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How middle managers in international hotels in New Zealand manage contingent labour

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By

Anthony Brien

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Abstract of a thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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This research is a grounded theory of the management of contingent labour by middle managers in international hotels in New Zealand.

Contingent labour is used extensively in hotels internationally as well as in New Zealand with the workforce composition being dynamic in terms of culture, tenure and general demographics. The use of contingent labour is for reasons of seasonality and economics in terms of labour costs. The extensive use of this dynamic labour force has seen the introduction of systems (and systems management) in most areas of operations to cope with issues of maintenance of standards and service levels, yet, in so doing has reduced managerial autonomy.

Respondents find that managing this dynamic workforce, even with the benefit of organisational systems, is a challenging task. From my fieldwork I found middle managers feel pressured to choose between two managerial dimensions – rationalism and humanism. Collins and Porras (1994) propose that this is a trap for managers in that they may succumb to the 'tyranny of the OR' – managers can be either rationalistic OR humanistic. However, I found that respected managers harness what Collins and Porras call the 'genius of the AND', that is, they are not trapped by this polarity and as such have mastered and utilise systems <u>and</u> married this with building relationships with their staff. Indeed, effective managers place relationships, in the

form of building social capital, ahead of systems in the belief that this eventually brings greater business success.

Humanistic managers are not necessarily satisfied with achieving the minimum standards that systems are intended to achieve. Instead they push for increased (business) outcomes. However, humanistic management is not without its costs, with such managers experiencing higher levels of stress and burnout – often resulting in resignation. Rational managers, who simply follow the systems experience less stress, but are also less likely to exceed desired standards.

The paradox for the hotel industry is that with respected middle managers being few in number and difficult to recruit, losing such managers risks damaging the organisational knowledge base and organisational social frameworks. Ultimately, such damage flows through to influencing the way in which contingent labour employees interact with guests; an area which is a hotels' prime competitive advantage. The key practical message for senior managers in international hotels is that it will help if they are more aware of the development of social capital in their organisation, who develops it, and the risk to those who do. Failure to recognise and support the builders of social capital could impact negatively on the achievement of business objectives.

Key Words

Contingent labour, hotels, New Zealand, management, rationalism, humanism, systems, grounded theory

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Middle managers and their staff are critical to the success of our businesses and while much research has been on operative staffing, less attention has been paid to the people who lead these operatives – our middle managers. The research and writing of this thesis was to contribute to the understanding of how middle managers in international hotels managed their contingent labour.

My achieving this PhD was not possible without a supportive supervisory team, research participants and in my case a wonderful family; all who have influenced my thinking.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Today's business environment has changed dramatically from that of twenty years ago as organisations struggle to remain competitive, in particular as we move from the manufacturing economy to the knowledge/service economy. During this time, businesses have reorganised operations in both the manner in which they engage employees and in the infrastructural mechanisms/processes that employees use in carrying out their jobs. Such an approach has seen economic rationalism come to the fore (Saul, 1992), yet it is questioned if this is indeed the only or most appropriate way forward.

Nevertheless, environmental changes have placed pressures on internal operations resulting in changes in employee engagement (often to reduce costs) and seen organisations "restructured", "down-sized", "right-sized", "fatten management levels", or "outsource", with a strong emphasis on the use of contingent labour (Banham, 1995; Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997; Tourish, Paulsen, Hobman, & Bordia, 2004). As the use of contingent labour has increased, so has the need to create infrastructure that allows the contingent workforce (which is a changing workforce) to maintain required standards. In response to these changes, infrastructural changes now includes extensive use of technology and 'systems management'. The use of contingent labour presuppose changes in managerial practice, however, little research has focused on the management of contingent labour.

Changes in employment arrangements and in how employees work has also changed the employer/employee working relationship. Relationships have become transactional affairs usually managed by middle managers with little control over the work environment. Understanding today's contingent labour employment relationships is important, for such relationships are now central to organisational functioning and play a central part in how companies build competitive advantage.

This research focused on middle managers managing contingent labour within three international hotels in Auckland, New Zealand. The choice of this research group was drawn from my perceived paradox that while hotels have extensive managerial systems designed to deal with every contingency, i.e. a transactional environment; the clientele frequenting such hotels are seeking an experience that would not generally be termed transactional, i.e. a superior facilities and customer interaction environment. Middle managers are therefore managing employees in a conflictual organisational environment, i.e. the systems needs of the hotel versus relationship needs of employees and guests. The case study hotels are substantial employers, each engaging on average 350 Equivalent Full Time Employees (EFTS), the majority of who fall into the category of contingent labour. While these hotels contribute to the local and national economy, they are also a vital subcomponent of the general tourism industry, an industry which contributes to the New Zealand economy via 18.3% of export earnings, 9.9% of employment and 9.4% of the New Zealand GDP (TRC, 2005). The New Zealand Hotel Council, which represents 'major' hotels (three-star plus, including all international standard hotels) values the New Zealand hotel asset base at almost $NZD2.5 billion, notes that their representative hotels generate annual revenues of around $NZD700 million, and employ nearly 9300 full and part time staff (NZHC, 2005). As a sub-sector of the general hotel industry, the pool of labour that international hotels access needs to be either pre-trained or able to be quickly trained to the desired standard, available when required, and disengaged when not required. This workforce is, in the main, contingent and said to be challenging to manage.

The use of contingent labour is expected to grow further, and may require new management practices (Cardon, 2003; Larson & Ong, 1994; Milner & Pinker, 2001; Nayar & Willinger, 2001). However, to advance such practices we need to first understand how managers manage the contingent workforce of today. This research project focuses on the experiences of managing contingent labour in international hotels in New Zealand.

1.2 The contingent labour workforce in New Zealand and New Zealand international hotels

The use of contingent labour is an international phenomenon with New Zealand in the past two decades making substantial structural employment change to accommodate this practice. The New Zealand government report *Workforce* (New Zealand Government, 2001, March) states:

> *"The organisation of work has changed from (in many cases) restrictive highly organised routine work, to increasingly flexible work organisations and hours. Supermarkets, for example, are now open 24-hours-a day in some cities. This creates flexibility (for both consumers and employees) but also risks (for both employees and consumers) in terms of health and safety, the ability to choose shifts that meet both the employers' and the employees' needs and has implications for the life of other family members" (p. 9).*

As suggested in the previous section, international research reports that today's business environment has changed and relies heavily on contingent labour (Cardon, 2003; Larson & Ong, 1994; Milner & Pinker, 2001; Nayar & Willinger, 2001). In 2001, of the total New Zealand workforce, 28.7 per cent (496,000) worked forty hours or more per week with the remaining 71.3 per cent (1,230,000) working less than forty hours (New Zealand Government, 2001, March). A significant proportion of those working less than 40-hours per week are likely to be contingent employees and within this subset many will be workers engaged in the international hotel industry.

I chose to situate my research in international hotels, partly because this is my field of professional specialisation, but also because a majority of employees in international hotels are contingent staff. Further, research specific to New Zealand international hotels is limited, with the most recent and closely related study completed by Ryan (1998) under the title of "Managing to compete: Employment, work and labour relations in the hospitality industry in New Zealand". Ryan's management study (p. 68) reports changing employment practice from the 1960s where the majority of hotel staff were full-time, to 1996 where part-time workers made up fifty-five per cent of the total number of workers in hotels and restaurants. While this may have been a result of employment, legislative and/or economic changes, social changes may also have contributed (Ryan, 1996). Ryan's work and the *Workforce* report referred to previously, both highlight the considerable changes that have taken place and continue to occur in employment practices.

While contingent labour as a practice continues to grow, employment growth within the hospitality industry is also evident. During the years 1996 – 2001, growth within the occupational group involving "hospitality" (a term which includes hotels) increased by one per cent to engage approximately 30,000 full-time equivalent people (New Zealand Department of Labour, 2002, p. 10). This figure of 30,000 does not identify proportions of contingent employees of which, anecdotally the hotel industry is a significant user. The demographics of the hotel workforce are varied and tend to include those actively seeking short-term employment e.g. students, expatriates on working holidays in New Zealand, as well as those who are unable to, or do not wish to gain full-time work. Employees often hold several part-time positions while a smaller proportion seeks to make the industry a career (Brien, 2002). Of the total hotel workforce only a small group is full-time, this usually includes some front-line staff, most supervisors, and all middle and senior managers.

In managing a highly contingent labour workforce, hotels have well documented Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs), manuals and decision making algorithms - the 'what' and 'content' of management. For example, banqueting departments have detailed documented staff-to-guest ratios with associated photographic room and table setups in order to make banquet preparation easy to follow. Such an approach is a clear example of the "McDonaldisation" of service as described by Ritzer (2003), with clear standards developed to meet service demands. However, we know little about the process by which managers use this "content" and the variability in practice.

Further, given the lean managerial staffing regimes of many hotels, the departure of any of these managers presents a major problem in terms of loss of knowledge / information and in disruption to relationships between managers and staff. Yet, there is a distinct possibility that the challenge of managing a significant contingent labour force could in itself lead to the departure of middle managers.

Potentially, the ideal situation for hotels is to have a highly skilled and motivated contingent workforce available at will, who are totally loyal to a particular property therefore presenting very little employee turnover. In general, however, this is not the position hotels find themselves in. For employers, the practice of using a significant contingent labour force to control labour costs works well in times of high unemployment. However, when unemployment declines, labour turnover increases, and so do the direct and indirect costs of employment. In 2002, the average international standard Auckland hotel had an employee turnover rate of forty-eight per cent (Brien, 2002). This means that, on average, each staff member stayed only six months. Using standard turnover costing models (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000), the average annual turnover cost to each hotel was approximately $906,000.00. Thus, while contingent labour is used to manage or reduce costs, under certain circumstances it may potentially yield an unacceptable increase in costs. Nevertheless, at present and perhaps in the short term, the widespread use of contingent labour suggests that in the case of the hotel industry, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages.

1.3 The research question

Given the case for the use of contingent labour in international hotels and the fact that it is middle managers who manage this workforce on a daily basis, the central research question is: how do middle managers in international hotels manage and influence their contingent labour force?

1.4 The thesis summary

We live in an era of economic rationalism (Saul, 1992). This is nowhere more apparent than in the use of contingent staffing where employment patterns are charcterised by short term contractual relationships that allows for numeric, functional and economic flexibility. For some managers, this rational business environment results in a rational management approach; follow the systems provided and hopefully you will achieve the business objectives. Other managers, however, while understanding the need for systems and a rational approach and indeed engage such practices, augment their managerial style by developing relationships with their contingent labour, that is, adding humanism.

This research accepts the need for engagement of contingent labour and systems for international hotels to remain competitive, but challenges managerial thinking about how we achieve our organisational goals. The risk is that extensive use of systems can remove the humanistic component of the employment relationship. Hotel operations would probably benefit if managers could establish a better balance between the rational and the humanistic – what is referred to by Collins (1994) as 'the genius of the AND'.

The findings of this research add to our understanding of the importance of social capital in hotel management. I argue that benefits would accrue if senior managers in international hotels were more attuned to the importance of social capital as part of their business strategy mix. While social capital is an intangible commodity, its effective development has tangible effects – potentially in improved business outcomes including labour turnover and labour productivity. One aspect of an environment in which social capital can develop, can be seen in the active support by senior managers for those who actively promote the development of strong workplace relationships. In a highly contingent workforce, failure to recognise the sterling work of those who promote social capital – the middle managers in this research - is likely to result in their burn-out and resignation. Such a result is a significant loss to all – to the remaining workforce who lose a significant constant in their working day, to the loss of institutional knowledge, and to the managers themselves who may be reluctant to invest in developing social capital in their future managerial roles. While this research is based in international hotels, potentially the findings can be generalised to other organisations where contingent labour is the mainstay of their labour force and where the workforce has close direct contact with their customers.

Common sense has a part to play in this challenge, that is, a balanced managerial approach to managing contingent (and potentially all) labour is sensible. Saul (2001, p. 17) views, however, that while we understand much of the world and how it works, often we do not use what we know – making common sense real. Saul goes on to say that common sense is complex, lateral and disinterested, yet common sense lies at the core of a successful society. We need to ask then, does the world need to focus on rationalisation when by engaging balance we can exceed desired results?

1.5 Overview of the thesis

The thesis contains five chapters and a number of appendices. This, the first chapter, set out to explain the significance of the research and the context in which the research was explored.

Chapter 2 describes the phenomenon of contingent labour, its historical development and position in today's business environment. While contingent labour is an accepted part of business operations, one outcome of its use is that of employee turnover, therefore reference is made to the array of literature from this area.

Chapter 3 Research Methodology and Data Collection - explains my research paradigm and the reasons for selecting the qualitative research methodologies of grounded theory and case study. This chapter also details how I collected my data.

Chapter 4 – Data Analysis. After much analysis of the participant's 'words', this chapter proposes that managers operate within a self elected management style of either 'economic' where they have 'a' working relationship with their staff (including contingent labour) or are 'active' where they develop more meaningful working relationships. A number of appendices relate to this chapter.

Chapter 5 – Emerging Theory. The concept of economic and active management is further explored within the theoretical framework of social capital which has lead to the development of my theory in relation to the research question.

Chapter 2

Contingent Labour

2.1 Introduction

I reviewed the literature related to contingent labour for two reasons. First, I wanted to understand its historical development and why extensive use of contingent labour is now a standard human resource management practice. Second, as the use of contingent labour is anecdotally related to increases in employee turnover – a particular issue in hotels, a review of the turnover literature appeared important.

This chapter begins by defining contingent labour. Section 2.3 then reviews the historical development of contingent labour globally and within New Zealand and estimates the size of the contingent workforce. Section 2.4 explains the pros and cons of the use of contingent labour from both the business and employee perspective, while Section 2.5 reviews the demographics of this workforce. Finally, Section 2.6 reviews literature on employee turnover.

2.2 Contingent labour defined

Researchers have developed a number of terms to describe non-permanent staff: "contingent" (Lips, 1998; , 1989, p 8; Polivka, 1989), "atypical" (Bourhis & Wils, 2001; Dickens, 1992; OECD, 2002), "involuntary part-time" (Larson & Ong, 1994), "irregular" (Harley, 1994), "just-in-time / no-frills / McWorkers / jobless but not workless" (Van Horn-Christopher, 1996), "employability staffing" (Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997), "non-standard" (Allan, Brosnon, Horwitz, & Walsh, 2001), "temporary staffing" (Theodore & Peck, 2002) and "multiple job holders" (Spoonley, 2004).

While differences in terms are associated with location, culture, and the era in which the phenomenon is being researched, this inconsistency is unhelpful when trying to define the phenomenon and to identify the size of the contingent labour work force.

For the purposes of my research I use Polivka's (1989, p 10) definition of contingent labour, i.e. "any job in which an individual does not have an explicit or implicit contract for long-term employment, or one in which the minimum hours worked can vary in a non-systematic manner".

2.3 The historical development of contingent labour

Contingent employment has emerged as a result of global economic conditions over the past 50 years.

The post World War Two business environment highlights global economies moving to a 'competitive economic position' (Hardy & Walker, 2003; Spoonley, 2004). Globally for the past 50 years businesses have moved through economic cycles reinforcing competitiveness. Businesses argue that to remain economically viable they need flexibility in all areas of operations, need to be vigilant regarding operational costs and must constantly investigate options for cost reduction. One such strategy to achieve these 'needs' is to manage or lower wage costs by rearranging how staff are engaged, i.e. reducing or not employing full-time staff (Rogers, 2000; Smith, 1997). This strategy has been described as *flexibility in employment relations* and has involved a gradual shift from standard work patterns to non-standard patterns (Allan, Brosnon, Horwitz, & Walsh, 2001; Spoonley, 2004). Themes of contingent labour have shown steady growth over the past 30 years. However, there are countries where growth can be described as significant. For example Mangan (2000) points to a 250% increase in the use of contingent labour in the United States between 1983 and 1992. In many countries the use of contingent labour is now standard business employment practice.

Just as different terms are used to describe contingent labour (yet fundamentally have the same meaning), so different rhetoric is used to describe the reasons why we need this labour force and to describe the process of creating flexibility. The drive to flexibility has seen actions that we have become all too familiar with, i.e. company downsizing, company re-engineering or taking a minimalist approach (Banham, 1995; Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997), efficiency and effectiveness (Cameron, 1994; Tourish, Paulsen, Hobman, & Bordia, 2004), restructuring (Conley, 1998), creating a 'core' and 'peripheral' workforce (Friedrich, Kabst, Weber, & Rodehuth, 1998), responding to shorter product life cycles requiring seasonal workers (Larson & Ong, 1995), flattening the managerial structure and empowering workers (Van Horn-Christopher, 1996), a flexible workforce meeting global and technological changes (Auer & Cazes, 2000), numeric and functional employee flexibility (Theodore & Peck, 2002), and new business needing only initial yet instant knowledge (Cardon, 2003). Underlying all these processes is a dominant motive – the need to control and reduce labour costs.

