGE ONE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

MANAGING VOLUNTEERS AND PAID WORKERS IN FLEXIBLE ORGANISATIONS

Interview Guide

Victoria University is undertaking a project to examine working relations between volunteers and paid workers in the tourism industry and museums sector. We would like to thank you for participating in the following interview. **The information you provide will remain strictly confidential and will not be forwarded to any third parties.** By contributing you will be providing an invaluable insight into a project that aims to develop strategies for the effective management of volunteer and paid workforces.

Paid and Unpaid Workers

1. Brainstorm words to describe your organisation, your paid staff and your volunteers.
2. What types of activities/tasks do volunteers and paid staff undertake in your organisation? (similarities/differences)
3. On average, what is the length of tenure of volunteers and paid staff in your organisation?
4. On average, what is the number of hours a volunteer might work each week for your organisation?
5. What is the composition of your paid workforce? (full-time/part-time workers)
6. Are you satisfied with your current level of volunteer staffing?

Management of Paid and Unpaid Workers

7. What factors influence volunteer recruitment for your organisation?
8. What factors determine work scheduling of volunteer hours for your organisation? (volunteer choice, co-ordinator/manager decisions, mutual agreement, other factors)
9. Does your organisation utilise any flexible work practices in relation to the paid workforce? (List practices)
10. Does your organisation utilise any flexible work practices in relation to the volunteer workforce? (List practices)
11. What are the benefits of these practices?
12. What are the disadvantages of these practices?
13. Are these flexible work practices influenced by an internal business strategy, organisational structure or human resource management policies?
14. Who coordinates the operation of these flexible work practices? (HR department, volunteer co-ordinator directly)

Overview

15. What benefits arise from having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
16. What difficulties arise from having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
17. How do you see the relationship of volunteers with paid staff in your organisation? How has the relationship changed over time?
18. What, if anything, could be done to improve the relationship between the volunteer and paid workforce?
19. What are the two main challenges facing your organisation during the next 12 months?

Closing comments?

**APPENDIX C - STAGE TWO QUESTIONNAIRE
(PAID WORKER VERSION)**

Question 10. How were you recruited to work at NMA? Please circle one response only

Saw ad/report in media	1	Approached the organisation myself	4
Word of mouth	2	Through an employment agency	5
Approached by the organisation	3		

Question 11. In your current position, to what extent do you have contact with the following organisational members? Please circle

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Senior managers	1	2	3	4	5
Middle managers	1	2	3	4	5
First-level managers	1	2	3	4	5
Human resource management department	1	2	3	4	5
Non-supervisory paid staff	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteers	1	2	3	4	5

Question 12. To what extent do the following strategy items influence your job at NMA on a day-to-day basis? Please circle

	Very Little	Little	Moderately	Greatly	Very Greatly
Corporate/business strategy	1	2	3	4	5
Human resource management strategy	1	2	3	4	5
Volunteer policy	1	2	3	4	5
Enterprise bargaining agreement outlining the roles of paid and volunteer staff	1	2	3	4	5

Question 13. Please list your reasons for working at NMA, in order of importance.

(For example, pay, fringe benefits, promotions, personal satisfaction, skill development)

Reason 1 _____

Reason 2 _____

Reason 3 _____

Question 14. Please insert a number in each box to indicate the extent to which each statement accurately describes NMA. Where 1=Almost no extent, 2=A slight extent, 3=A moderate extent, 4=A considerable extent, 5=A very great extent

The organisation has clear rules and regulations that everybody is expected to follow closely

Policies in the organisation are reviewed by the people they affect before being implemented

In the organisation a major concern is that everyone be allowed to develop their talents and abilities

Everyone in the organisation knows who their immediate supervisor is; reporting relationships are clearly defined

Jobs in the organisation are clearly defined; everyone knows exactly what is expected of a person in any specific job position

Work groups are typically temporary and change often in the organisation

All decisions in the organisation must be reviewed and approved by upper level management

In the organisation the emphasis is on adapting effectively to constant environmental change

Jobs in the organisation are usually broken down into highly specialised, smaller tasks

Standard activities in the organisation are always covered by clearly outlined procedures that define the sequence of actions that everyone is expected to follow

SECTION 2: ORGANISATIONAL DETAILS

Question 15. Thinking of your feelings about NMA as a place to work, please insert a number in each box to indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Where:

- 1=Strongly disagree**
- 2=Disagree**
- 3=Neutral**
- 4=Agree**
- 5=Strongly agree**

NUMBER



NUMBER



I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful		For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work	
I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for		Deciding to work for this organisation was a definite mistake on my part	
I feel very little loyalty to this organisation		I will probably look for a new job in the near future	
I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation		At the present time, I am actively searching for another job in a different organisation	
I find my values and the organisation's values are very similar		I do not intend to quit my paid job	
I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation		It is unlikely that I will actively look for a different organisation to work for in the next year	
I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type of work were similar		I am not thinking about quitting my job at the present time	
This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of work performance		I find real enjoyment in my job	
It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organisation		I like my job better than the average person does	
I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for over the others I was considering at the time I joined		I am seldom bored with my job	
There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely		I would not consider taking another kind of job	
Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organisation's policies on important matters relating to its paid workers		Most days I am enthusiastic about my job	
I really care about the fate of this organisation		I feel fairly well satisfied with my job	

Question 16. Thinking about NMA as a whole and the way things are usually done, please insert a number in each box to indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Where:

- 1=Strongly disagree**
- 2=Disagree**
- 3=Neutral**
- 4=Agree**
- 5=Strongly agree**
- 0=Unsure**

NUMBER



NUMBER



In this organisation I find that:

In this organisation I find that:

Most employees and volunteers are highly involved in their work		The way things are done is very flexible and easy to change	
Decisions are usually made at the level where the best information is available		Management is responsive external changes (political, legal, social, economic, competitive, technical)	
Information is widely shared so that everyone can get the information he or she needs when it's needed		New and improved ways to do work are continuously adopted	
Everyone believes that she or he can have a positive impact		Attempts to create change usually meet with resistance	
Business planning is ongoing and everyone is involved in the process to some degree		Different parts of the organisation often co-operate to create change	
Co-operation across different parts of the organisation is actively encouraged		Customer comments and recommendations often lead to changes	
People work like they are part of a team		Customer input directly influences decisions made	
Teamwork is used to get work done, rather than through a chain of command		All paid staff and volunteers have a deep understanding of customer wants and needs	
Teams are the primary building blocks of the organisation		The interests of the customer often get ignored in organisational decisions	
Work is organised so that each person can see the relationship between their role and the goals of the organisation		Direct contact with customers is encouraged	
Authority is delegated so that people can act on their own		Mistakes are viewed as opportunities to learn and improve	
The capability of people is constantly improving		Innovation and risk taking are encouraged and rewarded	
There is continuous investment in the skills of paid staff and volunteers		Lots of things get overlooked	
The capabilities of people are viewed as being an important contributor to positive visitor experiences		Learning is an important objective in our day-to-day work	

Question 16. continued Where 1=Strongly disagree, 2 Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly agree, 0=Unsure

In this organisation I find that:



In this organisation I find that:



Problems arise because there are not the skills necessary in the organisation to do certain jobs		It is ensured all divisions of the organisation are informed of each others activities	
The leaders and managers “practice what they preach”		There is a long-term organisational purpose and direction	
There is a characteristic management style and a distinct set of management practices		The strategic focus (of the organisation) leads other organisations in the industry to change the way they operate	
There is a clear and consistent set of values that governs the way the organisation operates		There is a clear mission that gives meaning and direction to our work	
Ignoring established values will get you in trouble		There is a clear strategy for the future	
There is an ethical code that guides behaviour and determines right from wrong		The strategic direction (of the organisation) is unclear to me	
When disagreements occur, we work hard to achieve “win-win” solutions		There is widespread agreement about goals	
There is a “strong” culture		Leaders set goals that are ambitious, but realistic	
It is easy to reach consensus, even on difficult issues		The leadership has “gone on record” about the objectives we are trying to meet	
We often have trouble reaching agreement on key issues		Progress against our stated goals is continuously tracked	
There is clear agreement about the right way and wrong way to do things		People understand what needs to be done for us to succeed in the long run	
The approach to working is very consistent and predictable		We have a shared vision of what the organisation will be like in the future	
People from different parts of the organisation share a common perspective		Leaders have a long-term viewpoint	
It is easy to co-ordinate work projects across different parts of the organisation		Short-term thinking often compromises the long-term vision of the organisation	
Working with someone from another part of this organisation is like working with someone from a different organisation		The organisational vision creates excitement and motivation for the paid workers and volunteers	
There is a good alignment of goals across all levels of the organisation and between paid staff and volunteers		Paid staff and volunteers are able to meet short-term demands without compromising the long-term vision of the organisation	

Question 17. The following is a list of items that relate to organisation performance. Using this list, how would you assess the performance of NMA compared to other similar organisations? Please circle

	Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good
Sales/revenue growth	1	2	3	4	5
Quality of products or services	1	2	3	4	5
The development of new products or services	1	2	3	4	5
Employee satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5
Overall organisation performance	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 3: ORGANISATIONAL FLEXIBILITY

Question 18. To what extent are you satisfied with your current work status (refer to Question 5) at NMA? Please circle

Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

Question 19. The following is a list of some flexible ways of working and volunteering in organisations. Please insert a number in each box to indicate how often these flexible work options are made *available* or apply to your position at NMA and separately rate how much would you *value* each option being offered. Please note any *reason(s)* why or why not you would value these flexible work options being offered.