As businesses have sought competitiveness through flexibility they have been assisted by governments (possibly as a result of pressure from business) through changes to labour relations legislation (Callister, 1997; Morrison, 2004; Spoonley, 2004). Internationally, labour legalisation has also moved in cycles as governments themselves cycle into and out of power. The New Zealand government intervention in labour relations dates back to 1894 with the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act. From this point, and responding to lobbying from employees, businesses and changing governments, further interventions have taken place through the Industrial Relations Act 1973, the Labour Relations Act 1987 and the Employment Relations Act (Geare, 1989). In summary, present legislation supports the use of labour contingency and the extensive use of individual employment contracts which may reduce national employment agreements and bargaining for increased hours and favourable outcomes for contingent employees etc.

While businesses globally have moved to increased employment flexibility, official measurement of contingent labour usage has received less attention, perhaps as a result of disagreement about what constitutes contingent labour (Risher, 1997) or perhaps as a strategy (by employers) to not highlight its increasing use. While the

United Kingdom holds records back as far as 1951 (Dickens, 1992), the United States only began 'official data gathering' in 1995 (Milner & Pinker, 2001). As a brief demonstration of the usefulness of such recording to track international changes and comparisons, Dickens (1992) reports the United Kingdom contingent labour position as being 4% in 1951 moving to around 25% in 1991, while Cardon (2002) states that of all United States employees, in 1996 10% worked part-time, while two years later Paul and Townsend (1998) suggested that it is as much as 25%. Translating the statistics into monetary terms Theodore and Peck (2002) suggest the United States temporary staffing industry is a $USD64 billion dollar business; a large labour market in terms of employees as well as expenditure as often temporary staff cost more, which poses the question whether the gains that business were seeking, by using contingent staff, have been achieved (Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997).

New Zealand has not escaped the global growth of contingent labour and saw an acceleration of this under a National Government when the labour market was reshaped with the introduction of the Employment Contracts Act 1989 (Spoonley, 2004). Spoonley reports that while there was a 34.6% increase in part-time wages between 1991 and 2001, as at 2004, there was no official data gathering as to how many workers make up the New Zealand contingent workforce. Spoonley's call for more data gathering – domestically and internationally, follows similar calls from Carrre (1992), Callister (1997), Carroll (1999) and Tucker (2002). Prior to the introduction of governmental legislation, contingency of labour was evident in New Zealand in such industries as the freezing works and waterfront. While the nature of these industries is quite different to that of international hotels, that is, hotels are a very 'personal interaction industry', freezing works and the waterfronts are more process oriented. Adding to these differences is a change in the manner in which we engage people from what might have been months of seasonal work, and / or generous conditions for being part of the contingent workforce, to a more aggressive rationalistic approach of engage and disengage at will and a desire to trim labour costs in any way possible.

There appears no foreseeable abatement in the use of contingent labour, with Owens (2001), Lowe (2002) and the OEDC (2002) predicting that this employment market will be the dominant and fastest growing employment trend in the foreseeable future.

While understanding business' desire for employment flexibility in order to remain competitive, there is a counter argument that significant use of contingent labour does not necessarily bring sustainable long-term benefits to business or their labour markets (Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997). The continual process of downsizing, upsizing or rightsizing is not without its challenges; challenges that exist for both the employer and employee.

2.4 Issues surrounding the use of contingent labour

This section reviews the advantages and disadvantages of contingent labour for both employee and employer.

2.4.1 Advantages and disadvantages for businesses using contingent labour.

From a business perspective the use of contingent labour allows for flexibility and cost reduction in the following ways:

- it accommodates seasonal business trends
- it allows for activation of special projects with short term time horizons
- it can be used as a screening mechanism when seeking full-time staff
- provides added support for core personnel
- can reduce costs such as training and promotion and career development and
- may reduce union activity as part-time staff are harder to organise and are therefore less likely to be union members (Paul & Townsend, 1998).

All the above strategies can be used to 'control' labour costs. The greater the contingent workforce, potentially the greater control the business maintains. However, while direct 'costs savings' are obvious, there are also tangible and intangible costs in using contingent labour.

Tangible cost increases include reductions in productivity after actioning a contingent labour strategy – the reverse of what businesses are seeking (Henkoff, 1990; Nayar & Willinger, 2001). These (costs) may exist long after the shift to contingent labour (Banham, 1995). 'Productivity cost' may result from reduction in employee goodwill and employees who find ways to 'pay-back' the employer for what they perceive as skimping, money making tactics. In addition to productivity loss, poor work performance (quality) can add costs as employees perceive a lack of commitment by businesses toward employees (McNerney, 1995). In addition to on-job costs, business may also suffer when contingent workers leave unexpectedly. Business may be forced to engage – often expensive – contract or outsourced staff at short notice, e.g. consultants, to complete work.

Contingent labour is often used as part of an organisational downsizing strategy , involving a fundamental cut in personnel – movement to a 'lean organisation' (Cardon, 2003; Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997; Tourish, Paulsen, Hobman, & Bordia, 2004). These researchers emphasise that this approach can lead to intangible costs such as: a decrease in morale and trust, increased stress on the remaining workforce, burnout and a loss of organisational memory. Kets de Vries and Balazs go so far as to question the anticipated long-term organisational gains of downsizing in general and the significant use of contingent labour in today's organisations, while Volberda (1999) states that too much change/flexibility can create even more costs and complexities.

The move to being a flexible firm has seen 'people' left out of the equation (Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997), particularly when employees see the breaking of the psychological working contract through 'hire at will and fire at will' approaches (McDonald & Makin, 2000). While the thrust of such actions may have been for business survival, Ket de Vries and Balazs suggest that there is a high social cost in such an approach and that the anticipated gains do not in fact materialise as morale, trust and productivity waver. People and relationships are critical to the success of any organisation. People can be considered the heart and soul of an organisation and have the potential to comprise its competitive advantage (Pfeffer, 1997).

In the previous discussion I suggested that one outcome of contingent labour is increased employee turnover (further discussed in Section 2.6), which is often not 'costed' (Callister, 1997). Thus, there is an active debate noting that the benefits of restructuring and contingency have been over-sold, while the disadvantages have been ignored. Larson and Ong (1994) note that employee turnover is indeed a major 'hidden cost' and suggest that there needs to be a balance between the core and contingent workforce to minimise costs while maintaining positive working relations.

2.4.2 Contingent labour demographics and the advantages and disadvantages of being a contingent worker.

In reviewing the 'world of work' Spoonley (2004) reports that historically fulltime work was, and often still is, considered a 'male model'. As time has moved on, however, social and economic reforms of the sectors of the 1980s and 1990s have provided opportunities for others to participate in the workforce, for example, contingent labour demographics have resulted in more female workers in the workforce (Allan, Brosnon, Horwitz, & Walsh, 2001; Larson & Ong, 1995). In addition to a substantial increase in females, international migrants and young workers have been added to the contingent labour pool (Spoonley, 2004), with New Zealand seeing a marked increase in all areas.

The emphasis by employers on the advantages of contingent labour may be questionable given this review of fresh research findings. For example, while the number of contingent workers grows, it is reported that a substantial number of able workers cannot find full-time work, that is, many do not desire a 'part-time career' (Bourhis & Wils, 2001; Hardy & Walker, 2003). However, this is not a concern for those who actively seek more flexibility in their working lives (Allan, Brosnon, Horwitz, & Walsh, 2001). Examples include opportunities for school students (as well as older workers) to earn additional income, and providing an entry point for those wishing to re-enter the workforce (Callister, 1997; Hippel, Manhum, Greenberger, Skoglind, & Heneman, 1997; Paul & Townsend, 1998; Polivak, 1996).

Regardless of whether people 'personally want to be part of the contingent workforce or not', the literature presents concerns about the use of contingent labour workforce and its overall impact on society. Davis-Blake and Uzzi (1993) are supported by Harley (1994) in suggesting that the continued growth of contingent labour will create a dual market of workers; those in secure-high paying jobs contrasted with those in contingent-low paid jobs. Auer and Cazes (2000) suggest that jobs are beginning to be seen as no more than temporary assignments and that this can have undesirable effects on the broader social community. This potential de-stabilisation of the general social framework is a point mooted by Spoonley (2004) who believes that an irregular workforce impacts on the cohesion between work and the community. Finally, supporting these concerns the OECD (2002, 2004; OECD, 2004) has suggested that changes in employment labour practices must be 'managed' carefully. In particular the OECD see contingent workers wages lagging behind permanent workers and a potential conflict of work and family lives as people work more than one job, or earn less.

Having canvassed the history of contingent labour use, its advantages and disadvantages, I now consider this topic within a hospitality context.

2.5 The contingent workforce in the hospitality industry

To varying degrees, contingent labour has been used in the tourism and hospitality industry for decades, but is now legitimised as part of normal business practice (Farrell, 2001). In addition to external forces, Farrell also suggests that the hospitality industry has suffered short-term management and a lack of investment in people, and it was not until the 1990s that the industry saw ethics and social responsibility as key management practices in addition to profit.

While the actual numbers of contingent workers who make up the hospitality workforce is unknown, Bagguley (1990) and Lucas and Ralston (1996) suggest that in general terms it exceeds 60%, of which the majority are under 21 and female. While there is no evidence to suggest that the industry strategically targets females and young workers, these two groups are over-represented in the industry and this is likely to be the result of the focus on contingency.

While low pay is one industry employment characteristic encouraging contingency, others include low levels of unionisation, anti-social working hours, low skill level requirements, little training, and a highly female, young and migrant-oriented workforce (Bagguley, 1990; Ball, 1988; Deery & Jago, 2002). In addition to the significant level of contingency, many of the aforementioned characteristics create substantial employee turnover in comparison to other industries (Ball, 1988). Given the potential for negative outcomes from an emphasis on contingent employment, the continued emphasis on contingent staffing is surprising. However, it remains an industry phenomenon, only being addressed when labour markets are tight.

2.6 Past research genre and methodological approaches related to contingent labour

Much research related to contingent labour lies in the study of one of its outcomes, that is, employee turnover, and implicitly sees the phenomenon of turnover as bad. The turnover literature includes more than 1000 studies (Trevor, 2001), with a whole generation of researchers exploring the reasons for turnover and seeking to reduce it (Boles, Ross, & Johnson, 1995; Bolls, Ross, & Johnson, 1995; Bonn & Forbringer, 1992; Cheng & Brown, 1998; Cobban, 1998; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Cullen, 1989; Deery & Shaw, 1998, 1999; Denvir & McMahon, 1992). Staffing policies in New Zealand hotels pre-1980, and elsewhere, were intended to create staff loyalty and commitment, however, during this time the majority of staff were fulltime and the workforce was more stable. Yet, as discussed in Section 2.3, in the 1980s and 1990s, widespread corporate restructuring was undertaken, with an emphasis on flatter management structures and increased use of contingent labour (Burke & Nelson, 1998; Kets de Vries & Balazs, 1997, p. 12).

The reader of this research may question what new and insightful ideas can be added to this extensively researched field. I suggest that it is not necessarily 'what' has been researched in the past (and present) regarding contingent labour and associated outcomes, but 'how' it has been researched which may open up new understandings.

Research related to contingent labour use has, in the main, been quantitative and from a positivist view. This section briefly explores this approach to demonstrate how it has failed to suggest 'new and different' theories in relation to the management of contingent labour.

The emphasis of turnover research has been placed on exploring correlates such as job satisfaction (Mobley, 1977), motivation, training/professional development, achievement, promotion and career development and their relationship to employee turnover (Arnett, Laverie, & McLande, 2002; Ghiselle, La Lopa, & Bai, 2001; Hancer & George, 2003; Wiess, Davis, England, & Lofquist, 1967). Over time, and partly based on research, hotels have developed a range of 'employee retention' tools for managers to use to manage contingent labour and turnover, including transfers, promotions, gift packs and training – carrots to get people (perhaps unhappy people) to stay. Once these tools have been exhausted however, it is left up to the manager to manage – as best they can - the contingent workforce. Managing the workforce may include contending with the issue of turnover. However, the management of contingent labour in general has not received research attention.

Much of the previously mentioned research has been undertaken in a quantitative frame. Arguably, the variables related to employee turnover are relatively easy to gather and analyse using such a research methodology - a deductive rather than inductive approach – hypothesis testing rather than generating. For example, Martin (1979) used a questionnaire similar to the MSQ (Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire) to explore how motivation was linked to the intention to leave a job and causality. Greenhalgh (1980) built on Mobley (1977) and Martin's work, adding career development as a factor in the decision to leave. This was further explored by Spencer et al. (1983) and Iverson and Deery (1997). As this research tradition has developed, researchers e.g. Steele and Ovalle (1984), Cotton and Tuttle (1986), Williams and Hazer (1986) and Iverson and Roy (1994), each added one or two new variables to the list of potential correlates, exploring how the new variable(s) contribute to the turnover decision. It would appear that the quantitative research methodology has suited addressing the outcomes of using contingent labour, and given that rationalism generally focuses on quantifiable outcomes this approach would seem appropriate. It does not, however, address, and is perhaps not suited to understanding 'how' managers manage contingent labour – as at this stage we do not know the associated variables to subsequently test.

The general thrust of much of the turnover literature is that turnover is bad and should be reduced. However, from a practical point of view, there are benefits to turnover as has been pointed out in research by Guerrier and Lockwood (Yvonne Guerrier & Lockwood, 1989; , 1998)). These researchers highlight that a shift to the "lean", contingent labour organisation is often a result of external forces. For example, seasonality in demand requires labour flexibility. Clearly, a contingent labour configuration provides benefits to the organisation and employees in terms of numeric and functional flexibility. Further, Less-Ross (1995) has shown that in seasonal locations such as resorts, turnover is a planned event. Indeed, many employees only want seasonal work as it forms part of their travel plans – yielding a positive symbiotic relationship.

The reality is that the contemporary use of contingent labour, even in non-seasonal hotels, inevitably promotes labour turnover. In this environment, the methods and assumptions underpinning research on managing contingent labour and subsequent labour turnover need re-thinking.

While employee turnover is of critical importance to any business, as with the general literature on contingent labour it fails to report what it is like to be a manager managing contingent labour. My research did not seek to understand why employees leave an organisation or what techniques can be implemented to encourage them to stay, rather to understand how managers manage contingent labour – the process.

2.7 Summary

The use of contingent labour has maintained a steady growth path since World War Two, and is justified by business in terms of the need to remain competitive. Substantial literature, as presented in this chapter, suggest this as the dominant way of managerial thinking and acting. However, some research, for example Saul (2001) and Kets de Vries (1997) question such an ideology.

Saul (2001, p 8) suggests that businesses seek certainty in achieving business objectives. In the search for certainty they develop rational systems including the use of contingent labour. Yet Saul questions if certainty is a realistic aim or even achievable in a world that is full of uncertainty. The self interest of the business and its use of contingent labour competes with the self interest of the labour market. Neither party has greater right than the other to influence labour regulation. Saul concludes that consideration needs to be given to whether balance currently in favour of business, needs to be re-assessed, so both gain.

Kets de Vries (1997) has similar views when he reviews the thrust to downsize businesses in his seminal article *The Downside of Downsizing*. While the trust of this article is in reference to a shift to downsize businesses completely and subsequently often use contingent labour, he makes reference to when business realise that this was indeed the wrong move and need to then re-engage labour. A critical point of difference between the general business world and hotels in re-sizing the workface to remain competitive is that hotels do so on a planned daily, week and season basis. Indeed the effective management of contingent labour and the use of systems is how hotels survive.

While this thesis does not argue with the tenet that the use of contingent labour is one way of remaining competitive, the use of contingent labour, however, may not be the panacea it has been held out to be.

With regard to past research, it is significant to note that the literature does not explore what it is like to be a manager managing contingent labour, even Kets de Vries (1997) while focusing on individuals, were general in their research and resulting hypotheses. Potentially how we have studied the field has presented us with only part of the overall understanding that we really need of how middle managers manage and influence contingent labour. This research sets out to address this gap.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

3.1 Introduction

This chapter has three objectives. I begin by explaining my research paradigm; I then explore research methodologies associated with my paradigm, ultimately identifying appropriate research methodologies for this research. Finally I explain how I collected data for my research.

Methodologically my research involved case study (Yin, 1994), grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and repertory grid (Kelly, 1955; V. Stewart & Stewart, 1981). Operationally, my research was conducted in two phases. In Phase one I orientated myself to the field exploring with hotel managers the issues around contingent labour. Analysis of phase one generated numerous codes broadly related to contingent labour policies. In phase two I used repertory grid technique to focus more on managerial practice with respect to contingent labour. My research journey is framed within Carney's (Carney, 1990) Ladder of Analytical Abstraction which I often refer to throughout this chapter.

3.2 The philosophical research position and generating new theory

Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002, p 27) suggest that before a researcher can consider an appropriate research methodology they must first be clear about their philosophy of research in order to clarify the research design, identify which designs will or will not work, and identify designs that may be outside the researcher's experience. My research paradigm is that of a social constructionist rather than a positivist. However, the nature of the research question also has a bearing on the methodological approach needed. Here I consider why my research question could not easily have been answered in a positivist manner.

Positivism's key idea is that the world is external and that elements of this can be objectively measured, rather than tapped through properties such as sensation and intuition. Positivism implies a number of conditions: (1) That the researcher should be independent and that the researcher's interests should be irrelevant. (2) That research progresses through hypotheses and deductions. (3) That the unit of analysis should be reduced to the simplest terms. (4) That there should be statistical probability and (5) that the sample size is generally large. Social constructionism represents the opposite, (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002), as is explained below with specific reference to my research.

The context for my research was a set of international hotels, an environment in which I had worked professionally, therefore, by virtue of my work experience and as a researcher I could not be an independent observer. My interest in the research question was the main driver for my research and participants (managers) also had a strong interest in its outcomes. As my aim was to understand how hotel managers make sense of their world, "reality" was neither objective nor exterior - the results would be personal and unique to the research participants. From this point, as I wanted to hear from the participants how *they* managed contingent labour it was inappropriate to start with hypotheses. Regarding 'unit of analysis', at the outset I was unclear what these would be. Participants were managing complex situations, and I was interested in capturing this complexity, not in reducing their experiences to 'simplest terms'. Finally, while participants were selected through theoretical sampling (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), the number of participants was small partly because of the small cohort of middle managers in hotels and partly because the logic of sampling does not apply in qualitative, inductive research. Adding to this overarching position is my relativist view that different people have different viewpoints, with Collins (1983, p 88) noting that what counts as the "truth" (in my case how middle managers manage contingent labour) can vary from place to place and from time to time. In summary, I undertook this project from a social constructionist perspective with the aim of generating new theory about how middle managers manage contingent labour.

This thesis allowed participants to 'tell it like it is', and as such the collective rationalism of managers would be distilled to build a new theory (Popper, 1968). While I am interested in developing generalisations about how managers manage and influence the contingent labour force my primary focus was to 'understand' what it was like to be a manager faced with high levels of contingent labour and associated management choices. Any theory resulting from this research should be one that managers can understand and be useful to them when managing and influencing contingent labour.

As a social constructionist with a relativist view I approached my research through a series of conversations with participants, looking for their meanings and understanding of the research problem.

3.3 Qualitative and quantitative research options

In this section I compare quantitative and qualitative data gathering/analysis approaches. As I pass through each option I comment on its appropriateness to my research concluding with the selected methodologies of Case Study, Grounded Theory and within the latter, Repertory Grid.

3.3.1 Quantitative research methodologies

We have already seen that most research exploring / explaining contingent labour management practices has focused on that relatively easy-to-measure statistic – labour turnover, and has been quantitative. Methodologically, quantitative data gathering options in the social sciences fall into four main areas: interviews, questionnaires, tests/measures and observations (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002, p. 130).

A positivistic approach to *interviewing* involves asking questions that permit a limited number of answers in order that they can be analysed in quantitative terms. However, to use such an approach in my research pre-supposes that I knew the questions to ask about how managers manage and influence contingent labour prior to beginning the research. By contrast, a qualitative methodology encourages asking open ended questions and to "ladder" responses, that is, seek additional explanation and understanding of a construct held by a research participant from a given question. In this sense, qualitative interviewing enables analysis at the same time as data collection and the two (data collection and analysis) are not separated as is common in quantitative research. The strength of interviewing in a quantitative mode is the ability to test hypotheses and to gain increased accuracy with less researcher bias (Moser & Kalton, 1971), a topic which is discussed in Section 3.10. The strength of interviewing in the qualitative mode is the opportunity to generate <u>possible</u> explanations and relationships.

Questionnaires, tests and measures are helpful when the researcher wants to find out what a participant knows about a predetermined universe, and is usually applied through a set of questions with a limited number of responses, e.g. yes or no. This approach also facilitates the use of large samples of participants. Again, however, use of this approach implied that I knew the questions to ask, had established hypotheses to test and a potentially large sample. In reality none of these conditions existed.

Observation within a quantitative frame generally requires a systematised approach, often by Activity Sampling, that is, sampling certain activities at given times (Currie, 1959). This approach would have required substantial time in the workplace to ensure a sufficient number of activities had been observed to cover the spectrum of the manager's job. This was not possible for a number of reasons: (1) My full-time position at the university did not accommodate substantial time in the field. (2) Such an approach is intrusive in nature in what is a very personal guest-employee-manager environment. (3) Observations may not have aided my understanding of how managers managed and influenced their contingent labour since I would have needed to know what to observe prior to observing.

Thus the main quantitative methodologies seemed inappropriate in addressing my research question. However, as noted above, to date the research most associated with labour processes is that of employee turnover using a quantitative methodology. In recent years this research has been dominated by the quantitative work of Mobley (1977, pp 116-142). Subsequent research building on Mobley's work has been completed by Abraham (1999), Bolls, et al. (1995), Chang (1999), Cotton and Tuttle (1986), Deery and Shaw (1998), Ghiselle, et al. (2001), Greenhalgh (1980), Hartman and Yrie (1996), Iverson and Deery (1997) etc. Quantitative research has allowed these researchers to explore many correlates of turnover. However, while this quantitative genre has served its purpose well it has two drawbacks. (1) In the main it is focused on turnover as an outcome, in part of management action. However, in my research I was interested in how management action varies as a function of the turnover inherent in a contingent labour policy. (2) It is inherently a genre for testing hypotheses derived from established theory and seeking a universal theory that can be verified.

My research was exploratory - to understand how managers manage and influence contingent labour. As such I would be asking 'how' and 'why' questions. These are inductive questions, not deductive, with the responses being words rather than numbers, i.e. narrative and qualitative.

3.3.2 An overview of qualitative research methodologies

As an introduction to this section, I reviewed the limited qualitative research from the labour management genre of labour turnover, an aligned area to that of contingent labour. This provides an opening to the use of qualitative research from which I then consider the qualitative research approaches a presented by Denzin and Lincoln (1994, p. 2) and Jansick (in Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p 212),

3.3.2.1 Examples of Qualitative Research – Finding new ways

Lee and Mitchell (1994) and Lee *et al.* (1996), used a semi-qualitative research design in an exploratory piece re-examining employee turnover, previously the domain of quantitative researchers. The results of their research provided some different ideas about why employees left their jobs than previous researchers had suggested. In particular they found that turnover was more than just 'unhappy employees' as was mentioned in Section 2.6 and that other workforce/market factors, such as 'shocks in people's' lives', family relocation and partner's promotions were also significant reasons for leaving jobs. The qualitative genre used by Mitchell and Lee demonstrated how different, relevant and important new theories can be developed when we apply a different research approach.

In support of 'different research approaches' Kwortnik (2003), who researched customers' decision making processes (emotions and psychology) in a qualitative frame believed that 'fuzzy' research problems (as my research may be considered by some) are best investigated using such methods. Kworthnik proposes the use of Depth Interviews in which an overarching research question is presented in an unstructured manner allowing for any, and often new, constructs to arise. Finally, Lucas (2002) and Jago and Deery (2002) used qualitative research as a means of understanding how human resource management can learn more about employee relations – what they term as *providing new ways to consider old problems*. Each of these researchers has identified new theories which may not have surfaced if a qualitative genre had not been applied. As contingent labour use continues to grow there is a dire need to understand how it is managed and develop new theory. Kets de Vries and Balazs (1997) and Saul (2001) started this debate from a very qualitative stance; my research takes their research into account while focusing specifically on middle managers in international hotels.

3.3.2.2 Denzin and Lincoln (1994) Natural Settings

Denzin and Lincoln (1994, p. 2) write that qualitative research should be multi-focused, interpreting natural settings. In this approach researchers attempt to make sense of the experiences of people in their natural setting; they do this through life stories, interviews and observations that describe the individual's experiences in their own context.

In my research I wanted to understand how managers manage contingent labour in international hotels by studying managers in their natural settings. I was primarily looking for meanings, something Wolcott (1994) refers to as qualitatively capturing multiple versions of multiple realities. Given my research question, the most appropriate way to gather data was by interviewing managers (in a relatively unstructured manner), to hear how they managed and influenced their labour force – their experiences.

3.3.2.3 Jansick (1994a) Characteristics of Qualitative Research

Advancing Denzin's and Lincoln's (1994) research Jansick (1994, p 212) describes qualitative research as "holistic", involving a design that looks for relationships through face-to-face interaction. In addition, Jansick agrees with Denzin and Lincoln (1994) in that the natural setting needs to be understood so that the researcher can draw conclusions from the observations made. In this regard my professional hotel experience provided me with an orientation to the field, and a source of potential bias which I discuss in section 3.9.

In this study, I had access to three international hotels in Auckland, New Zealand, an approach which would allow a current, general 'understanding' (face-to-face) that would be essential in hearing what it is like to be a manager – 'personal concepts/constructs'. Developing a new theory would be the result of participants' data – not a researcher viewpoint. Jansick (1994) makes reference to time in and away from the research setting. As will be shown in later sections, the rich data gathered during interviews was substantial and took considerable time to code and categorise as part of the grounded theory approach. My time spent analysing data far outweighed my time in the field

The common elements between Jansick (1994) and Denzin and Lincoln (1994) are that of the 'human interaction during the research', that is, face-to-face, in the social setting, and the fact that the researcher is usually the research instrument.

Having presented my research paradigm and a discussion on the merits of qualitative research given my research question, Sections 3.4 to 3.8 explains the philosophy and methodologies of the qualitative genre. In these sections various methodologies are presented including advantages and disadvantages of each to finally present the methodologies that I engaged in my research.

3.4 Qualitative research methodologies

Qualitative research as a methodology is well documented by Creswell (1998), Denzin & Lincoln (1994), Marshall & Rossman (1999), Miles & Huberman (1994a; Miles & Huberman, 1994b), Stake (1994), Weinberg (2002), Easterby-Smith *et al* (2002) and Yin (1994). Creswell (1998, p. 47-58), within the context of the above researchers, suggests there are five 'traditional' qualitative research methodologies: biographical, phenomenological, ethnography, grounded theory and case study. This section discusses each methodology and outlines the appropriateness of each in addressing my research question.

Ethnography studies the meanings of behaviour, language and the interaction of the group (Miles & Huberman, 1994a). As a process, ethnography generally involves prolonged observation of a group, typically through participant observation in which the researcher is immersed in the day-to-day lives of the people, or through one-on-one interviews with members of the group. This method was discounted for several reasons. First my immersion in a social setting over a long period was not possible given my full-time university position. Second, observation may not have provided me with the 'understanding' of how managers viewed, managed, and influenced contingent labour. Interviews, however, were the only redeeming feature of this methodology, yet would provide me with data – oral, that was 'their language' and could be analysed in a manner to develop a deeper understanding. On balance, however, this appeared an inappropriate methodology.

Biographical research is the study of an individual and her or his experiences as told by the researcher or found in documents and archival material (Miles & Huberman, 1994a). This method was deemed unsuitable for two reasons. First, while it may have provided an in-depth analysis of how 'an' individual manager managed contingent labour, I sought a level of generality in my conclusions. Second, while it is true that by interviewing participants I would hear their individual experiences I did not wish to project 'my interpretation' of their experiences as often happens in biographical studies, rather I wanted 'their interpretation'. Phenomenology, grounded theory and case study remained as potential methods.

Phenomenological studies report on either the life of a single or several individuals, describing the meaning of their experiences of a concept or phenomenon (Creswell, 1998, p. 47-58). Creswell (p. 54) notes that phenomenology has several assumptions: (1) That the researcher can only understand what is going on if they hear it directly from the participants. (2) That the questions the researcher asks participants will enable the participant to describe what is happening in their lives. (3) That the data will usually be gathered by interviewing participants. (4) That the data analysis will produce clusters of meanings, and may be very textual and descriptive and (5) assists the reader to gain a better understanding of the experiences of the participant. This methodology appeared suitable for my purposes.

However, Morse (1994) contends that phenomenology is more appropriate for understanding the *meaning* of phenomena and may not necessarily answer the 'how' component of the phenomenon. That is, while I may understand the meaning that contingent labour has for managers I would not necessarily understand 'how' they manage it. Morse believed grounded theory was more appropriate when a research question deals with the ways in which individuals 'process' experiences – in the case of my research understanding 'how ' managers manage contingent labour. In addition, while grounded theory and phenomenology share similar approaches, grounded theory is focused on *development of theory in an area of concern* (Glaser, 1992, p. 16) – a requirement of my research. Consequently I opted to use grounded theory as the primary method.

Case study remained as a possible dual research methodology. Yin (1994p. 6) supports the concept that case study methodology is appropriate for asking 'how and why' questions and defines a case study as, "An empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p. 13). My interest in studying the management of contingent labour (process) in the context of hotels suggested that a case study approach might be appropriate. Thus I elected to use grounded theory within a case study frame.

In support of a dual research method Denzin and Lincoln (1994) and Brewer and Hunter (1989) point out that good qualitative research is inherently multi-method in focus, thereby adding rigour to the process. In the following section I discuss the elements of this multiple (case study and grounded theory) methodology. However, a note is in order here since Glaser (1967) in particular maintains that in grounded theory it is best to study social processes across fields. That is, a good grounded theory should not be limited to particular cases. However, for the purposes of this research I am content to limit the extent of generalisation to the three international hotels (cases).

In concluding this section I introduce Carney's (Carney, 1990) Ladder of Analytical Abstraction (Figure 1) – the qualitative research and analysis process I used during this research. Carney developed this ladder as a means of expressing the analytical journey of qualitative research, an approach which fits comfortably with the grounded theory research genre and further explained in the following section.

3.4.1 The process of qualitative research

Qualitative research is complex, however, Carney's (1990) Ladder (Figure 1), is one way of framing the qualitative research *process* and begins with gathering data from participants and looking for linkages in the data. This initial broad sweep of data analysis contextualises the research in terms of the raft of different themes within the data.

From the former stage, data is considered in different ways – repackaging / aggregating, which may see codes with similar themes merged. It is also the opportunity to ask questions about the data received; is it complete, are the research participants appropriate?, etc. Time for critical thinking about results (interim and final) is important, as unlike quantitative research where technology can be engaged to expound results which are definitive; participants' words are less definitive and present multiple meanings, etc. taking time to digest and consider.

The final stage of qualitative research is where the data is integrated into one explanatory theory – Level 3 of Carney's (1990) Ladder. Ultimately, in moving to concluding qualitative research the data will have been considered within the context of its gathering and participants, and against known understandings.

The process of undertaking qualitative research is not necessarily straight forward leading to a definite conclusion. Whenever research involves participants and researchers with subjective views and biases, the research process can be fluid, something the researcher must be prepared for and was something that I experienced in my research.

The Ladder (Carney, 1990) provided me with a qualitative framework in which to consider the overall research process, that is, the movement from data gathering through analysis to final theory development. I refer to the ladder often in this chapter to assist the reader follow my research journey.

I now move to discuss the chosen methodologies – case study in section 3.5 and grounded theory in section 3.6.

Figure 1

The Ladder of Analytical Abstraction

Levels

3b Delineating the deep structure
Synthesis: integrating the data into one explanatory framework.

3. Developing and testing propositions to construct an explanatory framework

3a Testing hypotheses and reducing the bulk of the data for analysis of trends in it
Cross-checking tentative findings.
Matrix analysis of major themes in data.

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2. Repackaging and aggregating the data

Identifying themes and trends in the data overall
Searching for relationships in the data: writing analytical memos.
Finding out where the emphases and gaps in the data are.

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1. Summarising and packaging

1b Trying out coding categories to find a set that fits
Coding of data.
Writing of analytical notes on linkages to various frameworks of interpretation.

1a Creating a text to work on
Reconstruction of interview tapes as written notes.
Synopses of individual interviews.

(Carney 1990 in Miles & Huberman, 1994b, p. 92)

3.5 Case study methodology

Yin (1994, p 13), supported by Schramm (1971, 1994) describes a case study as a way of investigating a phenomenon within its actual context. Yin also suggests that to be effective, five components must be present in a case: (1) clear research question(s), (2) clear proposition(s), if any, (3) clear definition of the unit(s) of analysis, (4) the logical linking of the data to the propositions, and (5) the criteria for interpreting the findings. However, this does tend to imply that the case is being used in a hypothesis-testing rather than hypothesis-generation mode.

To clarify these components as they present in my research: (1) the Research Question is "How do middle managers in international hotels manage and influence contingent labour?" (2) Propositions. Where we are seeking to generate theory rather than test it, propositions, in the form of hypotheses, are found at the end of the research. This is typical in grounded theory research. (3) Unit(s) of analysis. The definition of 'unit of analysis' is more complex and is the subject of considerable debate in grounded theory. As I conducted interviews, taped and transcribed my data, I was left with 'chunks' (quasi units) of verbal transcript. Strauss (1990) uses single words, inflections and pauses as his unit of analysis in a 'micro' interpretation of grounded theory. Glaser (1992) by contrast, uses the whole conversation and paragraphs as his units of analysis. I picked a level in-between these two researchers, focusing on the meaning contained within sentences and phrases.

The remaining two components of Yin's case study design format - the logical linking of data to the propositions and the criteria for interpreting the findings are expressed in the following terms. Linking of Propositions (4), involves reflecting on the data and the development of a theoretical framework. Finally, (5) the criteria for interpreting the findings is the subject of Chapter 4 – Data Analysis.