Availability	Value	Reason(s) why/why not valued For example:
Where:	Where:	To improve skills, career opportunities
1=Never	1=Very little	To meet domestic responsibilities
2=Rarely	2=Little	To maximise earnings
3=Sometimes	3=Some	To test out an organisation as a potential employer
4=Often	4=Greatly	Lack of leave entitlements
5=Always	5=Very greatly	Lack of skill development
0=Not applicable	0=Not applicable	Unsocial/unreliable working hours
		Lack of job security

Job enlargement – provision of tasks that extend the content or quantity of work			
Job enrichment – provision of tasks that add to the quality of work (e.g., added decision making authority over activities performed)			
Job rotation – paid workers/volunteers shifting between various jobs or departments to improve work versatility			
Flexitime – where the hours a paid worker/volunteer works may vary, typically in terms of start/finish times, however, a set number of hours must be worked within a specified time period (usually a month)			

Flexible Work Options	Availability	Value	Reason(s) why/why not valued
Zero hours contracts/volunteer arrangements – where the hours a paid worker/volunteer works are not specified, the paid worker/volunteer only works when specifically requested by the organisation			
Variable hours contracts/volunteer arrangements – similar to zero hours contracts, however, a minimum number of working hours to be completed by the paid worker/volunteer within a particular period is specified (but no maximum is set)			
Shift-working			
Job sharing – 2 or more paid workers/volunteers share the tasks of one full-time position			
Voluntary reduced hours – paid workers/volunteers choose to reduce their working week/hours and pay (this aspect does not apply to volunteers) to assist with domestic duties or pursue some other interest			
Part-time permanent work – work that comprises less than 35 hours per week with entitlements to paid holiday leave or sick leave (does not apply to volunteers)			
Casual work – work (arranged either on a full-time or part-time basis) with no entitlements to paid holiday leave or sick leave (does not apply to volunteers)			
Fixed-term contracts/volunteer arrangements – a limited period of paid/volunteer work, often a couple of years, with a finish date specified (for example, working/volunteering on a specific project or event)			

Question 20. To what extent do you agree or disagree that the flexible work options listed above (excluding part-time permanent work and casual work) are available equally to paid staff and volunteers at NMA? Please circle

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Question 21. How important for you is it that these flexible work options are available equally to paid staff and volunteers at NMA? Please circle

Unimportant	Of little importance	Moderately important	Important	Very important
1	2	3	4	5

Question 22. Overall, to what extent are you satisfied with the flexible work options available at NMA? Please circle

Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

Question 23. What, if any, future action could be taken to improve the flexible work options available at NMA?

SECTION 4: HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

Question 24. Please insert a **number** in each box to indicate how often the following human resource management practices are made *available* or apply to your position at NMA and separately rate how much you would *value* each practice being offered. Please note any *reason(s)* why or why not you would value these practices being offered.

Availability	Value
Where:	Where:
1=Never	1=Very little
2=Rarely	2=Little
3=Sometimes	3=Some
4=Often	4=Greatly
5=Always	5=Very greatly
0=Not applicable	0=Not applicable

Reason(s) why/why not valued

External training (courses, seminars, etc. conducted outside of the organisation)			
Internal training (induction training, on-site courses)			
Career planning			
Performance assessment			
Job descriptions			
Complaint handling procedures			

Question 25. To what extent do you agree or disagree that the human resource management practices listed above are available equally to paid staff and volunteers at NMA?
Please circle

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Question 26. How important for you is it that these human resource management practices are available equally to paid staff and volunteers at NMA?
Please circle

Unimportant	Of little importance	Moderately important	Important	Very important
1	2	3	4	5

Question 27. How important is it to you that the following joint activities are conducted between paid staff and volunteers at NMA? Please circle

	Unimportant	Of little importance	Moderately important	Important	Very important
Joint training sessions	1	2	3	4	5
Joint social functions	1	2	3	4	5

Question 28. Overall, to what extent are you satisfied with the human resource management practices available at NMA? Please circle

Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

Question 29. What, if any, future action could be taken to improve the human resource management practices available at NMA?

SECTION 5: COMMUNICATION & WORKING RELATIONS

Question 30. How would you describe communication between the following groups at NMA? Please circle

	Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good
Between paid staff	1	2	3	4	5
Between paid staff & volunteers	1	2	3	4	5

Question 31. How could communication between paid and volunteer workers be improved at NMA?

Question 32. How would you describe the working relationship between paid and volunteer workers at NMA? Please circle

Very poor	Poor	Average	Good	Very good
1	2	3	4	5

Question 33. How could the working relationship between paid and volunteer workers be improved at NMA?

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS PROJECT

**APPENDIX D - STAGE TWO QUESTIONNAIRE
(VOLUNTEER VERSION)**

Explanatory Notes

The volunteer version of the Stage Two questionnaire has not been replicated in full because both versions (paid worker and volunteer) were highly similar in content.

Please note the following questions included in the paid version (see Appendix C), were excluded in the volunteer version:

- Q. 4 – Union Membership
- Q. 5 – Work Status
- Q. 7 – Management Level
- Q. 14 – Structure
- Q. 17 – Performance Indicators (Accompanying the Denison Organizational Culture Survey)

Please note the following questions were only included in the volunteer version:

Question 7a. How regularly do you tend to volunteer at NMA? Please circle one response only

Weekly	1	Monthly	3
Fortnightly	2	Currently on leave	4

Question 7b. How many hours would you normally volunteer during the period that you noted in Question 7a? Please circle

Less than 2 hours	1	6-10 hours	3	21-35 hours	5
2-5 hours	2	11-20 hours	4	36+ hours	6

Question 12. Outside of your volunteer role at NMA, what is your current work status? Please circle one option only

Full-time permanent (work 35 or more hours a week, entitled to paid holiday/sick leave)	1
Full-time casual (work 35 or more hours a week, not entitled to paid holiday/sick leave)	2
Part-time permanent (work less than 35 hours a week, entitled to paid holiday/sick leave)	3
Part-time casual (work less than 35 hours a week, not entitled to paid holiday/sick leave)	4
Fixed-term contractor (limited period of employment, termination date specified)	5
Agency worker or sub-contractor	6
Unemployed	7
Student	8
Retired	9
Other	10

Question 13. To what extent are you satisfied with your current work status as indicated in Question 12? Please circle

Very dissatisfied	1	Satisfied	4
Dissatisfied	2	Very satisfied	5
Neutral	3		

Question 14. If applicable, what is your paid occupation?

Question 15. Do you volunteer formally for any other organisations apart from NMA? Please circle

No	1	Yes, 3 organisations	4
Yes, 1 organisation	2	Yes, 4 organisations	5
Yes, 2 organisations	3	Yes, 5+ organisations	6

Some minor adjustments were made to the wording of those questions contained in both versions of the Stage Two questionnaire. For example, whilst Question 13 in the paid version referred to “reasons for working”, this wording was substituted with “reasons for volunteering” in the volunteer version of the questionnaire.

The Stage Two questionnaire depicted in Appendix C is formatted for distribution to paid workers at the National Museum of Australia. The acronym NMA appears throughout the document. Both versions of the questionnaire (paid worker and volunteer) were also formatted for distribution at the Melbourne Museum (MM).

APPENDIX E - STAGE TWO INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Explanatory Note

Different sets of questions were developed to adequately account for the views of managers, the HR department, paid staff, volunteers and volunteer co-ordinators.

Managers

1. Brainstorm words to describe your organisation, the paid staff and the volunteers.
2. How would you describe the structure of your organisation? (for example, bureaucratic, adaptable)
3. As manager, what role do you play in forming organisational strategy?
4. In your opinion, to what extent do external factors (political-legal, socio-economic, technical, competitive) influence the internal strategies of the organisation?
5. Is strategy formed with input from all divisions of the organisation?
6. In what way does the HR department influence your role as manager?
7. As a manager how many paid staff and volunteers are you normally responsible for?
8. How closely do you liaise with the volunteer co-ordinator regarding volunteer management issues?
9. What types of activities/tasks do the paid staff and volunteers under your management perform? (similarities/differences)
10. What methods of communication do you use in relation to the paid and volunteer workforce? Which are most effective?

The following is a list of flexible work options.

11. Are any of these made available to the paid staff?
12. Are any of these made available to the volunteers?
13. Do you think the paid staff and volunteers you manage would value these options being offered?
14. Please provide any reasons why or why not these flexible work options are made available to your paid staff and volunteers (benefits/disadvantages).
15. How often does your organisation use agency, contract or sub-contract workers?
16. In your opinion, who coordinates the operation of these flexible work options in your organisation? (HR department, managers, volunteer co-ordinator)
17. To what extent are these flexible work options influenced by an internal business strategy, organisational structure or human resource management policies?
18. What are the similarities/differences between working with paid staff and volunteers?
19. What benefits arise from having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
20. What difficulties arise from having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
21. How do you see the relationship of volunteers with paid staff in your organisation? How has the relationship changed over time?
22. What, if anything, could be done to improve the relationship between the volunteer and paid workforce?
23. How important is it to you as a manager that volunteers and paid staff are treated equally? (Joint activities)
24. In your opinion, what are the two main challenges facing your organisation and your role in it during the next 12 months?

HR Department

1. Brainstorm words to describe your organisation, the paid staff and the volunteers.
2. How would you describe the structure of your organisation? (for example, bureaucratic, adaptable)
3. What role does the HR department play in forming organisational strategy?
4. To what extent do external factors (political-legal, socio-economic, technical, competitive) influence the function of the HR department in this organisation?
5. Is strategy formed with input from all divisions of the organisation?
6. As a member of the HR department, how often do you liaise with other managers and the volunteer co-ordinator in relation to the management of paid staff and volunteers?

The following is a list of human resource management practices>

7. Are any of these made available to the paid staff?
8. Are any of these made available to the volunteers?
9. Do you think the paid staff and volunteers would value these options being offered?
10. Please provide any reasons why or why not these human resource management practices are made available to paid staff and volunteers (benefits/disadvantages).

The following is a list of flexible work options.

11. Are any of these made available to the paid staff?
12. Are any of these made available to the volunteers?
13. Do you think the paid staff and volunteers would value these options being offered?
14. Please provide any reasons why or why not these flexible work options are made available to paid staff and volunteers (benefits/disadvantages).
15. In your opinion, who coordinates the operation of these flexible work options in your organisation? (HR department, division managers, volunteer co-ordinator)
16. Are these flexible work options influenced by an internal business strategy, organisational structure or human resource management policies?
17. What methods of communication do you use in relation to the paid and volunteer workforce? Which are most effective?
18. What benefits arise from having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
19. What difficulties arise from having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
20. How do you see the relationship of volunteers with paid staff in your organisation? How has the relationship changed over time?
21. What, if anything, could be done to improve the relationship between the volunteer and paid workforce?
22. How important is it to you (as a member of the HR department) that volunteers and paid staff are treated equally? (Joint activities)
23. In your opinion, what are the two main challenges facing your organisation and your role in it during the next 12 months?