3.5.1 Case study hotels and why they were selected

Yin (1994) refers to my approach of involving three hotels as an 'holistic case study'. As such, each case is expected to have similar characteristics, thereby reducing potential complexity. Three international hotels in Auckland were selected: The Carlton Hotel, The Sheraton Hotel and Towers and the Hyatt Hotel. Each demonstrated the following characteristics:

- Engaging in excess of 350 Equivalent Fulltime Employees (EFTE's), of which a substantial number are contingent labour.
- A member of a major international chain.
- A 5-star international hotel standard.
- Located within the Central Business District of Auckland.
- A diverse ethnic workforce
- Similar organisational/managerial structures
- Similar number of rooms

Yin (1994, 48-49) cautions that holistic case studies cannot be undertaken lightly, as the research process in each case must follow the same format. To ensure consistency I followed the guidance of Strauss and Corbin (1990), Miles and Huberman (1994a) and Minichiello and Aroni (1990) relating to management and execution of qualitative research, further discussed in Section 3.13.

3.6 Grounded Theory

Barney Glaser and Anslem Strauss developed grounded theory during joint research on dying in hospitals in the 1960s. Subsequently they published the elements of grounded theory in *The Discovery of Grounded Theory – Strategies for Qualitative Research* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and *Theoretical Sensitivity* (Glaser, 1978).

Glaser (1992, p 16) describes grounded theory as, "a general methodology of analysis linked with data collection that uses a systematically applied set of methods to generate an induced theory about a substantive area". Fundamentally, grounded theory asks two questions: "(1) *What is the chief concern or problems of the people in the substantive area, and what accounts for most of the variation in processing the problem*, and (2) *What category or what property of that category does the incident indicate*" (Glaser, 1992, p 4). This approach allows the data to show what is happening - an inductive process, rather than the deductive process more associated with quantitative research.

As previously discussed, a major reason for selecting a qualitative research methodology was that at the outset I had no specific hypothesis and was uncertain what the key questions were to ask of managers. Given my uncertainty about what I would find as I progressed my research, I needed to approach the research with an open mind, or as Glaser (1992, p 22) phrases it, "… with abstract wonderment of what is going on …". Glaser (p 16) notes that: "The research product constitutes a theoretical formulation or integrated set of conceptual hypotheses about the substantive area under study. That is all; the yield is - just a set of hypotheses!" (p 16). Potentially the end of the research may have provided me with clarity about the questions I should have asked in the first place!

Glaser and Strauss (1967) and in particular Glaser intended grounded theory to be fully inductive and relatively unstructured. Of recent years however, new thoughts on this process have surfaced. In 1990, Strauss joined with Corbin in publishing *Basics of Qualitative Research* (Strauss & Corbin, 1990), in which they increasingly structure the grounded theory research process, suggesting that the researcher need not merely accept the research data, but should ask questions about it: that is, be somewhat deductive. As such they suggested some 'process' around how the research is completed. Thus began a major and public difference of opinion between Glaser and Strauss, which eventually saw Glaser publishing *Emergence verses Forcing – basics of grounded theory analysis* (1992). Strauss and Corbin believe that the researcher should be able to pose questions about the findings, and draw conclusions as the research progresses. Glaser disagrees. He sees this as testing developed hypotheses, as opposed to the simple generation of hypotheses, the original intention of grounded theory. Having considered the different approaches to grounded theory of Glaser (1992) and of Strauss and Corbin (1990), I elected to follow Strauss and Corbin's approach. Personally I felt more comfortable with an element of structure in my research, while allowing for a degree of inductive research.

Notwithstanding Glaser and Strauss's disagreement, there is fundamental agreement on the essential elements of grounded theory which the following sections detail.

3.6.1 An open mind

Deductive, quantitative, hypothesis-testing research begins from an 'established base' from which to form an understanding of the current issues. By contrast, grounded theory advises the researcher to 'enter the research with an open mind', without preconceived ideas or theories (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Glaser (1992, p 22) insists that new theories must be allowed to emerge from the data, not forced by preconception. However, prior theoretical ideas and researcher understanding of past research are not completely ignored, but introduced as needed and appropriate once the theory begins to emerge. While I have already discussed the literature related to contingent labour and one of its by-products – employee turnover, this is an exploration of the context in which hotel managers find themselves, not an account of how they cope with and manage this social phenomenon. I had not explored, via a literature review, literature dealing with management experiences of rational and humanistic management methods. Therefore, apart from my own experience in the industry, I entered my research open to what participants had to say.

3.6.2 Theoretical sampling

The selection of research participants (how many managers to participant in the research) is a complex and fluid process. As Glaser and Strauss (1967, p. 49) state,

> *"The researcher chooses any groups that will help generate to the fullest extent, as many properties of the categories as possible, and that will help relate categories to each other and to their properties."*

In practical terms, and in the first instance, the researcher chooses who he or she 'believes' will provide data relevant to the research theme. As will be explained later in this chapter and in Chapter 4 (Data Analysis), initial interviews were held with several senior and middle managers from various departments in the three hotels. They were selected on the basis that they would be aware of how they and other managers respond to the social phenomenon and subsequent management of contingent labour. Analysis of data from this initial group enabled later identification of appropriate research participants.

During the research, several managers were unable to participate due to work pressures. Paradoxically, these pressures resulted from increasing business activity and having to arrange for more contingent staff to be employed. This illustrates two points: firstly, that when dealing with participants *in situ*, researchers must be flexible. Secondly, the social process under investigation impeded the investigation itself. As one responded said:

> *"...I wish I had more time, or I wish I had the opportunity once a week to sit down and evaluate that workforce."*

3.6.3 Data analysis

When engaging in grounded theory methodology, data analysis is ongoing from the beginning of data collection through to the write-up of the findings (Miles & Huberman, 1994b). It involves the process of constantly comparing and coding data (generation of small theories), searching for common themes within codes and categories, and linking data together to develop higher-level themes (aggregating small theories into a higher level theory). Each of these analytical steps is critical in generating new theory. The following sub-sections explain each of the steps and the stages at which they were engaged. Carney's (1990) Ladder of Analytical Abstraction also demonstrates how data analysis is engaged.

3.6.3.1 Constant comparison

The grounded theory researcher compares data, looking for linkages between themes and/or concepts while at the same time coding the data (see Section 3.6.3.2 for details of coding). The constant comparison process of data analysis is time consuming, detailed and word intensive, as all data must be cross-referenced, consequently the term *constant comparison.*

An example of constant comparison is shown in Table 1. Here, two participants were asked to compare and contrast the same three managers (elements), regarding their managerial style. In this example, each participant matches elements 1 and 3 - and contrasts this with No. 2. However, the constructs (themes) developed are different. Through this process of evolving codes and comparing them to already developed codes, a theory begins to emerge, an understanding of the ways in which managers respond to, manage and influence contingent labour.

Table 1 **Example of Constant Comparison**

Participant 1	Participant 2
Researcher: *"Can you please group two of these managers together - that are similar in their managerial style."* Participant: *"No. 1 and 3. Well, they are very passionate and they will go out of their way to teach staff what's right and what's wrong."* Researcher: *"Contrasting to No 2..."* Participant: *"They will come in, and he has an idea of what the job needs to be, but definitely no-where near as passionate as the other two..."* Constructs developed • Passion • Teaching • Not passionate	Researcher: *"Can you please group two of these managers together - that are similar in their managerial style."* Participant: *"They (No. 1 and 3) are the same nationality, they manage in similar ways. They both have high energy. Both very organised and are able to coordinate a large number of staff effectively."* Researcher: *"If we contrast that to No. 2."* Participant: *"They are actually the same nationality, so that doesn't count. They have a much smaller number of staff that they manage. They don't seem to be as effective when managing their staff, they seem to have a lot of problems I would say, but there are a number of issues that don't ever seem to ever get resolved or looked at effectively."* Constructs developed • Nationality • Organised • Less effective

3.6.3.2 Codes/coding/categories

In coding, data analysis leads either to the development of new codes, i.e. small themes, or to the merging of codes to create categories, i.e. groups of aligned codes, which Miles and Huberman (1994a, p. 57) refer to as "a system for categorising the various chunks (of data)... that relate to the research question". Refining the process further, analysis is separated into two phases: 'open coding' and 'axial coding' as explained below.

Open coding is the process of breaking down data received from each participant, examining it, comparing it to other data, and following Strauss and Corbin's (1990) approach, asking questions about it. The result of this process is a set of *theoretical notes* which can be thought of as a small interim theory. Potentially, associations between (and subsequent merging) codes can lead to the creation of categories. Data from just one interchange with just one participant can develop several new codes; consequently, the number of codes and categories can grow rapidly. As the research progresses, new data may link to already developed codes / categories, at which point these are said to be 'saturated' – a point known as theoretical saturation and explained further in Section 3.6.3.3. The coding of qualitative research can be seen in Level 1b of the Ladder of Analytical Abstraction (Figure 1). While undertaking open coding, the researcher can be constructing *operational notes* with specific relevance to a code and/or a category; these notes highlight action and/or investigation needing to be taken by the researcher to develop the code further (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Operational notes can also highlight the need to interview new participants (theoretical sampling) or the need to re-interview previous participants.

Axial coding is the process of putting data back together. After comparing, contrasting, verifying and looking for relationships in and between data it can be arranged in new ways to create patterns or themes (Delamont, 1992; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 96 - 211). While open coding initially creates many categories, axial coding reduces their number and shifts developed themes to a higher level. Using the

Ladder of Analytical Abstraction, this is termed repackaging and aggregating the data – as shown in Level 2 of Figure 1.

Concluding the process of coding it is important to note that the generation of codes and categories is a subjective process. For this reason grounded theory research is sometimes undertaken by more than one researcher to reduce incorrect/inappropriate analysis. While the use of dual researchers is not possible in a PhD, my supervisors reviewed samples of my data and coding. However, in itself this is somewhat inimical to the notion of social constructivism as my supervisors were (1) not privy to the nonverbal communication shown by research participants – important qualitative data, and (2) their input is restricted to guidance of the research process and my analysis, not their interpretation of the data.

3.6.3.3 Saturation

Theoretical saturation (discussed briefly in the previous section) occurs when compared data consistently develops the same or similar codes/categories. It is important that the researcher is aware when a code or category is reaching saturation as this allows the code/category to either be eliminated from the research or highlighted as a factor in any proposed hypothesis. It is not possible to find saturation within the data of one participant – unlike in a biographical study, as between subject comparison has not taken place (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 61 - 62). This supports my use of multiple participants within an holistic case study.

3.6.3.4 Memoing

Memoing is unique and critical to grounded theory research and is described by Glaser (1978, p 83 - 84) as *the writing up of ideas as they strike the researcher, about the codes that have been developed and any relationships that they may have.* Memos can range from a few lines to pages of thoughts, but form the basis for conceptual thinking about the data.

Miles and Huberman (1994b, p. 72) describe the memo as *"... one of the most useful and powerful sense-making tools at hand"* and due to the importance of memos, Strauss and Corbin (1990) provide guidance on sensible memo formatting and management, including dating the memo, indicating linkages to other codes/categories, and tracking where thoughts come from, e.g. interview numbers.

Memos are ultimately used to select the core code/category that relates to the explanatory framework and most useful in the stage of *Synthesis* in Carney's (1990) Ladder of Analytical Abstraction, that is, integrating the data into one explanatory framework (see Level 3b in Figure 1).

Figure 1

The Ladder of Analytical Abstraction

Levels

3b Delineating the deep structure
Synthesis: integrating the data into one explanatory framework.

3. Developing and testing propositions to construct an explanatory framework

3a Testing hypotheses and reducing the bulk of the data for analysis of trends in it
Cross-checking tentative findings.
Matrix analysis of major themes in data.

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2. Repackaging and aggregating the data

Identifying themes and trends in the data overall
Searching for relationships in the data: writing analytical memos.
Finding out where the emphases and gaps in the data are.

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1. Summarising and packaging

1b Trying out coding categories to find a set that fits
Coding of data.
Writing of analytical notes on linkages to various frameworks of interpretation.

1a Creating a text to work on
Reconstruction of interview tapes as written notes.
Synopses of individual interviews.

(Carney 1990 in Miles & Huberman, 1994b, p. 92)

3.6.3.5 Selective coding

Selective coding is the interim phase between reflecting on the developed categories and finally establishing the core category (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). It involves thinking about all the data and its possible meanings. It is from selective coding that a final theory emerges, a process that takes time and should not be forced.

3.7 Repertory grid technique

In Phase 1 (as discussed below) I used a partly structured interview process to explore participants' perceptions of the phenomenon of contingent labour. In Phase 2, I wanted to focus more closely on how managers responded to and influence a contingent labour environment. To achieve the aforementioned I used repertory grid as a tool to develop participants' constructs.

Kelly (1955, Vol. 1, p 46) developed Personal Construct Theory (PCT) in 1930 and the grid methodology to support the elicitation of constructs. Kelly argued that we all make sense of the world and develop beliefs as a result of our past, present and potential future experiences, and through continual sense development we build complex models of our world. In this he was one of the first to argue for a constructivist approach to social science and his development of what is now known as "repertory grid" technique enables the elicitation of an individual's personal construct system.

Over time, Kelly's original definition of PCT has been developed by various researchers and theorists. Maher (1969, p. 291), speaks of PCT as a construct matrix combining events and abstractions with grid as a technique that allows expression of what one has personally observed and what one now holds as a personal construct. Stewart and Stewart (1981, p.5, 7) describe grid methodology as *allowing an interviewer to draw a mental map of how an interviewee sees the world with the minimum of interviewer bias.* In 1983, Eden *et al* (1983, p. 30) advanced a view of PCT as a process of helping someone articulate a problem, where a helper (non-directive) provides prompts to assist the person make the 'problem' more tangible. Finally, Earl (1999, p. 424) described PCT as a personal interpretation of the world where each person uses their own methodology. In short, the 'world' is what we make it out to be – a subjective rather than objective notion.

Researcher bias is always a possibility in qualitative research; however, repertory grid has the potential to reduce such bias and over-dependence on the expert. Stewart and Mayes (2002), in an explanation of repertory grid, refer to it as a "content-free" procedure, where the interview has a purpose but no set content, yet is transparent and with little interviewer bias.

In practical terms repertory grid technique is a simple way of focusing on areas that the researcher wishes to explore, yet quite complex in its execution. The triad method of construct elicitation involves introducing three "elements" (in the case of my research, an element was a manager) and asking a participant, "In which way are two of these elements (managers) different from the third, in terms of ... (a qualifying purpose for the participant to consider, e.g. managerial style)...". The outcome of this process is a set of constructs related to the elements, developed entirely by the participant, without bias/input from the researcher. Constructs are always bi-polar, that is, when the participant identifies two elements that are similar they create one 'pole', and when asked to contrast that with the third element, they create another 'pole'. Often, but not always, poles appear to be logical opposites. In turn, poles can be scaled and measured against other elements, a technique that takes qualitative research findings and applies quantitative analysis; an approach I did not pursue.

While statistical analysis can be applied to the data gathered through this process (frequency counts of constructs, etc.), the thrust of repertory grid is that of a semi-structured conversation. In my application, its orientation is more qualitative than quantitative, as is the analysis. When analysing participants' constructs, we are working within the frame of establishing themes, the basis of grounded theory. In effect, the use of grid within grounded theory provides a 'method-within-a-method' approach.

3.8 Trustworthiness of qualitative research

In executing a particular research methodology, the researcher must be able to demonstrate the rigour of the research to the wider research community.

Quantitative research focuses on measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 4) and is judged under the criteria of *internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity.* Qualitative research is judged under somewhat different criteria - interpretive aspects and descriptions, and has been subjected to charges that it is: sloppy, merely subjective, observational, and lacking in rigor (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 289). However, grounded theory, repertory grid and case study research do have agreed ways of judging their reliability and validity, and when used in combination, these criteria give comfort about the "*trustworthiness*" of the research. Glaser (1992) and Lincoln & Guba (1985) describe trustworthiness in the following manner.

Glaser (1992, p 15) notes that the rigour of grounded theory research is tested against the research questions in several ways. First, the research is tested in terms of its 'fit' in the eyes of the participants, practitioners and researchers in the area – do they see the logical linkages? The second consideration is whether it explains major variations in behaviour and whether these variations fit with what the participant believes – do they understand and 'believe' the results? Finally, there is a requirement that any theory is not written in stone and that it can be modified and is able to accommodate new concepts – the theory is not necessarily applicable to every situation and timeframe.

Lincoln & Guba (1985, p. 289-293) interpret the research "trustworthiness" of qualitative research within the quantitative frame of "reliability, validity and objectivity". However, they note that these terms have different meanings. Reliability is synonymous with "dependability, stability, consistency, predictability and accuracy". When using grounded theory, saturation of data ensures reliability. Saturation, as explained in Section 3.6.3.3 means that a concept is established and can be defended. Objectivity in their view is a relative term - the distance between being objective and subjective. They make the point that *all* social science research contains some subjectivity. However, in quantitative research, subjectivity is rarely disclosed. In a qualitative frame, by contrast, the subjectivity of both the participant and researcher is accepted and declared. In this way, the reader can frame their own judgment about the "objectivity" or otherwise of the piece. Validity is contained within the internal logic of the research in response to the questions: are there sensible causes and connections within the theory? Can the work be generalised beyond this setting?

In addition to the terms described by Glaser (1992), Denzin and Lincoln (1994) and Lincoln and Guba (1985), trustworthiness can be considered in terms of the processes applied to the research including the aspects of triangulation. Denzin (1978) believes triangulation is necessary in one form or other - data, investigator, theory or methodology achieving what Abrahamson (in Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002, p.146) describes as 'a counter-balancing of strengths from one situation to another". My research was within the international hotel industry and used three case study hotels. As such, counterbalance can be considered as the participants', data and subsequent results of three different hotels. I was not setting out to compare or counterbalance results with any other or similar industry; therefore the matter of triangulation was less appropriate as is explained in the following paragraphs.

Qualitative researchers generally do not claim that there is one correct interpretation, therefore bringing into question the need to test hypotheses through triangulation (Janesick, 2003, p 69). Richardson (2003, p. 517) makes the point that triangulation assumes there is a 'fixed point' or 'object' from which data can be triangulated but suggests that there are many ways in which to consider data, not from just one point, with one such way as a 'crystal'. Using the crystal analogy what we see depends on the angle from which we look at it, which may provide us with an infinite variety of shapes, substances, transmutations, multi-dimensionalities and angles of approach. I favour this view as it links clearly to Glaser and Strauss's (1967) philosophy that the reader, given the data, should be able to make up their own mind as to what they see as the result, including its trustworthiness, that leads to the final theory.

I used “crystallisation” within my research when I took the developed concepts of ‘active and economic managers’ back to participants in the case study hotels and asked for their comments. Some may consider this approach triangulation; however, I contend that this is not triangulation in its traditional sense, rather taking summarised data (hypotheses) back to participants to confirm or reject them, or provide additional data that could lead to a deeper understanding of the research.

3.9 Qualitative research and the researcher

Within a qualitative research frame where the researcher is a central part of the research, and is indeed the primary research “instrument”, his or her bias will have an impact on the research. I have already discussed the potential involvement of more than one researcher as a ‘bias mediation/checking system’, however, this is more difficult in a PhD where the work has to be demonstrably that of the researcher. My coding processes, however, were reviewed by my supervisors. It is, however, a convention of qualitative research that the personal biases of the researcher be presented to enable readers to make informed judgments about the trustworthiness of the research. This I do in the following sections.

3.9.1 Theoretical sensitivity and researcher bias

In qualitative research, because the researcher is the research instrument, theoretical sensitivity is a vital personal quality. However, biases may dampen the sensitivity of the researcher.

Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 41) describe theoretical sensitivity as an awareness of the meanings being presented by participants. Glaser noted that everyone comes to research with some experience relevant to the area and this colours their ability to generate concepts from the data (Glaser, 1992, p 27). It is therefore important the researcher be sensitive to the participants, to their data and to how the data is used. Noting the potential for sensitivity and bias, Creswell (1998, p. 76) points out that researchers should be transparent, that is, they should make their personal biases and values known to the readers. I entered this research with two 'experience biases', my practical hotel industry experience and my role as an academic.

3.9.1.1 Bias as a result of industry experience

My practical experience within the hotel industry spanned six years in operations and an ongoing professional relationship through my current academic career - where I lecture in hotel management. During my operational time in hotels, I worked for both small (40-50 employees) and larger (100-150 employee) hotels, both as an operative, and as a manager. All hotels engaged both full-time and contingent labour. My first three years were in a full-time capacity, and the last three years were as part of the contingent labour force at a senior level. I therefore had experience of both full-time (permanent) and contingent labour markets.

As a result of my industry experience I hold these views (biases) about the industry:

- There is intense focus on achieving budgeted result
- It is focused on customer satisfaction
- There are high performance expectations of staff
- There is less emphasis on employee satisfaction, apart from when the labour market is tight
- Jobs are perceived as low-skilled and consequently low pay in comparison to other sectors, and
- That more can be gained by being 'creative' in employing staff and where possible that contingent labour should be kept to a minimum, thereby providing the best possible win situation for all parties.

3.9.1.2 Bias as a result of academic experience in hotel management.

My academic role involves research, reading and lecturing in the areas of hotel operations and management, human resource management and organisational behaviour. I am therefore by necessity familiar with literature related to these fields. Glaser and Strauss (1967, p. 49), however, suggest that qualitative researchers should ignore the substantive literature in the field of concern until the final analysis. I found this a significant challenge as I was already steeped in the literature on employee turnover when I started the project. This literature clouded my initial approach to the topic - I had planned a quantitative piece in turnover in hotels, however, the literature relating to employee turnover became largely irrelevant as my research progressed.

3.9.1.3 Research and operational bias

My working life began in the international hotel industry, therefore I grew up working within organisations with entrenched 'systems' and that focused on quantitative measures. When I moved to the education sector, systems, processes and quantitative measures were still part of my daily life; therefore when embarking on this research I initially and naturally felt it appropriate to utilise a quantitative genre.

In discussion with my supervisors it became apparent that my research question may not be appropriately answered using a quantitative methodology, and that I needed to consider more qualitative approaches. This initial bias coloured how I approached this research, that is, I thought that questionnaires and numbers would have addressed the research question. As will be seen in this thesis, this was a false concept.

3.10 Qualitative research and ethical considerations

Ethical considerations are critical in any research and must be transparently acknowledged. In general, ethical research considerations fall into several categories: codes and consents, deception, privacy, harm, identification and confidentiality, and trust and betrayal (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 88-93).

While deception, harm, identification and betrayal were not part of my research plan, issues of identification and confidentiality were. My research involved participants being interviewed and their responses to questions recorded, analysed, reported and stored for a period of time. Therefore, application to Lincoln University's Human Ethics Committee detailing research objectives was required. Approval for the research was granted on 09 August 2004.

3.11 Gaining access to the hotels and participants

During my time as manager of the degree programmes in hospitality management at Auckland University of Technology I built professional working relationships with senior managers of the city's seven major international hotels. While these senior managers were all supportive of my research, I chose to focus on three hotels as indicated in Section 3.5.1. My key contact at each case study hotel was the Human Resource Director (HR Director), who provided information on, and access to other personnel, and arranged meeting rooms in the hotel for interviews with participants.

Ultimately interviews took place in two phases. In the first phase of interviews I spoke to middle and senior hotel managers from each hotel. My brief to the HR Director in selecting participants was for meetings with: (1) one member of the executive management team to obtain the 'hotels' view on the management of contingent labour. (2) The HR Director – in providing 'support' to managers. (3) A manager from the Rooms Division area, where most contingent labour is used. (4) A manager from the Food and Beverage Department as this is also a significant user of contingent labour and (5) a third manager from either Rooms or Food and Beverage to broaden the coverage.

During the second phase, I focused my interviewing approach and engaged more actively in theoretical sampling. I gained access to participants through the HR Directors providing them with the selection criteria and inviting managers who met the criteria to participate. Participants gave their time freely and appeared genuinely interested in the research.

3.12 Data collection

Yin (1994, p 48/49) suggests that when using case study methodology, the same format for data collection should always be followed. In recognition of this, Section 3.12.1 describes the procedure by which data was gathered. Section 3.12.2 describes the two phases of data collection; the first a holistic general data gathering phase, followed in phase two by in-depth interviews focusing on specific themes.

3.12.1 Preparing for data collection

Prior to interviews, I requested background information (names, department and position) from the HR Director. This painted a picture of the participant, assisted in establishing rapport and in data analysis. In taping the interviews I followed the suggestions of Minichiello *et al.* (1990), including the need for sufficient tapes, appropriate numbering, a tape schedule to record tape numbers, spare batteries, and participant details.

Interviews took place during work time in the hotel. Minichiello *et al.* (1990) notes that this enables the researcher to hear the participants' stories *in situ*. Because of the business demands on participants' time, an attempt was made to hold each interview to 45 minutes. While this is at odds with the philosophy of grounded theory, which suggests that data be gathered over whatever period of time is required, it generally appeared to be adequate.

Between interviews, I changed tapes and batteries and completed 'instant memos' for each interview.

3.12.2 Data gathering phases

At the outset, the number of participants, their identity, and number of times they would need to be interviewed were unknown. Data gathering eventually fell into two phases.

3.12.2.1 Phase One Interviewing

Thirteen participants were invited to participate in what became Phase One. Interviews were informal and encouraged participants to 'tell their story in their language'. Open-ended questions (see Table 2) asked managers about contingent labour and how managers managed contingent labour. Each interview concluded with seeking the participant's agreement for further contact if clarification was needed in any area. Participants were also given the opportunity to ask questions about the research.

During this phase, one middle manager cancelled the interview because they had to arrange contingent labour at short notice. This same situation arose for two participants in Phase Two. These occurrences demonstrate both the fluid nature of qualitative research, and the issues faced by middle managers in dealing with contingent labour. While the General Managers and HR Directors were available on schedule, this reinforces the fact that the direct responsibility for handing contingent labour falls on middle managers.

At the conclusion of this phase my analysis had produced one hundred and ten codes. These were subsequently reduced (via axial coding) to 20 categories and several themes. As will be seen, these codes and themes related to the broad topic of contingent labour and created a context in which I could then explore in more detail the role of middle managers in relation to management of the contingent labour resources. Phase one confirmed that middle managers were the key participants for this research.

Table 2

Phase 1 Background and Prompt Interview Questions used in Phase One

- What is your professional view on the contingent and transient workforce in the international hotel industry and why have you come to that view?

  An internal holistic/general/personal question.

- What do you think is the general (international/luxury) hotel industry's views regarding the use of contingent labour and the transient workforce?

  An external holistic/general/personal question.

- How does your hotel manager deal with the contingent and transient workforce?

  Drawing the view of the company – as perceived by the manager

- What do you think drives people to join and leave the international hotel industry and why have you stayed in the industry?

  A personal question about general human resource management

- How do you 'personally manage' the issue of employee turnover in your hotel and in other international hotels you have worked in?

  A personal strategy question. Employee turnover is considered an undesirable outcome of contingent labour use, therefore this question seek the managers view on this.

- Has how you manage, changed over this time and if so, why?

  To check manager's personal development with regards how they manage

3.12.2.2 Phase Two interviewing

In Phase Two I concentrated on the role of middle managers in managing contingent labour. Each HR Director invited three middle managers to participate in taped interviews, a total of nine managers across the three case study hotels. As noted above, only seven interviews took place as unexpected contingent labour problems meant that two managers did not have time to participate.

At the start of each interview participants were asked to identify seven managers (elements) matching seven different criteria and to write the initials of these managers on seven separate cards. The criteria were:

1. A manager who manages a lot of part-time, casual staff and who seems to manage, cope and influence them really well.
2. A manager who manages a lot of part-time, casual staff, yet who doesn't seem to cope with or positively influence them.
3. A manager who doesn't have many part-time or casual staff, that is, they are mostly full-time, yet copes with and influences them really well.
4. A manager who doesn't have many part-time or casual staff, yet doesn't seem to cope with or positively influence them.
5. A manager who has a lot of part-time or casual staff who are from a different culture, or the manager themselves is from a different culture from the majority of the staff.
6. A new manager who has a high number of part-time, casual staff.
7. The participant.

Initials were used to ensure the anonymity of the managers acting as elements.

The above elements were chosen as they were themes from Phase One analysis that I believed needed further exploration.

Interviews continued using the triadic elicitation method (V. Stewart & Stewart, 1981). Participants were given three cards at a time and asked to think of those three elements in terms of a Qualifying Statement/question. The Qualifying Statements were:

1. Can you tell me in which way two managers are different to the third in terms of managerial style? What is the managerial style of the group of two, and how would you describe the third by contrast?

2. Can you tell me which two managers are the most successful in terms of achieving the hotel's objectives; objectives being budgets and service standards? Why do you think that they are successful, and how would you describe the third in contrast?

3. Given manager X and Y, who would you consider your style to be more in line with, and why? What is different about the third?

4. Can you tell me which two managers are different from the third in terms of being the most influential with their staff regarding retention? Why do you think this is so, and how would you describe the third by contrast?

5. Can you tell me which two managers are different from the third in the way they manage the cultural aspects of staff? Why is there this difference?

Where appropriate, I 'laddered' constructs to develop a deeper understanding, that is, if the participant response was not clear or was too wide, I asked probing questions in relation to its various parts. The use of laddering provides the participant with the opportunity to rethink or re-explain their response which provides more depth of understanding to not only them but also the researcher.

The use of Qualifying Statements/Questions needs clarification. By providing a qualifying statement it could be considered as leading the participant to consider areas that they may not have thought about. However, as my time with each participant was limited, and I wished to focus on the themes identified in Phase One, this level of directive seemed appropriate. This approach is supported by Stewart and Mayers (2002, p. 3), who believe that qualifiers help start the interview, help the interviewee think about elements with a relevant purpose and, while the qualifiers set the scene, they eventually fade from awareness as the interview progresses. However, the use of these qualifying statements and time constraints runs the risk that they may lead to "forcing" of data, contrary to the intent of Glaser and Strauss (1967) who stress the importance of 'emergence' in both data collection and analysis. However, given my time constraints, I found it important to find an acceptable balance.

Given the restriction of time – that managers needed to return to work - repertory grid method ensured that both I and the participant focused on the task. To quote Stewart and Stewart (1981, p. 27) regarding the use of repertory grid in interviews: "There is *(was)* little waffle" in the interviews.

3.13 Data management

The quantity of qualitative data, and the complexity of case studies necessitated stringent data management techniques (Yin, 1994). I followed the suggestions of Miles and Huberman (1994a) and Minichiello *et al.* (1990) in this regard.

Each interview was taped, transcribed, and the transcription re-checked against the tape to ensure data accuracy. I constructed a register of the tapes. Each was numbered and dated for origin, transcription and checking. A second register linked the tape number to the participant. These registers were stored separately. Tapes, transcripts and analysis results were stored in a locked, fireproof cabinet. Transcripts were also stored on the university computer network and burned to CD.

I also created systems to manage the analysis phases. Interview Summary Records were completed at the end of each interview, providing records of particular thoughts/observational points about the interview that may have been useful when analysing the interview at a later point. Interview transcripts were loaded into and subsequently analysed using the qualitative computer data analysis programme NVivo.

3.14 Researcher as the research instrument and how this affects data gathering

Strauss and Corbin (1991, p. 44-45) acknowledge research bias and the possible lack of objectivity and offer some advice, suggesting that the researcher periodically "step back" and asking "What is going on here? Does what I think I see fit the reality of the data?" This enables the researcher to maintain an attitude of scepticism and objectivity. However, I found this more difficult to achieve in practice than in principle.

The ways in which a researcher (as the *research-instrument*) can bring personal bias into the research was clearly demonstrated to me during one particular interview in Phase One. During this interview with a senior manager, the participant aggressively challenged the need for research in this area. The participant was adamant that I was just looking for a name for a problem that did not exist, saying:

> *"I think people look for tools to do their job, they look for support and they look for recognition, and however simplistic that sounds I don't think there is any need to be re-coining fancy strategies for HR Management. You get down to those basics then it works... You recognise people, provide them with the inputs that they need to perform, provide them with the basic data and the way you want them to meet their goals, provide them with achievable targets and keep going along with them providing that support. It is as simple a formula as that."*

The participant deflected questions back to the 'formula' and decried my research as trying to "re-coin" apparent well known strategies. Yet, when pressed he could not explain what the formula was. I was taken by surprise by his criticisms and felt uncomfortable as his "attack" threw me. In response I started justifying the research rather than simply accepting his viewpoint as data. In the process I lost my stance as an objective researcher and allowed my bias into the interview.

Given time to reflect on the interview, the background of this participant partly explained his views. He managed very few contingent staff, and was from a culture where labour supply exceeds demand stating:

> *"I worked in India. There is no element of casual labour there – there is too much labour there."*

At that stage of my research, I was unaware how important this interview would become. Toward the end of my data gathering, I became aware that it had fundamental relevance to the research findings. The comments made by this participant are revisited in Chapter 5.

3.15 Chapter summary

In this chapter I explained my research paradigm, and from that position reviewed qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. I identified and justified the use of case study and grounded theory and within the latter, repertory grid technique. Trustworthiness of qualitative research, triangulation and crystallisation was discussed along with researcher bias, ethical considerations and how I gained access to the case study hotels. In the latter half of this Chapter I explained how I gathered and managed the research data given the extensive quantity of 'words' that this qualitative research generated.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

In qualitative research, data for analysis is words, and to quote Miles and Huberman (1994a, p 54), *"Words are fatter than numbers, and usually have multiple meanings"*. The possibility of multiple meanings is unhelpful when attempting to analyse and draw conclusions, to the point that Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 21) questioned the extent to which data should be interpreted by researchers. Acting as devils' advocates, Strauss and Corbin considered whether data should be analysed at all, but perhaps presented in "raw" form and left to the readers to draw their own conclusions. Clearly, however, the need to draw conclusions and develop a level of generalisation is at the heart of research. Therefore rigorous analysis of the data was essential.