Paid Staff (working directly volunteers)

1. Brainstorm words to describe your organisation, other paid staff and volunteers.
2. How would you describe the structure of the organisation? (for example, bureaucratic, adaptable)
3. On what basis are you currently employed?
4. Are you satisfied with your work status?
5. Do you have any input into the policies of your organisation?
6. How committed are you to the organisation you work for?

7. How often do you have contact with your immediate supervisor? How often do you have contact with the volunteer co-ordinator? What types of work issues would you refer to each?
8. How closely do you work with volunteers when performing your job?
9. What do you think are the similarities/differences between how paid staff and volunteers work?
10. What methods of communication are used within the organisation? Which are most effective?

The following is a list of flexible work options.

11. Are any of these made available to you?
12. Would you value these options being offered to you?
13. Please provide any reasons why or why not you would value these flexible work options being made available to you (benefits/disadvantages).

The following is a list of human resource management practices:

14. Are any of these made available to you?
15. Would you value these practices being offered to you?
16. Please provide any reasons why or why not you would value these HR practices being made available to you (benefits/disadvantages).
17. What do you think are the benefits of having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
18. What do you think are the difficulties of having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
19. How do you see the relationship of volunteers with paid staff in your organisation? How has the relationship changed over time?
20. What, if anything, could be done to improve the relationship between the volunteer and paid workers?
21. How important is it to you that volunteers and paid staff are treated equally? (Joint activities)
22. In your opinion, what are the two main challenges facing your organisation and your role in it during the next 12 months?

Volunteers (working directly with paid staff)

1. Brainstorm words to describe the organisation, paid staff and other volunteers.
2. How would you describe the structure of the organisation? (for example, bureaucratic, adaptable)
3. How often do you normally volunteer (weekly, fortnightly, monthly) and how many hours would you complete during that period?
4. Are you satisfied with your volunteer status?
5. Do you have any input into the policies of the organisation?
6. How committed are you to the organisation you volunteer for?
7. How often do you have contact with your immediate supervisor? How often do you have contact with the volunteer co-ordinator? What types of work issues would you refer to each?
8. How closely do you work with paid staff in your volunteer role?
9. What do you think are the similarities/differences between how paid staff and volunteers work?
10. What methods of communication are used within the organisation? Which are most effective?

The following is a list of flexible work options.

11. Are any of these made available to you as a volunteer?
12. Would you value these options being offered to you?

13. Please provide any reasons why or why not you would value these flexible work options being made available to you (benefits/disadvantages).
- The following is a list of human resource management practices:
14. Are any of these made available to you as a volunteer?
 15. Would you value these practices being offered to you?
 16. Please provide any reasons why or why not you would value these HR practices being made available to you (benefits/disadvantages).
 17. What do you think are the benefits of having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
 18. What do you think are the difficulties of having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
 19. How do you see the relationship of volunteers with paid staff in the organisation? How has the relationship changed over time?
 20. What, if anything, could be done to improve the relationship between the volunteer and paid workers?
 21. How important is it to you that volunteers and paid staff are treated equally? (Joint activities)
 22. In your opinion, what are the two main challenges facing the organisation and your role in it during the next 12 months?

Volunteer Co-ordinators

1. Brainstorm words to describe your organisation, the paid staff and the volunteers?
2. What types of activities/tasks do volunteers and paid staff undertake in your organisation? (similarities/differences)
3. On average, what is the length of tenure of volunteers and paid staff in your organisation?
4. On average, what is the number of hours a volunteer might work each week for your organisation?
5. Are you satisfied with your current level of volunteer staffing?
6. How many paid workers and volunteers do you manage/coordinate?
7. How committed do you think your volunteers are to the organisation?
8. What factors influence volunteer recruitment for your organisation? (personality characteristics, methods used, etc)
9. What factors determine work scheduling of volunteer hours for your organisation? (volunteer choice, co-ordinator/manager decisions, mutual agreement, other factors)
10. How is volunteer work scheduled (shifts of a set number of hours arranged regularly, shifts of a variable number of hours arranged regularly, volunteer works irregularly as requested)
11. What methods of communication are used within the organisation? Which are most effective?

The following is a list of flexible work options.

12. Are any of these made available to the volunteers?
13. Do you think the volunteers would value these options being offered to them?
14. Please provide any reasons why or why not they would value these flexible work options being made available to them (benefits/disadvantages).
15. Are these flexible work practices influenced by an internal business strategy, organisational structure or human resource management policies?
16. Who coordinates the operation of these flexible work practices? (HR department, division managers, volunteer co-ordinator directly)

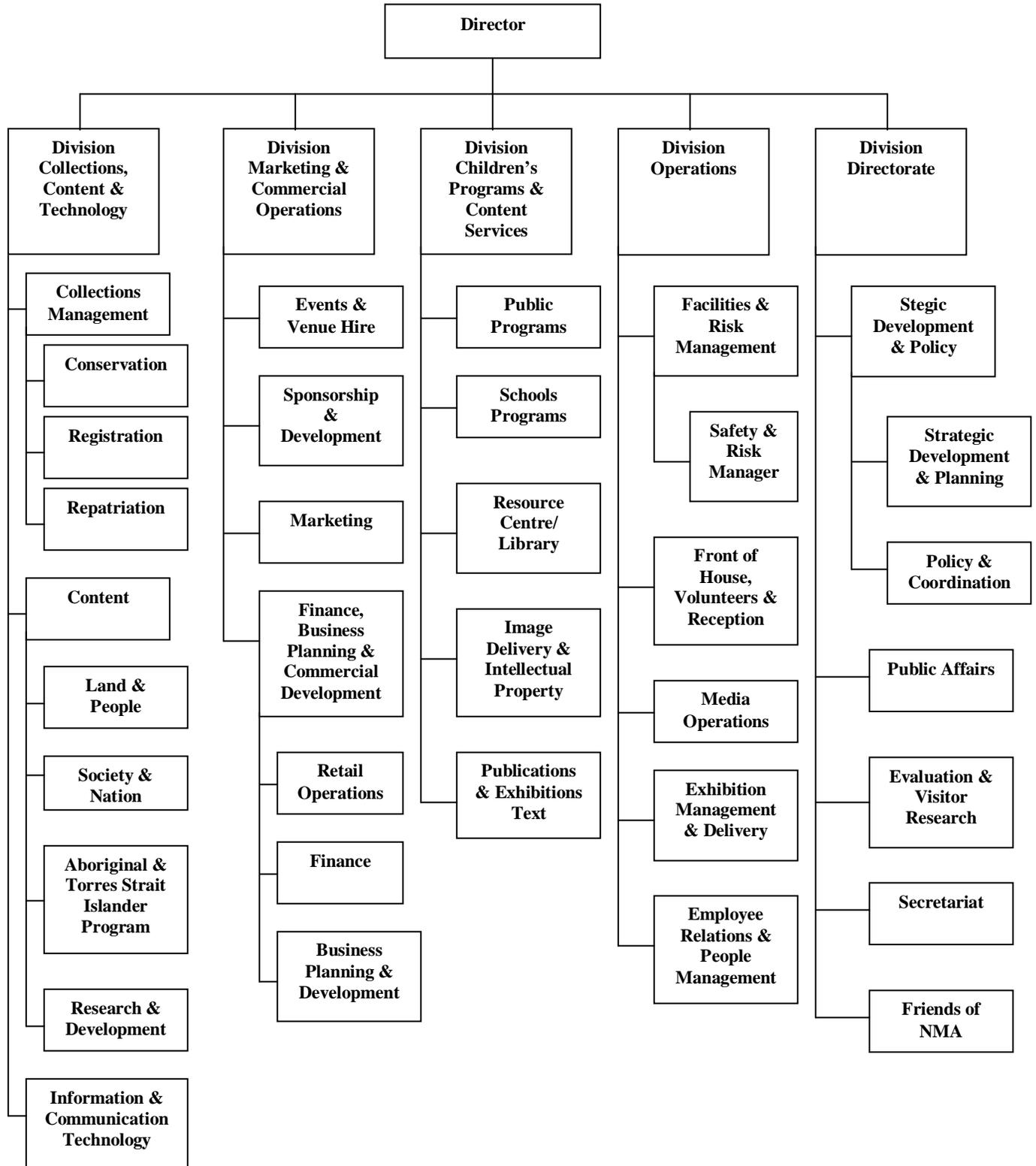
The following is a list of human resource management practices:

17. Are any of these made available to the volunteers?

18. Do you think the volunteers would value these practices being offered to them?
19. Please provide any reasons why or why not they would value these HR practices being made available to them (benefits/disadvantages).
20. What benefits arise from having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
21. What difficulties arise from having coordinated volunteer and paid workforces?
22. How do you see the relationship of volunteers with paid staff in your organisation?
How has the relationship changed over time?
23. What, if anything, could be done to improve the relationship between the volunteer and paid workforce?
24. When issues do arise between volunteers and paid staff, to what extent are you involved in managing these situations? To what extent are division managers involved?
25. How important is it to you as volunteer co-ordinator that the volunteers and paid staff are treated equally? (Joint activities)
26. What are the two main challenges facing the organisation and your role in it during the next 12 months?

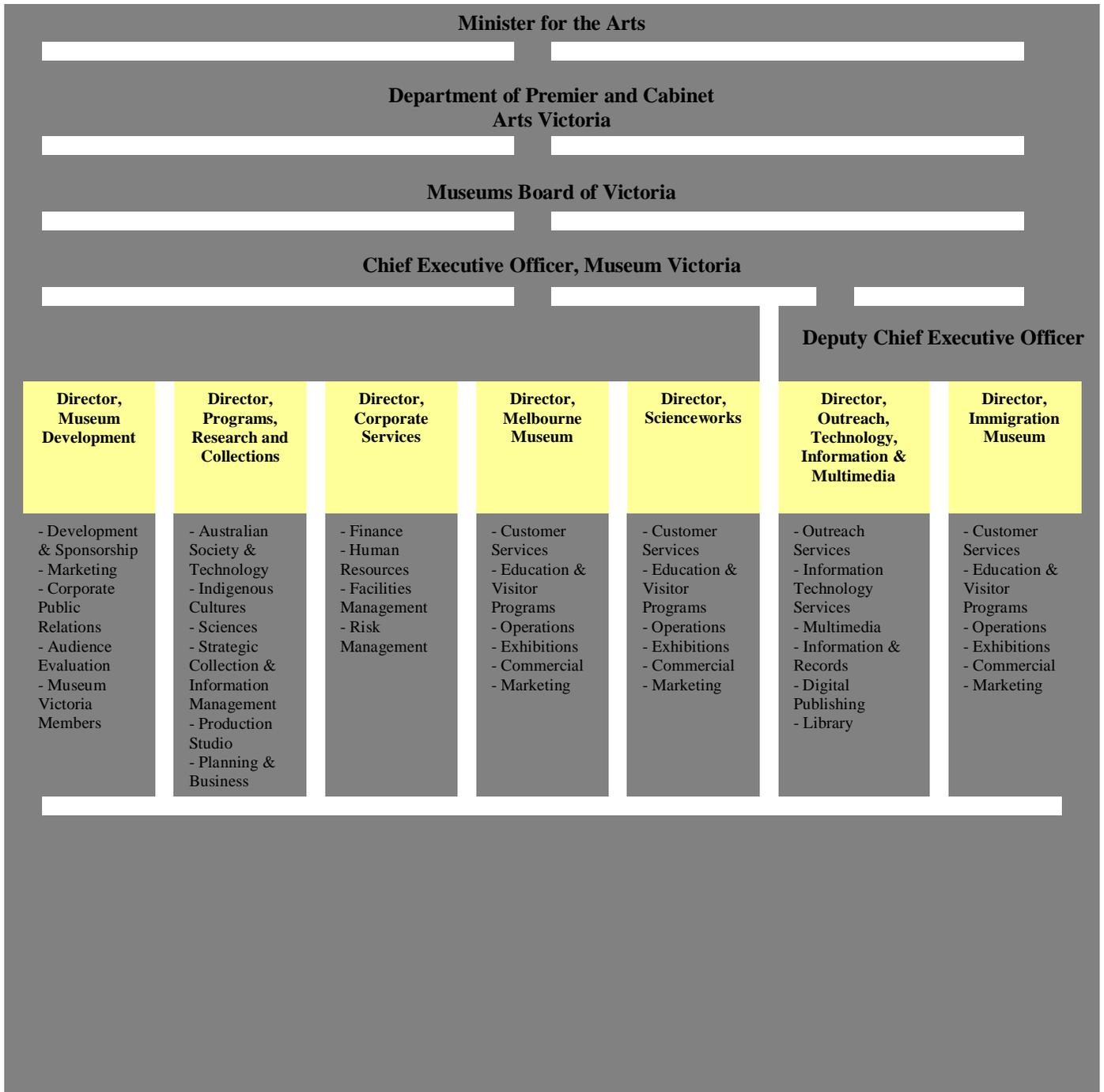
APPENDIX F - STAGE TWO - ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

The National Museum of Australia (NMA)



Source: National Museum of Australia (2003)

The Melbourne Museum
(As part of the Museum Victoria Organisational Structure)



Source: Museum Victoria (2002)

**APPENDIX G – STAGE TWO – DESCRIPTIVE
ANALYSIS**

Stage Two - Paid Staff and Volunteer Respondents

Respondents	NMA Total	MM Total	Combined Total
Worker Type			
Paid Staff	70 <i>66%</i>	74 <i>42%</i>	144 <i>51%</i>
Volunteers	36 <i>34%</i>	104 <i>58%</i>	140 <i>49%</i>
Total	106 <i>100%</i>	178 <i>100%</i>	284 <i>100%</i>

Stage Two - Gender and Age

Respondents	NMA Paid Staff	NMA Volunteers	MM Paid Staff	MM Volunteers	Combined Paid Staff	Combined Volunteers	NMA Total	MM Total	Combined Total
Gender									
Male	14 <i>20%</i>	22 <i>61%</i>	24 <i>32%</i>	29 <i>28%</i>	38 <i>26%</i>	51 <i>36%</i>	36 <i>34%</i>	53 <i>30%</i>	89 <i>31%</i>
Female	56 <i>80%</i>	14 <i>39%</i>	50 <i>68%</i>	75 <i>72%</i>	106 <i>74%</i>	89 <i>64%</i>	70 <i>66%</i>	125 <i>70%</i>	195 <i>69%</i>
Total	70 <i>100%</i>	36 <i>100%</i>	74 <i>100%</i>	104 <i>100%</i>	144 <i>100%</i>	140 <i>100%</i>	106 <i>100%</i>	178 <i>100%</i>	284 <i>100%</i>
Age									
18-29 years	17 <i>24%</i>	4 <i>11%</i>	17 <i>23%</i>	30 <i>30%</i>	34 <i>24%</i>	34 <i>24%</i>	21 <i>20%</i>	47 <i>27%</i>	68 <i>24%</i>
30-39 years	24 <i>34%</i>	3 <i>8%</i>	27 <i>37%</i>	8 <i>8%</i>	51 <i>35%</i>	11 <i>8%</i>	27 <i>26%</i>	35 <i>20%</i>	62 <i>22%</i>
40-49 years	19 <i>27%</i>	3 <i>8%</i>	17 <i>23%</i>	6 <i>6%</i>	36 <i>25%</i>	9 <i>6%</i>	22 <i>21%</i>	23 <i>13%</i>	45 <i>16%</i>
50-59 years	9 <i>13%</i>	7 <i>19%</i>	11 <i>15%</i>	19 <i>18%</i>	20 <i>14%</i>	26 <i>19%</i>	16 <i>15%</i>	30 <i>17%</i>	46 <i>16%</i>
60+ years	1 <i>1%</i>	19 <i>53%</i>	2 <i>3%</i>	40 <i>39%</i>	3 <i>2%</i>	59 <i>42%</i>	20 <i>19%</i>	42 <i>24%</i>	62 <i>22%</i>
Missing cases				1		1		1	1
Total	70 <i>100%</i>	36 <i>100%</i>	74 <i>100%</i>	104 <i>100%</i>	144 <i>100%</i>	140 <i>100%</i>	106 <i>100%</i>	178 <i>100%</i>	284 <i>100%</i>

Stage Two - Education

Respondents	NMA	NMA	MM	MM	Combined	Combined	NMA	MM	Combined
Education	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Total	Total	Total
Secondary School	3 4%	2 6%	4 5%	11 11%	7 5%	13 9%	5 5%	15 8%	20 7%
Matriculation/HSC/VCE	10 14%	2 6%	3 4%	7 7%	13 9%	9 6%	12 11%	10 6%	22 8%
TAFE/Technical School	8 11%	2 6%	4 5%	3 3%	12 8%	5 4%	10 9%	7 4%	17 6%
Tertiary diploma/degree	26 37%	21 58%	32 43%	49 47%	58 40%	70 50%	47 44%	81 46%	128 45%
Post graduate	21 30%	9 25%	31 42%	32 31%	52 36%	41 29%	30 28%	63 35%	93 33%
Other	2 3%			2 2%	2 1%	2 1%	2 2%	2 1%	4 1%
Total	70 100%	36 100%	74 100%	104 100%	144 100%	140 100%	106 100%	178 100%	284 100%

Stage Two - Tenure

Respondents	NMA	NMA	MM	MM	Combined	Combined	NMA	MM	Combined
Tenure	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Total	Total	Total
Less than 1 month	1 1%				1 1%		1 1%		1 0.5%
1-3 months		2 6%		8 8%		10 7%	2 2%	8 5%	10 3.5%
4-6 months	4 6%	2 6%	2 3%	12 11%	6 4%	14 10%	6 6%	14 8%	20 7%
7-11 months	6 9%	2 6%	6 8%	14 14%	12 8%	16 11%	8 8%	20 11%	28 10%
1-2 years	24 34%	16 44%	12 16%	32 31%	36 25%	48 34%	40 38%	44 25%	84 30%
3-5 years	23 33%	7 19%	27 37%	26 25%	50 35%	33 24%	30 28%	53 30%	83 29%
6+ years	12 17%	7 19%	27 37%	12 11%	39 27%	19 14%	19 18%	39 22%	58 20%
Total	70 100%	36 100%	74 100%	104 100%	144 100%	140 100%	106 100%	178 100%	284 100%

Stage Two - Division/Section Worked For - National Museum of Australia

Respondents	NMA Paid Staff	NMA Volunteers	Combined Total
Division			
Collections, Content & Technology	20 29%		20 20%
Marketing & Commercial Operations	7 10%		7 7%
Children's Programs & Content Services	10 15%	20 63%	30 30%
Operations	29 43%	12 37%	41 41%
Directorate	2 3%		2 2%
Missing cases	2	4	6
Total	70 100%	36 100%	106 100%

Stage Two - Division/Section Worked For - Melbourne Museum

Respondents		MM Paid Staff	MM Volunteers	Combined Total
Division	Section			
Directorate & Museum Development		3 4%	1 1%	4 2%
Programs, Research & Collections		23 32%	29 28%	52 30%
Corporate Services		3 4%		3 2%
Outreach, Technology, Information & Multimedia		7 10%	1 1%	8 5%
Melbourne Museum	Customer Services	12 17%		12 7%
	Education & Visitor Programs	12 17%	71 70%	83 48%
	Operations	7 10%		7 4%
	Exhibitions	2 3%		2 1%
	Commercial	2 3%		2 1%
	Marketing			
Missing cases		3	2	5
Total		74 100%	104 100%	178 100%

Stage Two - Work Type

Respondents	NMA	NMA	MM	MM	Combined	Combined	NMA	MM	Combined
Type of Work	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Total	Total	Total
Managerial & administrative	28 40%		14 19%	4 4%	42 29%	4 3%	28 27%	18 10%	46 16%
Research, collections & conservation	13 19%	2 6%	18 25%	27 26%	31 22%	29 21%	15 14%	45 26%	60 21%
Exhibition display & design	8 11%	5 14%	9 13%	2 2%	17 12%	7 5%	13 12%	11 6%	24 9%
Security, guides & front-of-house	10 14%	4 11%	13 18%	37 36%	23 16%	41 29%	14 13%	50 28%	64 23%
Education programs	4 6%	15 43%	6 8%	26 25%	10 7%	41 29%	19 18%	32 18%	51 18%
Other	7 10%	9 26%	12 17%	8 8%	19 13%	17 12%	16 15%	20 11%	36 13%
Missing cases		1	2		2	1	1	2	3
Total	70 100%	36 100%	74 100%	104 100%	144 100%	140 100%	106 100%	178 100%	284 100%