While it makes sense, in a quantitative frame, to separate methodology and data collection from data analysis, when using grounded theory, data gathering and analysis is ongoing throughout the research, up to and including discussion of the findings. To assist the reader in following the process of: data gathering, analysis, then further data gathering and analysis, this chapter often refers to analysis as being at a certain level of the Ladder of Analytical Abstraction (Carney, 1990) – Figure 1.

Figure 1

The Ladder of Analytical Abstraction

Levels

3b Delineating the deep structure
Synthesis: integrating the data into one explanatory framework.

3\. Developing and testing propositions to construct an explanatory framework

3a Testing hypotheses and reducing the bulk of the data for analysis of trends in it
Cross-checking tentative findings.
Matrix analysis of major themes in data.

2\. Repackaging and aggregating the data

Identifying themes and trends in the data overall
Searching for relationships in the data: writing analytical memos.
Finding out where the emphases and gaps in the data are.

1\. Summarising and packaging

1b Trying out coding categories to find a set that fits
Coding of data.
Writing of analytical notes on linkages to various frameworks of interpretation.

1a Creating a text to work on
Reconstruction of interview tapes as written notes.
Synopses of individual interviews.

(Carney 1990 in Miles & Huberman, 1994b, p. 92)

This chapter contains three main sections. Section 4.2 - Phase One, was essentially my orientation to the field; a time when I identified the central issues regarding contingent labour and learned the key questions to ask. The results of phase one lead to the second phase of research of which the results are presented in Section 4.3 - Phase Two. This Phase involved asking past and new (theoretically sampled) participants the key questions as to how managers managed and influenced contingent labour. Finally, the development of a core theme (category) is the basis of Section 4.4, which begins the explanation how middle managers cope with, manage and influence contingent labour. This latter section provides the base for the final chapter.

4.2. Phase One Analysis

Data for analysis in Phase One consisted of thirteen participants' transcripts - in effect a 'text to work on' – and can be considered as Level 1a on Carney's (1990) Ladder of Analytical Abstraction (Figure 1). Transcripts were transferred into the qualitative data analysis programme NVivo which enabled data analysis, first by storing and allowing manipulation of texts and documents, and second by the creation and manipulation of codes, known in NVivo as nodes. Around these two basic functions the programme also provides tools for creating and examining new ideas about data – for example, searching, linking and modeling – and for reporting results (Gibbs, 2002, p 16-17). Analysis of the 330 pages of text took considerable time as each line was compared, contrasted and where appropriate, coded. This first stage of analysis is termed open coding and is explained in detail in the following section. The second stage was lifting developed codes to themes (Axial Coding) and is explained in Section 4.2.2.

4.2.1. Open Coding

Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Strauss and Corbin (1990) explain that during the initial stages of *open coding* (see Level 1b Figure 1), codes can grow quickly as the researcher has an open mind and everything appears highly important and relevant. I did experience this phenomenon and at the conclusion of this stage I had created one hundred and ten codes (see Appendix 1). An example of how I completed the process of *open coding* is demonstrated below.

In this example, the participant was discussing how contingent labour is contracted and noted that staff are engaged between thirty-two and forty hours per week over a twelve week period. Not engaging someone for forty hours per week for twelve weeks maintains them as contingent staff, as opposed to becoming full-time.

Participant

> *"... I try to look after the people I have. So I try to employ enough people so they are always getting work because even though they are employed as part timers most of my staff do anywhere between 32-40 hours per week. Until they get to the 12th week and obviously... and I am very clever, but I try to manage...."*

After comparing and contrasting this comment to other codes, I viewed this comment significantly different to already developed codes thereby deserving its own Code, that is, Code 17 (in Appendix 1):

Open Code No.	Code Name	Code Description
17	Contractual Issues	Where employment contracts have to be adhered to, .e.g. no more than X hours per week, or not less than 4 shifts each 2 weeks etc. Something out of the control of the manager.

While this is a demonstration of one code construction, it is possible that one participant comment – or sub component of a comment, may have relevance to more than one code. In particular, I did consider this participant's comment in relation to Code 49 'Looking after people', and while there were similarities, I believed the context in which the comment was made indicated the thrust was related to contract engagement, that is, staff get as many hours as possible, but are stopped before they would become full time.

Having completed *Open Coding*, I then used Nvivo to collate the narrative comments from each code within each transcript. Codes varied in terms of the amount of comment by the participants. However, the quantity of words is not an indicator of the importance of the construct. Little may have been said, but the idea may still be of significance to participants and to the emerging theory. Other codes were substantial in volume and held in common by several participants. While Nvivo is helpful in the generation of codes, Nvivo's 'code (participants vignettes) reports' are less useful as they do not convey the full context of the comment. That is, codes always have meaning within the context of the transcript. By extracting codes from their context, they lose meaning, especially to observers, a problem that is endemic in qualitative research. A full listing of developed Codes is listed in Appendix 1. Concluding open coding analysis I then proceeded to *Axial Coding* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

4.2.2 Axial Coding and the development of categories

In axial coding the researcher seeks to group codes (of which I have developed one hundred and ten) in terms of the conditions that give rise to them (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The result of this analysis was the creation of twenty seven categories, which are listed in Appendix 2. As in the previous section it is important to share the 'process' of how I arrive at the categories.

I started by placing Code 59 *Managers perceptions of the workforce* (and its code description) on the table, in effect this was the start of developing a category, albeit without a label as yet. The choice of Code 59 was random as I wanted to enter the process unrestricted or influenced by number sequence.

Open Code Number	Code Name	Code Description
59	*Managers perceptions of the workforce*	How managers 'personally' view their workforce, e.g. how important contingent labour is to them.

I then took Code 103 *Why hotels use contingent labour* and compared it to Code 59. This is the concept of constant comparison where you confirm if this code is similar to, and adds value to, already developed categories, or is significantly different.

Open Code Number	Code Name	Code Description
103	*Why hotels use contingent labour*	The reasons managers understand for using contingent labour in a hotel environment.

In the case of the above example I considered the two codes significantly different. That is, while managers may understand the need to use contingent labour, they may not personally agree with 'how much' contingent labour should be used. Therefore, Codes 59 and 103 found their way into different Categories – Code 59 into what became Category 11 *Managing contingent labour* and Code 103 into Category 13 *Reasons for using contingent labour*. I continued this process of constant comparison for each code until they fell into an appropriate Category, or were left as a Category of their own.

As the process of open and axial coding continued I wrote memos about areas I wanted more information about, or felt I needed to further research. An example of one memo I wrote during this phase is shown below.

> *In selecting non-operational managers, e.g. General Managers, Human Resource Directors, etc, I may be not getting the full picture about how middle managers manage –*

some of the responses are very 'corporate'. I need to find more appropriate – more middle managers to interview.

This memo links to the concept of theoretical sampling (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) a critical aspect of grounded theory research.

As happened in Open Coding, there were codes that, when compared to the developing categories could have fitted into more than one. For example, Code 14 *Communication* was placed in Category 1 - Keys to successfully managing contingent labour. However, this code could well have been placed in Category 11 - Managing contingent labour. It was necessary, however, for the sake of clarity that I isolated each code to one category; nevertheless, this duality of possibilities signals that there is interdependence between the categories.

The result of this Phase of the research was my orientation to the field and enabled me to begin to explain the "storyline" through developing Categories. The twenty seven Categories span a raft of concepts held by managers (see Appendix 2), and is summarised in Table 3. In general, the categories share what it is like being a middle manager managing contingent labour in a hotel – the various challenges and perceptions held.

Having developed twenty seven categories, I moved to shift categories to higher level themes, considering various theme interconnections and relationships to the research question. In this way, interpretation of the data was taken to a higher level of abstraction as per Carney's (1990) Ladder (Figure 1).

Table 3 Phase One Categories with sample participant quotes

No	Category Name	Sample quote
1	Keys to successfully managing contingent labour	"... it's like being a mother and councillor to 100 people...I know little things about each one of them"
2	Uncontrollable factors	"You have to give them a minimum of two shifts in two weeks"
3	Workforce demographics	"We are seeing more immigrants", "99% are students", "The majority are females"
4	Contingent labour usage areas	"Contingent labour is used in housekeeping", "... in banquets"
5	Positive reason for working in hotels	"The people here influence others and the benefits we offer"
6	Transient labour force	"We have a lot of student that come and go..."
7	Maintaining standards	"It's been very hard to find qualified people"
8	Managers passion for the industry	"I love the pressure anyway, I love it, I thrive on it", "I love the company"
9	Hotel careers	"Some people don't see it as a career – I do", 'I walked in the door and I was hooked"
10	Managing different cultures	"... my management style has changed as you are into a new cultural system"
11	Managing contingent labour	".. you have your transient people... you still need those people and some turnover"
12	Hotel industry image	"We need to consider getting our image really right..."
13	Reasons for using contingent labour	"Part-timers are important ... the simple fact because first of all it's very flexible"
14	Hotels are not seen as a career option	"It s not viewed as a career in New Zealand"
15	Why people leave hotel jobs	"...A career move...people travelling round"
16	Managing labour costs	"you have to have control over what you are spending"
17	Turnover issues	"I would say you just have to be ready for it (turnover)"
18	Managers general views on factors affecting their role	"... the pressure and stress that we are under",
19	Changing management styles	"I have changed ... I've learnt about people..."
20	A specific hotel issue	"We have a technology issue in this property"
21	Job security	"I encourage them to 'go for the goal of full time'"
22	Looking for solutions	"I wish I have more time..."
23	Employees views on contingent labour use	"When you can't get 40 hours you tend to go where you can"
24	What staff think of managers	"I think it will depend ... we do opinion surveys"
25	Industry has grown	"I know that years ago it was very different"
26	Staff working the rules	".. they pull a sicky – just to use these days"
27	Mix of experience	"... it's better, I'd say the skill level was better"

Figure 1

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3b Delineating the deep structure
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(Carney 1990 in Miles & Huberman, 1994b, p. 92)

4.2.3 The storyline - shifting categories to themes

The dominant impression from my axial coding (and as an introduction to this section) is that contingent labour is a fact of life for any manager in a hotel; that it is essential to use contingent labour if the hotel is to remain competitive, as demonstrated by the following participants comment.

> *"Part-timers are a very important aspect especially for me like in the restaurant. Just for the simple fact because first of all it's very flexible."*
>
> *"Turnover is normal."*

As such, managers accept the constraints that go along with the use of contingent labour including labour turnover. These constraints, however, can lead to heightened demands being placed on managers which, in this research include the problems of constant recruitment, staff transience, staff working to rule and multicultural matters. Different participants noted:

> (Regarding turnover) *"I would say that you have to be ready for it."*
>
> *"I think there is always going to be an enormous amount of people flowing in and out of the industry, for a variety of reasons."*
>
> *"We only have them for six months, which is where a lot of our turnover comes from."*
>
> *"You are going to change your management style to suit the person and the nationality."*

However, managers can choose to manage the constraints and demands within limited business and personal discretion, and it is at this point that we see significant differences between managers. Here we see that some managers' choose to let the situation develop to one where they are under stress:

"I was in burnout last year – big time. Big danger of it last year and I was coming back this year..."

Others, however, choose to elect more positive choices, for example influencing the workforce by building relationships, communicating etc.

"In my personal view the people who are working for me are the most important aspect for me."
"I think you see more of the relationship management."
"It's very personal – it's very different. It is really getting down to the one-on-one relationship..."
"We give feedback to managers... we share the results in general staff meetings so everyone is very aware..."

Given the holistic concepts developed above, I set out to explore how categories conceptualised into themes. I start with a theme that refers to the point that contingent labour is a fact of life for managers.

Theme: ***Contingent labour as a fact of life***

As noted above, contingent labour is accepted by most managers as a 'fact of life', the backdrop against which they do their work. However, it is also apparent that some parts of hotels use contingent labour more extensively than others (Category Four, Appendix 02) as identified by these participants.

"We really rely on it in housekeeping."
"We would only use contingent labour in banquets."

Furthermore, and for a variety of reasons, managers are very clear about the *necessity* of using contingent labour. One reason is the seasonality of the business (Category Two, Appendix 02) as is highlighted in this comment:

"I think that for a city like Auckland that you have such big seasonality and you have no option but to keep a fairly large

component of your staff on the casual side otherwise you would never be able to equate between revenue and costs from a payroll perspective."

Another reason stems from the unpredictability of business, similar, but not the same as seasonality, and the consequent need for part-time staff (Category Thirteen, Appendix 02):

> *"Part-timers are a very important aspect especially for me exactly like that in the restaurant. Just for the simple fact because first of all it's very flexible."*
> (Note: this comment was presented earlier in this section and highlights how concepts may have relevance in more than one area)

Then there are the overtly financial reasons for contingent labour, all related to the above, but put quite simply, without contingent labour, costs would be much harder to control (Category Sixteen, Appendix 02). A manager makes note of this in the following comment:

> *"So it really helps with managing the costs, that is, how many people and how long you keep them on."*

Within the constraint of utilising (so much) contingent labour, managers do look for solutions (Category Twenty Two, Appendix 02) that would enable them to do the job more effectively, but are often constrained by insufficient time as the following two participants note:

> *"I guess a time for a forum – or just time – especially set aside to acknowledge this part of it – because we don't acknowledge it."*
> *"But still there is not enough time in our day to manage that very important part of it. I wish I had more time, or I wish I*

had the opportunity once a week to sit down and evaluate the workforce."

While managers accept contingent labour as part of the industry and accept their role in its management, it strongly suggests that the industry workforce will be dynamic – the basis of the following theme.

Theme: ***Dynamic workforce***

Having accepted the need for contingent labour, managers accept that a contingent labour policy means that the workforce attracted to this kind of work is, in itself, transient and highly mobile (Category Three, Appendix 02) and presents a mix of experience (Category Twenty Seven, Appendix 02)

"For me I would say 99% are students."
"The skill level is much better"
"They can flit from one hotel to the next to the next and we all see it."

In addition to the above points, there has been substantial growth in the industry which means that securing staff is competitive (Category Twenty Five, Appendix 02).

"I know years ago it was very, very different, I think there was more (staff) out there"

While the workforce may be transient within a growing industry, there is a tacit acceptance that this workforce is also vulnerable in the sense that they may have relatively few employment options, as suggested by focusing on females – usually young mothers (Category Six, Appendix 02).

"The majority of my staff are female."

Alternatively, the workforce may itself 'play' to the rules (Category Twenty Six, Appendix 02) under which they were engaged creating more dynamics as is demonstrated below.

> *"So you know that once every so often they will pull a sicky – just to pick up a sick day."*

In drawing to a conclusion, the hotel workforce is largely comprised of immigrants and students, thus, the hotel workforce is culturally diverse largely because hotels provide access to part-time work opportunities. This then impacts on managerial style. While the comments made below are in the context of managerial style, they identify the impact that differing cultures have on an organisation (Category Ten, Appendix 02).

> *"The main reason why it (management style) changes is because of the different cultures."*
> *"You are changing your management style to suit the person and the nationality".*

Managing diversity appears to be linked to how a manager approaches their job and their managerial style. However, managers are generally aware of and quite accepting of diversity, appearing to be able to adjust their modus operandi depending on their interaction with people of differing cultures.

Overall, categories within this theme suggest that managers work in a challenging and dynamic workforce, while recognising the necessity of doing so.

Theme: The negative image of hotel employment and its role in turnover

Coupled with contingent labour being a fact of life, and that managers work within a dynamic environment, is the matter that there is a negative image of hotel work which flows into turnover. Turnover as a potential outcome of the use of contingent labour has been discussed in previous chapters, yet, managers are accepting of this fact for a variety of reasons. Firstly, managers recognise that the industry as a whole has a negative image (Category Twelve, Appendix 02) something that has been reported for a number of years (Barron & Maxwell, 1993; Department of Education, 1989; Ellis, 1981). One positive manager, however, made the following comment regards this issue.

> *"They have got the wrong message (about the industry) and they have got the wrong impression".*

Potentially, as a result of the industry image some managers believe that many people do not view work in hotels as a career. Rather, they see it as "a part-time job till a real job comes along" (Category Fourteen, Appendix 02).

> *"A lot of part-timers don't look at it as their own professional career; there're just a lot of people who just work over here just to pay off their bills."*
> *"It is not viewed as a career in New Zealand; it is viewed as something you do while you are at college, while you earn your money to go overseas."*

Alternatively, some employees understand the 'contingent' nature of their job (Category Twenty Three, Appendix 02) and present what could be considered a negative attitude as reported in the following comments.

> *"I think that there is always going to be a portion of students who are just doing it to earn money and that's fine... it's up to you to sort the wheat from the chaff I guess."*
> *"When we can't give them forty hours a week then they tend to go and do something else where they can."*

Contrary to the above comments, however, other managers highlight that the industry does have career options (Category Nine, Appendix 02):

> *"You can definitely start as a part-timer but then you do have opportunities to get into a full-time status."*
> *"I think the contingent workforce is very much the student population or the up and coming young person who is thinking at looking at a career in hotels."*
> *"They often leave me for properties like the Sheraton, Crowne Plaza, Hilton just because of the size of those groups and I know 'cause I know the opportunities are endless. There are huge opportunities."*

Thus, the industry image is mixed yet predominately negative, thus seen as contributing to turnover. However, other reasons why people leave the industry are signalled in Categories Fifteen and Seventeen (Appendix 02): that is, money, turnover and lifestyle:

> *"I think that I find that sometimes people do it for a couple of years (then) enough is enough and it's not the lifestyle that I want long term - I don't want to be moving round every five years."*
> *"Money is another one, they want more."*
> *"I think people are sick of shift work."*

Given the substantial literature regarding industry image and turnover, and the fact that managers accept contingent labour and associated policies as necessary, managers project a level of 'understanding' about why this happens.