Stage Two - Recruitment

Respondents	NMA	NMA	MM	MM	Combined	Combined	NMA	MM	Combined
Recruitment	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Paid Staff	Volunteers	Total	Total	Total
Saw ad/report in media	38 54%	13 36%	36 50%	33 32%	74 51%	46 33%	51 48%	69 40%	120 43%
Word of mouth	6 9%	7 19%	12 17%	20 19%	18 13%	27 19%	13 12%	32 18%	45 16%
Approached by the organisation	7 10%		8 11%	4 4%	15 11%	4 3%	7 7%	12 7%	19 7%
Approached the organisation myself	7 10%	15 42%	12 17%	46 45%	19 13%	61 44%	22 21%	58 33%	80 28.5%
Through an employment agency	12 17%		4 6%		16 11%		12 11%	4 2%	16 6%
Through a volunteer centre		1 3%				1 1%	1 1%		1 0.5%
Missing Cases			2	1	2	1		3	3
Total	70 100%	36 100%	74 100%	104 100%	144 100%	140 100%	106 100%	178 100%	284 100%

Stage Two – Union Membership, Work Status and Management Level

Paid Respondents	NMA	MM	Combined
	Total	Total	Total
Union Membership			
Yes	21 <i>30%</i>	38 <i>51%</i>	59 <i>41%</i>
No	48 <i>70%</i>	36 <i>49%</i>	84 <i>59%</i>
Missing cases	1		1
Total	70 <i>100%</i>	74 <i>100%</i>	144 <i>100%</i>
Work Status			
Full-time permanent	45 <i>64%</i>	53 <i>73%</i>	98 <i>68%</i>
Full-time casual			
Part-time permanent	12 <i>17%</i>	16 <i>22%</i>	28 <i>20%</i>
Part-time casual	1 <i>1%</i>		1 <i>1%</i>
Fixed-term contractor	11 <i>16%</i>	4 <i>6%</i>	15 <i>10%</i>
Agency worker or sub-contractor	1 <i>1%</i>		1 <i>1%</i>
Missing cases		1	1
Total	70 <i>100%</i>	74 <i>100%</i>	144 <i>100%</i>
Management Level			
No management responsibilities	33 <i>47%</i>	45 <i>61%</i>	78 <i>54%</i>
First-level manager	21 <i>30%</i>	15 <i>20%</i>	36 <i>25%</i>
Middle manager	11 <i>16%</i>	12 <i>16%</i>	23 <i>16%</i>
Senior manager	5 <i>7%</i>	2 <i>3%</i>	7 <i>5%</i>
Total	70 <i>100%</i>	74 <i>100%</i>	144 <i>100%</i>

Stage Two - Frequency of Volunteering and Volunteer Hours

Volunteer Respondents	NMA Total	MM Total	Combined Total
Frequency of Volunteering			
Weekly	15 <i>44%</i>	44 <i>42%</i>	59 <i>43%</i>
Fortnightly	4 <i>12%</i>	41 <i>39%</i>	45 <i>33%</i>
Monthly	11 <i>32%</i>	14 <i>14%</i>	25 <i>18%</i>
Currently on leave	4 <i>12%</i>	5 <i>5%</i>	9 <i>7%</i>
Missing cases	2		2
Total	36 <i>100%</i>	104 <i>100%</i>	140 <i>100%</i>
Volunteer Hours			
Less than 2 hours	1 <i>3%</i>	2 <i>2%</i>	3 <i>2%</i>
2-5 hours	19 <i>53%</i>	78 <i>75%</i>	97 <i>69%</i>
6-10 hours	14 <i>39%</i>	23 <i>22%</i>	37 <i>26%</i>
11-20 hours	1 <i>3%</i>		1 <i>1%</i>
21-35 hours	1 <i>3%</i>		1 <i>1%</i>
36+ hours		1 <i>1%</i>	1 <i>1%</i>
Total	36 <i>100%</i>	104 <i>100%</i>	140 <i>100%</i>

Stage Two - Frequency of Volunteering by Volunteer Hours

Volunteer Hours	NMA			MM			Combined		
	Weekly	Fortnightly	Monthly	Weekly	Fortnightly	Monthly	Weekly	Fortnightly	Monthly
Less than 2 hours						2 <i>14%</i>			2 <i>8%</i>
2-5 hours	11 <i>73%</i>	4 <i>100%</i>	2 <i>18%</i>	31 <i>71%</i>	35 <i>85%</i>	8 <i>57%</i>	42 <i>71%</i>	39 <i>87%</i>	10 <i>40%</i>
6-10 hours	4 <i>27%</i>		9 <i>82%</i>	12 <i>27%</i>	6 <i>15%</i>	4 <i>29%</i>	16 <i>27%</i>	6 <i>13%</i>	13 <i>52%</i>
11-20 hours									
21-35 hours									
36+ hours				1 <i>2%</i>			1 <i>2%</i>		
Total	15 <i>100%</i>	4 <i>100%</i>	11 <i>100%</i>	44 <i>100%</i>	41 <i>100%</i>	14 <i>100%</i>	59 <i>100%</i>	45 <i>100%</i>	25 <i>100%</i>

Stage Two - Work Status Outside of Volunteering and Other Organisations Volunteered For

Volunteer Respondents	NMA Total	MM Total	Combined Total
Work Status Outside of Volunteering			
Full-time permanent	5 14%	12 12%	17 12%
Full-time casual	1 3%	2 2%	3 2%
Part-time permanent		5 5%	5 4%
Part-time casual	2 5%	21 20%	23 16%
Fixed-term contractor	1 3%	1 1%	2 1%
Agency worker or sub-contractor			
Unemployed	1 3%	3 3%	4 3%
Student	5 14%	18 17%	23 16%
Retired	19 53%	36 35%	55 39%
Other	2 5%	6 6%	8 6%
Total	36 100%	104 100%	140 100%
Other Organisations Volunteered For			
No	15 43%	48 46%	63 45%
Yes, 1 organisation	7 20%	30 29%	37 27%
Yes, 2 organisations	8 23%	16 15%	24 17%
Yes, 3 organisations	3 9%	6 6%	9 7%
Yes, 4 organisations	2 6%	1 1%	3 2%
Yes, 5+ organisations		3 3%	3 2%
Missing cases	1		
Total	36 100%	104 100%	140 100%

Stage Two – Reasons for Working/Volunteering: A Summary

	NMA	MM	Combined Paid Staff	Combined Volunteers	Combined Total
Reason 1	Personal/Job Satisfaction 39 38%	Personal/Job Satisfaction 66 38%	Personal/Job Satisfaction 65 48%	Personal/Job Satisfaction 40 29%	Personal/Job Satisfaction 105 38%
Reason 2	Skills/Knowledge Development 22 22%	Skills/Knowledge Development 42 25%	Skills/Knowledge Development 38 29%	Personal/Job Satisfaction 26 19% Skills/Knowledge Development 26 19%	Skills/Knowledge Development 64 24%
Reason 3	Pay 14 17% Skills/Knowledge Development 14 17%	Social/Work Contacts 31 19%	Pay 30 25%	Social/Work Contacts 29 23%	Social/Work Contacts 42 17%

Stage Two - Performance Indicators (Accompanying the Denison Organizational Culture Survey)

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Very Poor, 2 = Poor, 3 = Average, 4 = Good, 5 = Very Good

Paid Respondents	NMA			MM			Combined Total		
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD
Item 1 - Sales/revenue Growth	66	3.45	.77	66	2.71	.70	132	3.08	.82
Item 2 - Quality of Products or Services	69	4.01	.72	71	3.83	.76	140	3.92	.74
Item 3 - The Development of New Products/Services	68	3.75	.78	71	3.48	.84	139	3.61	.82
Item 4 - Employee Satisfaction	69	3.32	.92	71	3.28	.86	140	3.30	.89
Item 5 - Overall Organisation Performance	68	3.71	.77	71	3.24	.76	139	3.47	.80

Stage Two - Degree of Contact with Various Organisational Members

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = Always

Extent of Contact	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total MM	Total MM	Total MM	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Senior Managers	140	3.11	1.13	129	1.65#	1.02	105	2.69	1.26	164	2.24	1.30	269	2.41	1.30
Middle Managers	140	3.84	.94	128	2.20	1.22	105	3.41	1.28	163	2.82	1.36	268	3.05	1.36
First-level Managers	136	4.21	.79	132	3.14	1.34	102	3.97	1.04	166	3.51	1.29	268	3.68	1.22
HRM Department	139	2.73	.88	125	1.90	1.10	101	2.55	1.15	163	2.20	.99	264	2.33	1.07
Non-supervisory Paid Staff	140	3.99	1.00	131	3.79	1.16	103	3.76	1.13	168	3.97	1.05	271	3.89	1.09
Volunteers (Paid Questionnaire)	140	2.92	1.16				69	2.57	1.14	71	3.27	1.07	140	2.92	1.16
Other Volunteers (Volunteer Questionnaire)				137	4.10	.99	36	4.03	1.16	101	4.13	.92	137	4.10	.99

#Skewed Result

Stage Two - Satisfaction with Work/Volunteer Status, Flexible Work Options and HR Practices

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Very Dissatisfied, 2 = Dissatisfied, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Satisfied, 5 = Very Satisfied

	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total MM	Total MM	Total MM	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Satisfaction with Current Work Status (Paid Questionnaire)	141	3.84	1.01				69	3.86	1.03	72	3.82	1.00	141	3.84	1.01
Satisfaction with Frequency & Hours of Volunteering (Volunteer Questionnaire)				134	4.13#	1.01	35	3.97#	1.10	99	4.19#	.98	134	4.13#	1.01
Satisfaction - Flexibility Practices	137	3.64	.89	129	4.06	.87	97	3.73	.88	169	3.91	.91	266	3.84	.91
Satisfaction - HR Practices	136	3.38	.88	127	3.61	.75	99	3.46	.79	164	3.51	.85	263	3.49	.82