The data and analysis so far summarises the backdrop against which managers manage and the constraints within which managers' work (R. Stewart, 1991). However, to support managers in dealing with these constraints, hotels have created systems, the subject of the following section.

Theme: *Systems and standards*

Systems, as discussed in previous chapters not only maintain standards, but can also assist when an organisation moves to a high contingent labour strategy. Standard systems used in hotels include extensive use of technology in all areas of operations, usually designed for company reporting, analysis and decision making. Systems are also extensively used in workforce scheduling, accommodation and function room set-up configurations and checklists, right down to individual dinner table setup photos which ensure standards with minimal training.

Rules also have a part to play in standardisation, as is demonstrated below:

> *"There is no illusion, we are five star. If you are a girl you must wear your hair up, if you are a boy you're hair must be above the collar – it can't be this colour, you must wear this tie, you must wear this colour socks."*

The maintenance of standards, however, is often challenged by an inability to secure the right staff (Category Seven, Appendix 02), or perhaps because of the extensive use of systems in maintaining standards. This may be symptomatic of a contingent labour force that are not focused on a career in hotels for the reasons mentioned earlier, and highlighted in the following participants' vignettes.

> *"I think the biggest challenge is we are not finding the right people... we look for the right candidate but they're not there."*
> *"The main reason why we went for the one (recruitment) company is so that we could have the same (contingent labour) in all of the time. We spend quite a bit of time training the way we want them to work, get the grooming right..."*
> *"I guess it is creating the whole international hotel*

experience for someone, to show we are serious about service and standards..."

While the benefits of systems have been noted and accepted by managers, at times the engaged hotel systems or standards may constrain a manager from progressing what they consider the hotels objectives, as noted by the following participants:

> *"We have a technology issue in this hotel!"*
> When a manager compared the systems from one hotel to another commented: *"They may not be so flexible, they have got a black and white approach like - your start time is here and end time is here."*

While systems may aid maintenance of standards, managers action them in different ways. Ultimately, this affects their overall approach to the job. Different approaches to the job are embedded within the following theme.

Theme: ***Different managers approach the job in different ways***

The fact that hotels try to develop systems to help managers cope with the contingent labour, does not necessarily lessen the demands placed on managers, who, at this point, have to take control and manage the workforce. Indeed hotels need managers who are able to balance the constraints and demands as they manage forward. Category Eleven (Appendix 02) opens this theme with managers noting that the approach taken to managing the contingent labour force is often unique to the manager:

> *"Every person is kind of unique in himself or herself because they've got their own advantage and disadvantages, their own strengths and weaknesses that you have got to play and probably just try and get the best out of them."*
> *"...it's up to all individuals, you can't have a set of rules for managing everybody in your team, you have to develop the*

ways of managing each individual. So you've got to understand the psychology of people at times and work with the strengths and weaknesses."

Given the need for management to ensure standards are met using a diverse workforce, managers themselves are aware of the need for effective management and comment that, at times, this job can be negatively challenging (Category Eighteen and Nineteen, Appendix 02). Ironically, while this negatively highlights the demands and implied importance that hotels place on managers - managers are aware of the hotels dependence on them.

"The hotel relies on the strength of the department head to ensure the operation was effective 24/7, yet we all know that doesn't work and what was happening, as when a department head would leave all the holes would open up and things would start to fall through."

"Across the board middle management are the focus as they are the key people we are looking at developing in order to get to the next role eventually."

"It makes you realise how imperative it is that you have the right leadership."

The final theme to be developed expands what has gone before as constraints and demands, moving into the area of managerial 'choice'.

Theme: ***Managerial 'choice' – different managerial styles***

While this Phase of my research was not seeking to drill down to the full range of choices available to managers, managers did indicate that they had choice in how they manage contingent labour, the first being how managers approach their job.

Some managers chose to manage in such a way that they succumb to the stress of the job as described by the following participants:

> *'There is a tool that could make us better managers and better staff and that's recognition of the pressure and stress we are under. In the sense that this industry is 24/7 so we don't shut the door and go home which is really bad. We can be here from six in the morning, as you well know, till midnight that night. It is going all the time and there is very little (given) – it is expected."*
>
> *"We are so much public and so many issues arise from being public, that hell we need to stop and smell the roses and say "Hey we're pretty good at what we do" and that really is a simple thing, but is something that is very uncommon."*
>
> *"A constant challenge in the hotel industry is being thrown more and more. The hours are horrendous anyway and then you get more work."*

Other managers, however, are clear that they have more positive choices. Positiveness via passion is a differentiating managerial style factor, and while the term 'passion' may appear elusive, participants expressed this in the following terms (Category Eight, Appendix 02) as an alternative or antidote to the stress that can overwhelm managers.

> *"The managers here are all very different people very different philosophy and they are at all varying stages of their career. However, the one thing that they all have is an incredible passion for the hotel."*
>
> *"I'm here to do a job and do that job to the best of my ability."*
>
> *"Ask me what I'm interested in and it's wine, food and working with people, so I left my last job to come back to the hotels."*
>
> *"I really want to work in a hotel, I'm proud of where I work*

and I really want to serve guests!"

"Because I enjoy working with people. I guess through experience that this has led me to where I am at, to be able to share the knowledge and experience to date."

The choice of managerial style may be a result of the manager's own views of the reasons for working in the industry, the 'internal-being' becoming external actions - style being adjusted to suit the environmental (Category Five, Appendix 02):

> *"I started off, I guess, from the day I left school – before I left school something switched me onto hotels and I walked in the first door of a hotel and I was hooked."*

'Hooked' managers chose to develop relationships with all staff via communication, understanding, staff recognition, motivating and developing pride in the team, listening to staff, etc (Category One, Appendix 02). This category is the largest in terms of participant commentary and richness in tenor (and passion). Examples of managerial styles include:

> *"They (staff) are the people who run the show. I mean there is no second part about it; you have to take care of them."*
>
> *"I understand a lot of this – the Polynesian lifestyle, family style. It's like being a mother and a counsellor to one hundred other people... I can walk up the corridors to any of them and know little things about each of them."*
>
> *"I guess it's the personal touch at the end of the day. I think there is a large element that rests on the leader and the kind of support."*
>
> *"It is very personal (managerial style) and very different. It is really getting it down to the one-on-one relationships and I think managers who aren't self-aware that they need to manage in a different manner, they won't survive as the leaders I guess."*
>
> *"My staff are very personal to me... I don't get out of bed in*

the morning to please the GM, I get put of bed to please the customers and the staff."

The choice to develop relationships with employees appears to be enhanced by a manager's internal and external passion for the job – potentially making the relationship stronger. A demonstration of relationship development and their concern for staff is via assisting staff to remain focused on moving from contingent labour to full time staff, where potentially the relationship may be different, but also more easily managed. Here one participant talks about their efforts in this area (Category Twenty One, Appendix 02).

> *"I try to encourage the guys and say 'look the goal is to go full time'. I'm talking about the contingent guy – that's what they're working towards and they are very happy to come full time because of the security"*

Additionally, some managers are very interested in finding out the staff view as part of relationship development by conducting opinion surveys. While surveys may be part of the hotels operational 'systems', managers can choose to make a difference by utilising them to the best advantage as is demonstrated by the following participant.

> *"So it really looks at 'well OK what is the problem, what is the strategy going to be, what are we going to do about it, what can we do' and that is communicated... so they can actually appreciate that what they say in the survey is actually going to happen"*

Finally, managers have the choice to be successful (influential) by changing their style as the situation demands. Managers acknowledge having changed their style over time and that change is necessary yet takes courage:

> *"I think I have (changed) because I think I've started to understand what the issues are."*

"I think over the years I have changed a bit because I have grown. I've learnt a lot more about people."
"If we talk about food and beverage and my style of management then my style of management is very different (to housekeeping) because it is a different operation and the people are different."
"You are always adjusting your management style depending on who you are working with."

The above themes indicate that managers have demands placed on them from the general business environment and that this sometimes constrains how they can go about managing their workforce. These two points (demands and constraints) parallel Stewart's (1991), view that managers are bound by conditions. The first of Stewart's three conditions is 'demands' – of the job, as in the use of contingent labour. The second is 'constraints' – the fact that the use of contingent labour can lead to employee turnover and staff working the rules etc. Stewart's final condition is that of 'choice'– the discretion that a manager has (1991, p 14). Choices appear in managers' actions. They may, for example, choose to accept the situation and simply follow the systems, or be negative, or take a positive stance in spite of the challenges by demonstrating passion for the job. Stewart's 'conditions' concept appears an appropriate platform from which to consider the role of managers in my research and particularly Phase One.

As I ended this stage of analysis, data had moved through Levels 1 and 2 of the Ladder of Analytical Abstraction (Figure 1) highlighting various themes. Much of the Phase One transcripts dealt with the phenomena of contingent labour, its inevitability and the technical things that managers must do to function in a contingent labour environment. Thus, they must:

- ensure that employees work the correct number of shifts
- be adaptive at hiring
- be systematic to maintain standards
- be able to cope with repetitive tasks

In short, there are systems matters that managers must attend to if they are to survive.

Figure 1

The Ladder of Analytical Abstraction

Levels

3b Delineating the deep structure
Synthesis: integrating the data into one explanatory framework.

3. Developing and testing propositions to construct an explanatory framework

3a Testing hypotheses and reducing the bulk of the data for analysis of trends in it
Cross-checking tentative findings.
Matrix analysis of major themes in data.

---

2. Repackaging and aggregating the data

Identifying themes and trends in the data overall
Searching for relationships in the data: writing analytical memos.
Finding out where the emphases and gaps in the data are.

---

1. Summarising and packaging

1b Trying out coding categories to find a set that fits
Coding of data.
Writing of analytical notes on linkages to various frameworks of interpretation.

1a Creating a text to work on
Reconstruction of interview tapes as written notes.
Synopses of individual interviews.

(Carney 1990 in Miles & Huberman, 1994b, p. 92)

In addition though, Phase One results suggest that managers vary in their ability to cope. Effective managers have certain characteristics:

- they are passionate and enthusiastic
- they are adept at reading employees, enthusing them, and
- they are strong communicators and build strong relationships and networks.

Phase One clarified that managers most affected by and responsible for contingent labour are the middle managers in such functions as housekeeping and food and beverage. Phase One also indicated some of the strategies used by managers in coping with contingent labour. Having orientated myself to the field and obtained the above understanding, Phase Two was undertaken to focus more fully on the distinction between managers who coped and were ultimately more influential, and those who did not cope as well in a contingent labour environment. To achieve this deeper understanding I developed questions from phase one that I hoped would achieve the above goals. In doing so I adjusted my research approach and engaged the technique of repertory grid during interviews.

4.3 Phase Two Analysis

Phase One suggested that theoretical sampling needed to focus on middle managers from Food and Beverage and Rooms Division Departments – areas where the majority of contingent labour is engaged. Using this group I concentrated on the differences between managers in terms of how they face up to contingent labour and the demands it poses – in other words, what choices managers exercise. The interviews with participants were conducted using Repertory Grid method (Fransella & Bannister, 1977; V. Stewart & Stewart, 1981), a method that allows for the development of participants' personal constructs.

Within this phase of analysis I first generated a set of *Initial Constructs* for each participant - section 4.3.1. It was then from these initial constructs that I developed a set of *themes* - section 4.3.2.

4.3.1 Initial construct development

Data for analysis in this stage was again interview transcripts ('data to work with' – Level 1a of the Ladder of Analytical Abstraction).

The personal constructs developed are similar in principle to the "codes" developed in Phase One, but with this difference. In Phase One, I identified the codes from the transcripts. In Phase Two, I assumed that each construct developed by the participant in their language represented a code. In this sense I interpreted the data less and was less intrusive in my interpretation. It is important to note however, that developed constructs are the 'bare bones' of participants views, yet grounded in their reality. The flesh surrounding these bones (the full transcript) presents the more complete and complex concept; more vividly explained via participant vignettes from transcripts in later sections.

Analysis of each transcript resulted in a set of personal constructs for each participant in relation to given triads. How managers responded to the triadic process is fully explained in Appendix 3. An example of this process and analysis, however, is shown in Table 4.

Table 4 Construct Development

Participant	Question	Pole 1 (Element 1 & 3)	Pole 2 (Element 2)
1	1 a	1.1.1 Very passionate to get the job done. 1.1.2 Goes out of their way to teach new staff 1.1.3 Gets involved with staff 1.1.4 Sets goals for themselves 1.1.5 Understands the standards expected 1.1.6 Has international hotel experience in several hotels 1.1.7 Has worked in a multicultural environment 1.1.8 Has established personal and system mechanisms to deal with and reduce turnover 1.1.9 Caring and involved with managing and watching training	2.1.1Knows what has to be done, but not as passionate. 2.1.2 Relies on the staff to know what to do when they arrive. 2.1.3 Wants others to set goals for them. 2.1.4 Unsure of the expected standards. 2.1.5 Been in the one hotel for a long time. 2.1.6 Less interested in building relationships due to high turnover. 2.1.7 Distances themselves from the issues of turnover –less concerned. 2.1.8Gets others to look after and train new staff.
		3.1.1 Has established personal and system mechanisms to deal with and reduce turnover 3.1.2 Caring and involved with managing and watching training 3.1.3 Very passionate to get the job done. 3.1.4 Goes out of their way to teach new staff 3.1.5 Knows what results are required and how to achieve them 3.1.6 Knows the people to reply on and trust 3.1.7 Experienced and on top of their job 3.1.8 Delegates work to the staff	

In this example, Participant One was asked to compare three managers (elements). The first manager managed a lot of part-time/casual staff and seemed to manage, cope and positively influence them well. The second manager managed a lot of part-time/casual staff, yet didn't seem to cope or influence them positively. The third manager didn't have many part-time/casual staff, (that is, they were mostly full-time), but coped positively and influenced them well. Once presented with the elements they were asked "which two were similar, but different from the third?" within the given context of their *managerial style* – a qualifying statement (detailed as 1a) (V. Stewart & Stewart, 1981).

The participant (in this example) placed elements one and three together contrasting them with element two. As respondents compared and contrasted the behaviours of different managers, so they generated constructs or ideas about similarities and differences between them. Constructs are always bi-polar in nature – from the construct developer's view, meaning that every construct has an opposing pole. However, the opposing pole may not always appear to be a logical opposite from an observer's perspective.

In the example, the respondent developed a number of constructs; some common to the paired Elements, e.g. 1.1.1 and 3.1.3 etc, but other constructs specific to either Element One or Three. This repertory grid process was supported by laddering (Fransella & Bannister, 1977) which involves asking follow up questions to participants responses, such as "why is that important" and "what is required for people/managers to behave in that way"? Laddering can often generate more personal constructs.

The generation of what was several hundred constructs was analysed into themes – the basis of the next section.

4.3.2 Theme development

Analysis of repertory grid (personal constructs) results can happen in several ways. First, frequency counts can be completed on words and constructs developed by participants. Second, participants can be asked to "rate", e.g. on a Likert Scale, elements in terms of the constructs they have developed. In my research, however, I refrained from this kind of quasi-quantitative approach and approached axial coding in an inductive way. In completing this analysis, as happened in phase one, I arrived at several themes. I have deliberately used the term *theme* rather that *category* as the word 'theme' suggests less solid boundaries. That is, themes allow for movement of constructs between themes, or that constructs may belong to more than one theme, whereas categories suggests a definite positioning.

To develop themes I began a similar process of analysis as in phase one, which was, by cutting up all constructs from all participants (306 in total), so that each construct was on a separate piece of paper. I randomly selected a construct and placed it on the table, I then picked up a second construct and compared it to the first, making a decision about whether it belonged with the first construct or was sufficiently different to belong as a separate theme. I continued this for each construct until all constructs fell under, or created a new theme. With reference to Carney's (1990) Ladder of Analytical Abstraction this is Level 2, as I then reviewed the total content of the theme I assigned a name to each as detailed later in this section. This process of classifying and naming is similar to the logic of factor analysis in a quantitative piece of work. The full presentation of personal constructs under developed themes is presented in Appendix Four. However, this is where the similarities ended, because having 'themed' the constructs, I returned to the full context of the transcripts to enable the inductive work of grounded theory to progress, albeit within the context of the themes. This approach then allowed me to present a storyline of the choices that managers have, and make, regarding managing, coping with and influencing contingent labour.

Figure 1

The Ladder of Analytical Abstraction

Levels

3b Delineating the deep structure
Synthesis: integrating the data into one explanatory framework.

3. Developing and testing propositions to construct an explanatory framework

3a Testing hypotheses and reducing the bulk of the data for analysis of trends in it
Cross-checking tentative findings.
Matrix analysis of major themes in data.