#Skewed Result

Stage Two - Extent Flexibility & HR Practices are Available Equally to Paid Staff and Volunteers

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total MM	Total MM	Total MM	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Flexibility Practices	136	3.12	.95	126	2.91	.89	93	3.01	.91	169	3.02	.93	262	3.02	.92
HR Practices	134	3.13	.90	123	3.02	.77	91	3.11	.90	166	3.06	.81	257	3.08	.84

Stage Two - Importance of Equal Availability of Practices and Joint Activities between Paid Staff and Volunteers

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Unimportant, 2 = Of Little Importance, 3 = Moderately Important, 4 = Important, 5 = Very Important

Importance of:	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total MM	Total MM	Total MM	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Equal Flexibility Practices	136	3.71	.98	124	2.91	1.27	95	3.43	1.16	165	3.27	1.21	260	3.33	1.19
Equal HR Practices	136	3.93	.91	127	3.54	1.05	93	3.83	.89	170	3.69	1.05	263	3.74	1.00
Joint Training	135	3.41	1.00	130	3.31	1.12	98	3.50	1.01	167	3.28	1.09	265	3.36	1.06
Joint Social Functions	134	3.84	1.06	129	3.29	1.05	97	3.90	.93	166	3.38	1.14	263	3.57	1.09

Stage Two - Communication and Working Relations

Scored on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = Very Poor, 2 = Poor, 3 = Average, 4 = Good, 5 = Very Good

	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Paid	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total Volunteers	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total NMA	Total MM	Total MM	Total MM	Combined Total	Combined Total	Combined Total
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Communication between Paid Staff	134	3.42	.70				65	3.40	.66	69	3.43	.74	134	3.42	.70
Communication between Volunteers				129	3.81	.89	32	3.59	.95	97	3.88	.86	129	3.81	.89
Communication between Un/Paid Workers	131	3.09	.96	131	3.66	1.01	95	3.03	1.01	167	3.57	.99	262	3.37	1.03
Working Relations	129	3.71	.69	132	3.98	.80	93	3.68	.68	168	3.95	.78	261	3.85	.76

**APPENDIX H - STAGE TWO - REASONS FOR
WORKING/VOLUNTEERING AT THE
NATIONAL MUSEUM OF AUSTRALIA AND
MELBOURNE MUSEUM**

Explanatory Note

The Stage Two questionnaire assessed the top three reasons for working (question 13 - paid version) and volunteering (question 11 – volunteer version) at the NMA and MM. Responses to this open-ended question were firstly entered into an Excel spreadsheet and then reviewed to define appropriate response categories. The data was subsequently entered into and analysing using SPSS software.

Reason 1

Reasons	Volunteer	Paid Staff	NMA	MM	Total
Pay		7 5%	5 5%	2 1%	7 3%
Work/Volunteering Conditions		6 4%	6 6%		6 2%
Personal/Job Satisfaction	40 29%	65 48%	39 38%	66 38%	105 38%
Skills/Knowledge Development	20 14%	20 15%	13 13%	27 16%	40 15%
Professional/Career Development		5 4%	2 2%	3 2%	5 2%
Social/Work Contacts	5 4%	1 1%	2 2%	4 2%	6 2%
To Do Something Worthwhile	27 19%	5 4%	9 9%	23 13%	32 12%
Help Others	3 2%		1 1%	2 1%	3 1%
Gain/Apply Work Experience	28 20%	5 4%	12 12%	21 12%	33 12%
Interest in Museums/Subject Area	8 6%	7 5%	5 5%	10 6%	15 6%
Interesting/Diverse/Fun Work	3 2%	3 2%	1 1%	5 3%	6 2%
Work Environment	1 1%	4 3%		5 3%	5 2%
Miscellaneous	4 3%	8 6%	7 7%	5 3%	12 4%
Missing cases	1	8	4	5	9
Total	140 100%	144 100%	106 100%	178 100%	284 100%

Reason 2

Reasons	Volunteer	Paid Staff	NMA	MM	Total
Pay		10 8%	6 6%	4 2%	10 4%
Work/Volunteering Conditions	1 1%	8 6%	6 6%	3 2%	9 3%
Personal/Job Satisfaction	26 19%	19 14%	16 16%	29 17%	45 17%
Skills/Knowledge Development	26 19%	38 29%	22 22%	42 25%	64 24%

Reasons	Volunteer	Paid Staff	NMA	MM	Total
Professional/Career Development	1 <i>1%</i>	6 <i>5%</i>	2 <i>2%</i>	5 <i>3%</i>	7 3%
Social/Work Contacts	19 <i>14%</i>	12 <i>9%</i>	11 <i>11%</i>	20 <i>12%</i>	31 12%
To Do Something Worthwhile	25 <i>18%</i>	4 <i>3%</i>	7 <i>7%</i>	22 <i>13%</i>	29 11%
Help Others	9 <i>7%</i>		3 <i>3%</i>	6 <i>4%</i>	9 3%
Gain/Apply Work Experience	12 <i>9%</i>	5 <i>4%</i>	6 <i>6%</i>	11 <i>6%</i>	17 6%
Interest in Museums/Subject Area	3 <i>2%</i>	4 <i>3%</i>	4 <i>4%</i>	3 <i>2%</i>	7 3%
Interesting/Diverse/Fun Work	4 <i>3%</i>	12 <i>9%</i>	5 <i>5%</i>	11 <i>6%</i>	16 6%
Work Environment		3 <i>2%</i>	2 <i>2%</i>	1 <i>1%</i>	3 1%
Miscellaneous	11 <i>8%</i>	11 <i>8%</i>	8 <i>8%</i>	14 <i>8%</i>	22 8%
Missing cases	3	12	8	7	15
Total	140 100%	144 100%	106 100%	178 100%	284 100%

Reason 3

Reasons	Volunteer	Paid Staff	NMA	MM	Total
Pay		30 <i>25%</i>	14 <i>17%</i>	16 <i>10%</i>	30 12%
Work/Volunteering Conditions	2 <i>2%</i>	23 <i>19%</i>	10 <i>12%</i>	15 <i>9%</i>	25 10%
Personal/Job Satisfaction	15 <i>12%</i>	8 <i>7%</i>	9 <i>11%</i>	14 <i>9%</i>	23 9%
Skills/Knowledge Development	24 <i>19%</i>	11 <i>9%</i>	14 <i>17%</i>	21 <i>13%</i>	35 14%
Professional/Career Development		5 <i>4%</i>	3 <i>4%</i>	2 <i>1%</i>	5 2%
Social/Work Contacts	29 <i>23%</i>	13 <i>11%</i>	11 <i>13%</i>	31 <i>19%</i>	42 17%
To Do Something Worthwhile	23 <i>18%</i>	2 <i>2%</i>	7 <i>8%</i>	18 <i>11%</i>	25 10%
Help Others	8 <i>6%</i>		1 <i>1%</i>	7 <i>4%</i>	8 3%
Gain/Apply Work Experience	11 <i>9%</i>	6 <i>5%</i>	5 <i>6%</i>	12 <i>8%</i>	17 7%
Interest in Museums/Subject Area	1 <i>1%</i>	3 <i>3%</i>	1 <i>1%</i>	3 <i>2%</i>	4 2%
Interesting/Diverse/Fun Work	2 <i>2%</i>	3 <i>3%</i>	1 <i>1%</i>	4 <i>3%</i>	5 2%
Work Environment	2 <i>2%</i>	2 <i>2%</i>		4 <i>3%</i>	4 2%
Miscellaneous	8 <i>6%</i>	14 <i>12%</i>	9 <i>11%</i>	13 <i>8%</i>	22 9%
Missing cases	15	24	21	18	39
Total	140 100%	144 100%	106 100%	178 100%	284 100%

**APPENDIX I – STAGE TWO – REASONS
WHY/NOT FLEXIBILITY PRACTICES ARE
VALUED**

Explanatory Note

The Stage Two questionnaire collected data on the reasons why or why not paid staff (question 19 - paid version) and volunteers (question 19 – volunteer version) might value flexible work options. Responses to this open-ended question were firstly entered into an Excel spreadsheet and then reviewed in terms of positives and negatives. The following tables detail in brackets the number of cases assigned to each reason. Due to a high number of missing cases for some flexibility items, further analysis (for example, a breakdown of paid worker and volunteer responses) of the data was not conducted.

Functional Practices

Job Enlargement

Positives	Negatives
Improve skills (95)	Job large enough (8)
Job/personal/intellectual satisfaction (9)	Lack of impact on earnings makes less desirable (3)
Create/maintain interest (8)	Not applicable (3)
To meet domestic responsibilities (4)	Depends on whether the needs of the worker are considered (2)
To improve career opportunities (4)	Lack of agenda for training (2)
Like learning (4)	Organisational change required (1)
Utilise full potential (3)	More workload, little development value (1)
Increase enjoyment (2)	Balance of work tasks not considered (1)
Improve services (1)	High expectations of workers leading to stress (1)
Relieve boredom (1)	Lack of skill development (1)
Allows for innovation (1)	
A range of volunteer activities to choose from (1)	
Get tasks done that might not be otherwise done (1)	
Meet organisational goals (1)	

Job Enrichment

Positives	Negatives
Improve skills (57)	Not applicable (5)
Create/maintain interest (13)	Lack of skill development (3)
Accountability/responsibility/ownership (10)	Heavy workload (3)
Job/personal/intellectual satisfaction (7)	Narrow field, job too specialised (1)
Acknowledging contribution/feel more valued (7)	Control is centralised with leadership (1)
To improve career opportunities (5)	Training is not good (1)
Increases confidence (3)	Treated like children, nothing to stimulate (1)
To meet domestic responsibilities (3)	I would quit as a volunteer if used for mundane work (1)
Relieve boredom (3)	Lack of impact on earnings makes less desirable (1)
Create a challenging and rewarding work environment (2)	
Variety and growth (2)	
Better museum product (1)	
Allows for more timely responses – Delaying (1)	
Better understanding of work to do (1)	
Increased trust between volunteer and staffer (1)	

Job Rotation

Positives	Negatives
Improve skills (54)	Not applicable (7)
Create/maintain interest (16)	Job too specialised (6)
Better understanding of the museum/departments within (13)	Reduce skill development/commitment in current role (3)
To gain work experience (9)	No need/value (2)
To improve career opportunities (4)	Not interested (2)
Greater flexibility (4)	Enough variety in present position (2)
Job/personal/intellectual satisfaction (2)	Continuous flow of knowledge in office required, confidential information (1)
Relieve boredom (2)	Efficiency problems due to skills being relearned when someone else already knows how (1)
To meet domestic responsibilities (1)	Lack of professional development (1)
Choice is always good (1)	Prefer to develop skills in current role (1)
Make new connections (1)	Lack of job security (1)
For happier volunteers and paid staff (1)	Unreliable/unsocial working hours (1)
Keeps volunteers from becoming stale (1)	

Temporal Practices

Flexitime

Positives	Negatives
To meet domestic responsibilities (36)	Not applicable (5)
Greater flexibility (16)	Not applicable – Volunteers (5)
Improve work/life balance (13)	Unreliable/unsocial working hours (5)
Improve skills/career opportunities (6)	Prefer regular rosters (3)
Time in lieu (4)	Not interested (3)
Time management (3)	Not applicable – Customer Service Officers (CSOs) (2)
Test out an organisation as a potential employer (2)	Difficult to take accumulated time off (2)
Freedom (1)	Focus on outcomes, not time served (1)
Personal/social development (1)	Lack of flexibility (1)
Good working hours (1)	Difficult to coordinate as I work between 2 areas (1)
Allows for innovation (1)	No overtime paid (1)
Couldn't work any other way (1)	Not as equally applied as it ought to be (1)
Use it frequently (1)	Lack of skill development (1)
Key benefit of working at the museum (1)	
Easier to manage peak visitor periods (1)	

Zero Hours Contracts/Arrangements

Positives	Negatives
Greater flexibility (7)	Not applicable (10)
To meet domestic responsibilities (7)	Prefer consistency (6)
Many projects can be done quickly – Operational requirements (7)	Volunteers should be able to choose their own hours (6)
Personal/lifestyle needs (3)	Unreliable/unsocial working hours (4)
Feel needed (3)	Not interested (3)
Use people's expertise (2)	Lack of job security (2)
Sane way to organise work (1)	Would not suit lifestyle (2)
Maximise earnings (1)	Inconvenient/inefficient (2)
Can choose when to work (1)	Prefer specific volunteering roles (2)
	Unsure how it benefits workers (2)
	Rarely results in quality outcomes/destructive policy (2)
	Cannot organise my time effectively (1)
	Prefer full-time work (1)

Variable Hours Contracts/Arrangements

Positives	Negatives
Greater flexibility (12)	Not applicable (7)
To meet domestic responsibilities (9)	Unreliable/unsocial working hours (6)
Helps in planning work/meeting deadlines/projects (6)	Lack of job security (3)
More commitment/job security (5)	Not applicable – Volunteers (3)
Personal/lifestyle needs (4)	Volunteers should be able to choose their own hours (3)
Improve skills/career opportunities (3)	Rarely results in quality outcomes/destructive policy (3)
Maximise earnings (2)	Would not suit lifestyle (2)
Test out an organisation as an potential employer (2)	Exploitation (1)
Use people's expertise (1)	Prefer full-time work (1)
Sane way to organise work (1)	Prefer specific volunteering roles (1)
Can choose when to work (1)	Product knowledge lost if don't attend regularly (1)
Allows for time management (1)	More interested in a regular commitment (1)
Compensates the organisation for their investment in workers training (1)	

Shift-working

Positives	Negatives
Greater flexibility (6)	Not applicable (17)
To meet domestic responsibilities (6)	Not interested (5)
Cover operational requirements (4)	Unreliable/unsocial working hours (5)
Improve skills/career opportunities (4)	Not applicable – Volunteers (3)
Personal/lifestyle needs (3)	Prefer consistency (3)
Published schedule/roster important (2)	Would not suit lifestyle (3)
Useful sense of predictability (2)	Prefer more choice in general and with shifts (2)
Maximise earnings (1)	Difficult to manage/not practical (2)
Mutually beneficial (1)	Destructive policy (1)
Allows for time management (1)	
May suit some people (1)	

Voluntary Reduced Hours

Positives	Negatives
To meet domestic responsibilities (21)	Not applicable (10)
Greater flexibility (17)	Would not work (1)
Personal/lifestyle needs (15)	Lack of commitment to organisation (1)
Valuable strategy, good if needed (6)	Prefer full-time work (1)
Leave/return to work options (4)	Lack of job security (1)
Improve skills/career opportunities (3)	Unreliable/unsocial working hours (1)
Volunteer co-ordinators are flexible (2)	
Encourages volunteering/enables volunteering in changed circumstances (2)	
Convenient (1)	
If suits both parties, useful working arrangement (1)	
Allows for variety (1)	

Part-time Permanent Work (Paid Staff Respondents Only)

Positives	Negatives
To meet domestic responsibilities (11)	Not applicable (1)
Greater flexibility (11)	Lack of commitment to organisation (1)
Personal/lifestyle needs (7)	Prefer full-time work (1)
Job security (5)	Lack of continuity (1)
Possibly suit in future (3)	
Improve skills/career opportunities (2)	
Leave/return to work options (1)	
Used during heavy periods (1)	
More pay (1)	
Too much work makes people dry up (1)	

Numerical Practices

Job Sharing

Positives	Negatives
Greater flexibility (10)	Not applicable (14)
To meet domestic responsibilities (6)	Difficult to manage (3)
Personal/lifestyle needs (6)	Prefer other forms of work (3)
Leave/return to work options (5)	Encroaches on work of paid staff (3)
Creation of jobs (5)	Fair distribution of workload is difficult (1)
Improve skills/career opportunities (3)	Yet to see this work successfully (1)
Diversity of work arrangements (2)	Lack of skill (1)
Good outcomes for organisation and staff (2)	Unsocial/unreliable working hours (1)
Prefer part-time working/job sharing (1)	
Social equity (1)	
Should be encouraged (1)	
More input, energy (1)	
Meet role requirements (1)	
Spread the workload (1)	
Good to meet other volunteers (1)	

Casual Work (Paid Staff Respondents Only)

Positives	Negatives
To meet domestic responsibilities (4)	Lack of job security (4)
Meet demand (3)	Lack of continuity (4)
Fill skill gaps (3)	Not applicable (4)
Greater flexibility (3)	Not interested (2)
Personal/lifestyle needs (3)	Lack of equity (1)
Improve skills/career opportunities (2)	Type of work makes this difficult (1)
Good if suits worker (2)	Prefer full-time work (1)
Maximise earnings (1)	No leave (1)
Necessary for some functions (1)	Insufficient incentives (1)
	Destructive policy (1)

Fixed-term Contracts/Arrangements

Positives	Negatives
Improve skills/career opportunities (12)	Lack of job security (11)
Project work (8)	Not applicable (9)
Sense of achievement from completion of contract (5)	Prefer consistency, ongoing work (7)
Greater flexibility (5)	Not interested (5)
Meet demand (3)	Doesn't keep skills in-house (2)
Might like to do in the future (3)	Lack of commitment (2)
May suit some people (1)	Destructive policy (2)
	Stressful to staff, creates conflict (2)
	Inconvenient (1)
	Need to constantly recruit and retrain (1)
	Disloyalty and dissatisfaction (1)

**APPENDIX J – STAGE TWO – OTHER
ANALYSIS – SIGNIFICANCE TESTING**

Paid Staff and Volunteer Differences (for interpretation see Table 8.39)

Flexibility Practices - Availability		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
Job Enlargement					
	Paid Worker	3.46	.98	249	2.36*
	Volunteer	3.17	.99		
Job Enrichment					
	Paid Worker	3.23	1.00	242	2.14*
	Volunteer	2.95	1.03		
Job Rotation					
	Paid Worker	2.29	1.16	229	-3.88***
	Volunteer	2.90	1.21		
Voluntary Reduced Hours					
	Paid Worker	2.76	1.23	178	-5.39***
	Volunteer	3.80	1.38		
Fixed-term Contracts/Arrangements					
	Paid Worker	3.33	1.31	152	3.61***
	Volunteer	2.54	1.29		
Flexibility Practices – Value					
Job Rotation					
	Paid Worker	3.14	1.25	219	-2.10*
	Volunteer	3.49	1.16		
Zero Hours Contracts/Arrangements					
	Paid Worker	2.51	1.29	142	-2.15*
	Volunteer	2.99	1.39		
Job Sharing					
	Paid Worker	3.34	1.33	149	2.46*
	Volunteer	2.79	1.33		
Voluntary Reduced Hours					
	Paid Worker	3.65	1.23	177	-2.43*
	Volunteer	4.09#	1.18		
HRM Practices - Availability					
External Training					
	Paid Worker	3.06	1.14	241	4.13***
	Volunteer	2.43	1.25		
Internal Training					
	Paid Worker	2.74	.95	264	-9.12***
	Volunteer	3.82	.98		
Performance Assessment					
	Paid Worker	3.27	1.05	218	7.47***
	Volunteer	2.12	1.20		
Job Descriptions					
	Paid Worker	3.72	1.27	214	3.78***
	Volunteer	3.03	1.37		
HRM Practices – Value					
Performance Assessment					
	Paid Worker	3.62	1.08	217	2.11*
	Volunteer	3.29	1.17		
Partnership Model Scales					
Strategy Scale					
	Paid Worker	2.89	.94	255	8.32***
	Volunteer	1.94	.88		
Commitment Scale					
	Paid Worker	3.61	.58	275	-5.91***
	Volunteer	4.00	.49		
Job Satisfaction Scale					
	Paid Worker	3.84#	.68	280	-3.87***
	Volunteer	4.14#	.65		

		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
Culture – Involvement Index					
	Paid Worker	3.15	.58	159	-5.46***
	Volunteer	3.67	.57		
Culture – Adaptability Index					
	Paid Worker	2.93	.58	130	-4.65***
	Volunteer	3.39	.44		
Culture – Mission Index					
	Paid Worker	3.03	.61	126	-3.43***
	Volunteer	3.39	.47		
HR Investment Scale (Availability)					
	Paid Worker	3.35	.97	163	3.99***
	Volunteer	2.65	1.17		

*p<.05 ***p<.001 # Skewed Result

Gender Differences (for interpretation see Table 8.40)

Flexibility Practices - Availability		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
Flexitime					
	Male	3.44	1.51	200	-2.13*
	Female	3.91#	1.39		
Voluntary Reduced Hours					
	Male	2.85	1.38	178	-2.41*
	Female	3.39	1.38		
Fixed-term Contracts/Arrangements					
	Male	2.36	1.32	152	-4.23***
	Female	3.32	1.28		
Flexibility Practices - Value					
Job Rotation					
	Male	3.03	1.36	219	-2.31*
	Female	3.43	1.13		
Job Sharing					
	Male	2.51	1.29	149	-3.85***
	Female	3.40	1.29		
Part-time Permanent Work					
	Male	3.58	1.24	102	-2.13*
	Female	4.13#	1.11		
Fixed-term Contracts/Arrangements					
	Male	2.58	1.48	156	-2.58*
	Female	3.22	1.34		
HRM Practices – Value					
Career Planning					
	Male	3.04	1.51	178	-2.69*
	Female	3.63	1.24		
Performance Assessment					
	Male	3.23	1.21	217	-2.28*
	Female	3.60	1.07		
Partnership Model Scales					
Strategy Scale					
	Male	2.19	1.03	255	-2.78*
	Female	2.57	1.01		
Commitment Scale					
	Male	3.91	.56	275	2.08*
	Female	3.75	.57		
Job Satisfaction Scale					
	Male	4.11#	.78	280	2.00*
	Female	3.93	.63		
Turnover Scale					
	Male	1.88#	.85	281	-2.27*
	Female	2.14	.92		

*p<.05 ***p<.001 # Skewed Result

Age Differences (for interpretation see Table 8.41)

Median split = 3 (40-49 years)

Flexibility Practices - Availability		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
Voluntary Reduced Hours					
	Age – Below Median	3.04	1.36	178	-2.64*
	Age – Above Median	3.62	1.40		
Flexibility Practices – Value					
Job Enrichment					
	Age – Below Median	3.98#	.96	236	2.54*
	Age – Above Median	3.65	.91		
Flexitime					
	Age – Below Median	4.05#	1.22	196	2.18*
	Age – Above Median	3.61	1.35		
HRM Practices – Availability					
External Training					
	Age – Below Median	2.94	1.21	241	2.90*
	Age – Above Median	2.46	1.21		
Internal Training					
	Age – Below Median	3.10	1.11	264	-3.19*
	Age – Above Median	3.54	1.04		
HRM Practices – Value					
External Training					
	Age – Below Median	4.18#	.95	232	4.11***
	Age – Above Median	3.61	1.11		
Career Planning					
	Age – Below Median	3.63	1.28	178	3.48***
	Age – Above Median	2.78	1.40		
Job Descriptions					
	Age – Below Median	3.67	1.07	212	2.93*
	Age – Above Median	3.20	1.09		
Partnership Model Scales					
Strategy Scale					
	Age – Below Median	2.75	.93	255	6.86***
	Age – Above Median	1.91	.96		
Commitment Scale					
	Age – Below Median	3.74	.60	275	-2.16*
	Age – Above Median	3.89	.51		
Job Satisfaction Scale					
	Age – Below Median	3.85#	.73	280	-4.35***
	Age – Above Median	4.21	.53		
Culture – Involvement Index					
	Age – Below Median	3.26	.64	159	-2.43*
	Age – Above Median	3.51	.56		
Culture – Consistency Index					
	Age – Below Median	3.06	.59	149	-2.51*
	Age – Above Median	3.31	.51		

*p<.05 ***p<.001 # Skewed Result

Volunteer Frequency Differences (for interpretation see Table 8.42)

Flexibility Practices - Availability		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
Voluntary Reduced Hours					
	Weekly	3.94	1.37	43	2.41*
	Monthly	2.75	1.71		
Flexibility Practices – Value					
Zero Hours Contracts/Arrangements					
	Weekly	3.23	1.34	46	2.06*
	Fortnightly	2.45	1.26		
Voluntary Reduced Hours					
	Weekly	4.13#	1.15	41	2.18*
	Monthly	3.17	1.64		
Fixed-term Contracts/Arrangements					
	Weekly	3.65	1.18	41	3.06*
	Fortnightly	2.48	1.31		
Partnership Model Scales					
Strategy Scale					
	Weekly	1.80	.81	88	-2.94*
	Fortnightly	2.34	.93		
Turnover Scale					
	Weekly	1.57	.59	101	-2.02*
	Fortnightly	1.83	.70		
Job Satisfaction Scale					
	Weekly	4.38	.46	100	3.93***
	Fortnightly	3.99	.52		
Culture – Involvement Index					
	Fortnightly	3.63	.33	29	-2.58*
	Monthly	3.99	.44		

*p<.05 ***p<.001 # Skewed Result

No significant differences were found in relation to the HR variables.

Flexibility Differences (for interpretation see Table 8.43 and 8.44)

Partnership Model Scales	Individual Flexible Work Practices - Availability	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
Commitment Scale					
	Job Enlargement – Below Median	3.73	.59	275	-1.99*
	Job Enlargement – Above Median	3.87	.55		
	Job Enrichment – Below Median	3.71	.60	275	-2.86*
	Job Enrichment – Above Median	3.91	.52		
	Job Rotation – Below Median	3.73	.58	275	-2.53*
	Job Rotation – Above Median	3.91	.54		
	Flexitime – Below Median	3.68	.56	275	-2.78*
	Flexitime – Above Median	3.87	.57		
	Job Sharing – Below Median	3.69	.58	275	-2.02*
	Job Sharing – Above Median	3.84	.57		
	Voluntary Reduced Hours – Below Median	3.71	.58	275	-2.00*
	Voluntary Reduced Hours – Above Median	3.85	.58		
Turnover Scale					
	Job Enlargement – Below Median	2.20	.94	281	2.59*
	Job Enlargement – Above Median	1.92	.85		

Turnover cont.		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
	Job Rotation – Below Median	2.15	.94	281	2.18*
	Job Rotation – Above Median	1.91	.82		
	Voluntary Reduced Hours – Below Median	2.30	.96	281	3.45***
	Voluntary Reduced Hours – Above Median	1.92	.84		
Job Satisfaction Scale					
	Job Enlargement – Below Median	3.79#	.73	280	-5.27***
	Job Enlargement – Above Median	4.20	.56		
	Job Enrichment – Below Median	3.80#	.74	280	-5.32***
	Job Enrichment – Above Median	4.21	.53		
	Job Rotation – Below Median	3.92#	.66	280	-2.32*
	Job Rotation – Above Median	4.11#	.71		
	Flexitime – Below Median	3.87#	.72	280	-2.27*
	Flexitime – Above Median	4.06	.65		
	Voluntary Reduced Hours – Below Median	3.88#	.66	280	-2.04*
	Voluntary Reduced Hours – Above Median	4.05#	.69		
Partnership Model Scales	Flexibility Components - Availability				
Commitment Scale					
	Component 3 (Most Secure) - Below Median	3.70	.61	234	-2.57*
	Component 3 (Most Secure) - Above Median	3.90	.53		
Job Satisfaction Scale					
	Component 3 (Most Secure) - Below Median	3.77#	.75	236	-5.02***
	Component 3 (Most Secure) - Above Median	4.21	.54		

* $p < .05$ *** $p < .001$ # Skewed Result

Differences in Satisfaction with Flexibility and HR Practices (for interpretation see Table 8.45)

Partnership Model Scales		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
Commitment Scale					
	Satisfied with Flexibility Practices – Below Median	3.69	.55	275	-5.41***
	Satisfied with Flexibility Practices – Above Median	4.09#	.53		
	Satisfied with HR Practices – Below Median	3.76	.56	275	-2.77*
	Satisfied with HR Practices – Above Median	4.04#	.61		
Turnover Scale					
	Satisfied with Flexibility Practices – Below Median	2.20	.90	281	4.33***
	Satisfied with Flexibility Practices – Above Median	1.70#	.82		
	Satisfied with HR Practices – Below Median	2.12	.90	281	3.07*
	Satisfied with HR Practices – Above Median	1.64#	.81		
Job Satisfaction Scale					
	Satisfied with Flexibility Practices – Below Median	3.90#	.69	280	-3.51***
	Satisfied with Flexibility Practices – Above Median	4.21	.61		

Satisfaction cont.		<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
	Satisfied with HR Practices – Below Median	3.95#	.68	280	-2.19*
	Satisfied with HR Practices – Above Median	4.22	.65		

*p<.05 ***p<.001 # Skewed Result

Communication Differences (for interpretation see Table 8.46)

Partnership Model Scales	Communication between Paid Workers	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
Commitment Scale					
	Paid Worker Communication – Below Median	3.43	.54	141	-4.21***
	Paid Worker Communication – Above Median	3.81	.56		
Job Satisfaction Scale					
	Paid Worker Communication – Below Median	3.70#	.67	142	-2.47*
	Paid Worker Communication – Above Median	3.98#	.67		
	Communication between Volunteers				
Commitment Scale					
	Volunteer Communication – Below Median	3.94	.49	132	-2.23*
	Volunteer Communication – Above Median	4.15	.47		
	Communication between Paid Staff & Volunteers				
Commitment Scale					
	Communication Paid/Unpaid Workers – Below Median	3.65	.56	275	-4.49***
	Communication Paid/Unpaid Workers – Above Median	3.95	.55		
Turnover Scale					
	Communication Paid/Unpaid Workers – Below Median	2.22	.94	281	2.94*
	Communication Paid/Unpaid Workers – Above Median	1.91	.84		
Job Satisfaction Scale					
	Communication Paid/Unpaid Workers – Below Median	3.86#	.77	280	-3.05*
	Communication Paid/Unpaid Workers – Above Median	4.11	.57		
	Work Relationship Between Paid Staff & Volunteers				
Commitment Scale					
	Working Relationship– Below Median	3.74	.54	275	-3.17*
	Working Relationship– Above Median	3.99#	.62		
Job Satisfaction Scale					
	Working Relationship– Below Median	3.91#	.67	280	-3.26***
	Working Relationship– Above Median	4.22	.70		