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2. Repackaging and aggregating the data

Identifying themes and trends in the data overall
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1. Summarising and packaging

1b Trying out coding categories to find a set that fits
Coding of data.
Writing of analytical notes on linkages to various frameworks of interpretation.

1a Creating a text to work on
Reconstruction of interview tapes as written notes.
Synopses of individual interviews.

(Carney 1990 in Miles & Huberman, 1994b, p. 92)

In advance of detailing the story line in which I utilise many participants' vignettes, I present my overall findings.

- Contingent labour forms the backdrop for managers working in hotels (as I found in phase one), along with turnover. To support new and experienced managers in maintaining standards, hotels have developed a base of complex systems which all managers are expected to know and be able to work within.
- Some managers are 'systems people' – they like, are absorbed by, or perhaps can not see beyond such a managerial approach, therefore they 'go through the motions'. Other managers, however, not only use the systems but transcend the systems management approach – potentially adding value to the organisation and employees. Such managers utilise humanistic management techniques in addition to systems.
- Humanistic managers appear to have made several choices. Firstly, they have made hotels a career and in doing so have developed high personal standards. Secondly, they see value in developing professional relationships with employees and guests.
- Systems people manage 'economically'; they do what needs to be achieved to meet the set standards. Humanistic managers manage 'actively' and create an organisational accelerator effect by building relationships that includes trust and good will. As such, employees internalise the manager's standards and potentially exceed the required standards – pushing the accelerator. Fundamentally, humanistic managers appear to genuinely like and respect their staff and by all accounts have this returned to them.

My analysis (storyline) of Phase Two now continues by presenting the themes I developed. I start with the theme that there is a 'environmental backdrop' to managing contingent labour.

Theme: *The backdrop to managing contingent labour*

Understanding the hotel industry is a critical aspect of any manager's job. Potentially, however, the more experienced a manager is, the more proficient they are at doing so.

> *"These managers bring a wealth of experience from other properties, and it does show."*
> *"These two managers have managed many departments, many properties; have had a lot of international experience."*

As highlighted in phase one, for all managers, contingent labour is a fact of life; they understand the need for contingent labour and are able to use it to the advantage of the hotel.

The make up and quality of a hotel's contingent labour is, however, variable; they come from different cultures, genders and ages, with many of the positions available being entry points to the industry. Humanistic managers accept all of this; they support their staff in various ways even when they leave, and project confidence as noted in the following vignettes:

> *"I think it comes to hands on and looking after the new people when they come on board. Looking after is caring, watching, training, monitoring and seeing how they are going."*
> *"Number one is more accepting and more able to say, 'this is what their culture dictates, so let's run with than'.*
> *"(Managing cultural aspects) understanding probably, listening, just caring, just caring."*
> *"This department has fairly high turnover. For both these gentleman it's just a fact of life if you like and it's not stressful, it's just part of your average working day if you like."*

"They cope with (turnover) because there's other people that will come through I suppose."

Summing up one participant noted:

"If you run a department whether it's part-time or full-time, if you want to be effective you should know or you should have a good understanding about your staff like their strengths, weaknesses, different backgrounds, their work ethic.."

The contrast to what appears to be the effective/humanistic manager is the manager who sees staff as less strategically valuable. Such managers don't cope well with turnover as the following participants noted:

"They would be more upset because of the training that's gone into somebody to get them to their position, so therefore, maybe feel offended or upset for that reason (of someone leaving)."
"This particular person here, if someone was to resign or abandon a shift they were on, not turn up, it would be stress city!"
"He was not effective. He wasn't doing the right thing. The staff were miserable. It actually went to one hundred and fifty percent turnover in that six months."
"They tend to always be flustered, always appears slightly out of control."

Therefore, while contingent labour and employee turnover is the backdrop from which middle managers operate, some managers manage and cope better than others – by choice.

This theme suggest that hotel systems allow an element of stability in what can be a turbulent and continually changing environment, that is, systems reduce the reliance on people – people work within the systems, not the other way round.

Theme: ***A systems based organisation***

Managers must understand the systems if they are to survive. However, some managers transcend systems in their support of staff which, at times, places the manager in a difficult position as described by this participant:

> *"If I feel strongly enough about it (a pay rise for an employee) I'll fight for that person, I'll fight for that staff member to the death if that person has warranted it."*

Other managers, however, just work within the systems, that is, they come to work to do a job – transactional management. These managers lack the respect which is granted to their colleagues; yet as we see, may still do a good job of achieving the standards required – perhaps thanks to systems:

> *"Has the knowledge but doesn't use it. Not interested in using it... would just come to work and go home again... but that person at the same time is good at their job to a certain extent."*

While hotels need systems, managers chose how to use them with effective managers generally being hotel-career focused with high standards – they want the hotel to succeed.

Theme: Wanting to succeed

Experienced managers, as alluded in the first theme, have "seen it all". They have worked in a range of hotels with varying standards and are clear on what is required of them and their contingent labour to enable the hotel to succeed. Participants highlight this in the following vignettes:

> *"They are very conscious of their payroll and conscious of how they are staffing their departments. They are concerned about where the money is going and what is happening to it."*
> *"These two have very high standards. They know what's expected of the hotel, they absolutely know."*
> *"They are both passionate about their job, they know what the results should be, if they don't achieve the results they are quite upset – affected by it. They will always work on a way to actually overcome that... The goals are always set higher than what's actually being achieved at the moment."*
> *"(Obstacles) if they have a task to do they'll go right through and do it right through to the very end. They'll chip away on it."*

Success appears related to the 'respect' that a manager develops, yet they do not set out to demand respect in their quest to succeed, rather it appears naturally because of their high standards as is noted below.

> *"Both (managers) command a lot of respect because they know their job. People know they know. It's because their standards are so high...."*
> *"They are confident and strong and they display that at all times."*
> *"It's something I enjoy doing – I mean pride, I want to make sure that everything I do gets done properly, because whatever I do reflects on me. I want everything done to the*

> *highest standard and best possible way it can be done, logically and cost effectively."*

The contrast to this theme would be managers who do not set out to succeed, yet my data does not highlight such managers. Potentially, all managers want to achieve the minimum standards, and for some that is all they do, supported by the hotels' systems. The closest 'contrasting' participant comment related to this has already appeared under the theme of *systems,* as:

> *"Has the knowledge but doesn't use it. Not interested in using it... would just come to work and go home again... but that person at the same time is good at their job to a certain extent."*

So far, given the backdrop in which managers manage and the systems that they must work within, some managers appear more successful than others, but what we need to understand is why some managers gain success and are respected, and others not. Returning to Stewart's (1967) concept of managers having 'choice' in how they manage, the following two themes - managers being passionate about their job and, having a desire to build relationships, are choices than some managers make which may lead to them being successful and respected.

Theme: ***Passionate leadership***

Effective and respected managers are described as passionate, motivated and committed.

> *"I guess that they (the managers) are very passionate about their jobs."*
> *"I think the other thing that these people (managers) have is a real passion for what they do. They're real, they love what they do and that shows through in dedication, commitment and enjoyment."*

Passionate managers' enthusiasm can be infectious which helps the hotel achieve more than may be required. I term this the accelerator effect for the reason that it does not cost the hotel any more in terms of resourcing, it is purely driven by the manager's enthusiasm and relationship with staff. Again the area of respect is the dominant factor.

> *"In terms of leadership they lead from the front. They provide a good strong leadership example of what should and shouldn't happen."*
> *"They have respect for staff, staff enjoy working with them and if you need people to work extra hours they don't mind. They will come in because they want to help out, they know you need help."*
> *"The rapport they have with staff, the way we treat them and the respect we give them. So they don't feel like an outsider, they all feel part of a bigger family where they all want to help each other and don't want to leave anyone in the lurch kind of thing."*

Managers who are committed gain respect by wanting to share their passion for the job and industry by teaching others – in what appears to be in excess of what systems may provide. Again this adds to the accelerator effect.

> *"They are very passionate and they will go out of their way to teach staff what's right and what's wrong."*

While there may be challenges for managers who push against systems in order to increase business momentum, respected managers give everything to the job; for some it's a lifestyle culminating in providing positive leadership.

> *"For arguments sake if we need to work as managers for eighteen hours a day, seven days a week when the hotel is busy, it's OK. For those of us who are passionate about your*

role we will do it because we want to do it, it's not because it's a job, it's because we want the hotel to succeed and the hotel won't succeed without us/"

"Passion to me is really enjoying your job, putting everything into it all the time, like constantly. You love your job, it's your whole life... it's on your mind the whole time..."

"Well speaking for myself... it's actually a lifestyle or me, it's more than a career to me."

Finally, in presenting the contrast to passionate managers, for some, being a middle manager in a hotel is just a job.

"They would not know their staff very well, not know their staff at a level they should to be able to stimulate them to do their job."

The theme of passionate leadership suggests that the choice to gain respect as a manager is a personal one, built on the basis of wanting to form meaningful working relationships, not just transactional, rational relationships.

Theme: Respected managers, who through their actions have the potential to build relationships

Respected managers are those who build meaningful working relationships. Indeed they themselves respect the staff that they work with, have well developed people skills and in general project humility toward others. Opening this theme participants share their views on how managers can build meaningful relationships:

"Everyone is important to me, whether part-time or it's a short period or long period."

"(respected managers) they are not soft, quite outspoken but at the same time friendly, they have an awe about them. I

can't describe it but there is something that makes you stop and listen...it's what's inside them that comes across straight away, you know they care."

"They are more caring and understanding and work with the staff".

"Asking how they are, how their day has been, getting to the same level and showing interest in their lives as well. A more personal relationship where they feel more bonded and you actually care as opposed to 'I don't care what you did last night."

"We try and give them opportunities to give them growth. We try and listen to them so we know what's happening to them, not just at work, but in their personal lives so we cater for any issues that may arise. We want them to be happy in their work."

"Both of us talk to people honestly and communication levels are wide open. Any problems are sorted out instantly, not left."

"They have got to that position (of manager) I think because they listen and they care..."

Respectful relationships can only be built if there is mutual trust and respect, and while a manager may have a position of power, the most respected managers treated their staff as equals. While position-power distance is not something that may be easily overcome, the following participants' comments show how a manager chooses to project respect.

"Treat people with a lot more respect... respect would be treating someone as an equal, but at the same time listening to what they are doing, listening to what they are saying and taking the good from that."

"I'm just a firm believer on being a consultative manager. Of being open to people, it doesn't matter who they are... if they are a line staff or whether it's the GM, I'm going to treat

them pretty much the same way – that's with respect."

For other managers, however, hotel systems reduce the need to form such (respectful) relationships, by enabling them to manage and cope in a strictly transactional manner. Anything other than a contractual relationship is unnecessary.

> *"He has a relationship with long-term people. Short term people, um, people come and go you know; he would not build a relationship with these people."*
>
> *"I mean you know when a person cares right? But with that person you don't feel they care, you just think they're there and they do what they're supposed to be doing, but obviously good at it."*

Early in section 4.3.2, I presented my overall conclusions of the Axial Coding phase and then set about demonstrating how I arrived at these using the data within participants' transcripts. To recapitulate, analysis of the data in this section developed five themes: the backdrop to managing contingent labour; system based organisations, wanting to succeed, passionate leadership and respected managers build relationships. When the themes developed in phases one and two are compared (see Table 5), we see that there are some consistent threads. While 'systems' are highlighted in both phases there are linkages between phases, strengthening the storyline thus far.

Table 5 Alignment of Phase One and Two Themes

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="7">Phase One Data</td><td>Phase One Themes</td><td rowspan="7">Phase Two Data</td><td>Phase Two Themes</td></tr>
<tr><td>• Contingent labour as a fact of life</td><td rowspan="3">• The backdrop to contingent labour</td></tr>
<tr><td>• Dynamic workforce</td></tr>
<tr><td>• The negative image of hotel employment and its role in turnover</td></tr>
<tr><td>• Systems and standards</td><td>• A systems based organisation</td></tr>
<tr><td>• Different managers approach the job in different ways</td><td rowspan="2">• Wanting to succeed
• Respected managers, who through their actions have the potential to build relationships
• Passionate leadership</td></tr>
<tr><td>• Managerial choice</td></tr>
</table>

Progressing analysis forward from phase two we start the move from Level 3a to Level 3b of the Ladder of Analytical Abstraction (Carney, 1990), that is, to identify a central category that helps start to explain the theory of how middle managers cope with and influence contingent labour. This approach follows the grounded theory methodology in which Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1994) argue for the development of a 'core category' – a unifying theme or concept that accounts for a significant proportion of the variance in the data. I conclude that the theme of *respected managers, who, through their actions have the potential to build relationships,* is dominant amongst others and the central core of 'what' respected managers do in terms of managing contingent labour. However, 'how' they manage is via the support of, or within the context of other themes.

Figure 1

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Synopses of individual interviews.

(Carney 1990 in Miles & Huberman, 1994b, p. 92)

4.4 The 'core' theme (category)

Prior to this presentation it is appropriate to confirm the overall position that analysis has drawn me to:

- Contingent labour usage has lead to systems driven organisations; systems being necessary due to the fact that people come and go with such regularity, yet standards need maintaining.
- Respected managers, however, effectively work within these systems, yet have set such high standards for themselves that they transcend the systems. That is, they understand that hotels are a 'people business', and set out to build relationships – sometimes in spite of system constraints.
- Respected managers' use or contest systems for their own and their employees benefit, with the result for employees being the development of a committed workforce. This provides an accelerator effect in terms of business outcomes.
- Less respected managers know how to manage and could be termed 'systems people' who maintain 'a' working relationship with staff. Such systematic management allows these managers to achieve minimum standards.

As indicated in the last section, the core theme (category) is: *that successful/respected managers build relationships,* as summarised by the following participant:

> *"These two gentleman here, if they want something done they get it done. It's all to do with forming relationship with the staff I think and the type of relationships that are actually formed."*

The above vignette suggests that in wanting to succeed, passionate managers build relationships. The ability to develop relationships is built on the base of systems that support contingent labour movement (and therefore managers) and the manager's skills that have been developed from their experience in the industry – the backdrop in which they work.

The action of building meaningful relationships (adding humanism to rational systems) appears intuitive to some managers who focus on staff as *people*. Such managers see people as 'key', not only to achieving, but exceeding hotel objectives. They do not see people as 'a' vehicle for achieving objectives. Successful and respected managers can be like effective counsellors; they are 'people centred' (Nelson-Jones, 1995, p 24), that is, they use their vast understanding and experience to draw out self concepts, attitude and behaviour. The fact that the workforce is dynamic, culturally diverse and transient appears to induce some managers to operate in a rational, transactional management manner. Successful/respected managers are not distracted by this environment, albeit frustrating at times.

4.5 Chapter Summary

This Chapter analysed data through two Phases. Phase One provided a clear direction in terms of participants and themes to be investigated in Phase Two. Phase Two suggested a core theme (category) of managers who are respected are those who put humanism into the employment relationship.

Of particular importance is that both successful/respected – humanistic managers and transactional managers do achieve hotel objectives. However, humanistic managers provide an accelerator affect which can see hotel objectives being exceeded.

Given that data suggests relationships are central to how managers manage contingent labour, it remains to clarify why managers would choose to do so and any potential consequences from such actions – a subject covered in the next Chapter – Emergent Theory.

CHAPTER 5

Emergent Theory

5.1 Introduction and Summary

Chapter 4 concluded with the observation that middle managers appear to have a choice between two courses of action – engaging with the dominant systems-oriented approach (a "rational" approach to management), or developing relationships (a humanistic approach). In this chapter I begin in Section 5.2 with an overview of this choice between rational and humanistic management styles, and how rational evidence-based management techniques have been applied to the service sector. I then consider whether the adoption of scientific management methods (with their implicit sidelining of social factors at work) is appropriate for the service sector. The managers in my study believe that both rational systems based approaches, and humanistic approaches are necessary and can co-exist. Indeed, some go further in their belief that putting relationship first is the key. Accordingly I then explore the literature on social capital; the foundations from which organisational relationships are built. In Section 5.3, I explore the theoretical framework of social capital and draw on the participants' constructs to demonstrate where and how social capital can be built or stifled. Section 5.4 explores the contrasting views between senior and middle managers on what might predispose a manager to be either rationalistic or humanistic, with Section 5.5 reviewing the costs of humanistic management. The final section asks "so what?" In this section I review key issues that this research has identified, particularly implications for the hotel industry.

In summary of this Chapter, the theory I propose is that managers experience pressure to choose between a rational, systems-oriented approach to managing contingent labour (with little room for social relationship), and a humanistic approach where managers place relationships ahead of business objectives. Humanistic managers believe that business objectives will ultimately be met and potentially exceeded as a result of strong relationships. Humanistic managers, however, manage within an environment strongly based on rationalism which in general suppresses the development of relationships. While managers experience this "polarity" of managerial dimensions (that is, one can manage in either a rationalistic *or* humanistic manner), the two are not necessarily polar opposites. Collins and Porras (1994) suggest that a trap for managers is to succumb to this 'tyranny of the OR' – managers can be either rationalistic OR humanistic. Instead, I have found in this research that respected managers harness what Collins and Porras call the 'genius of the AND'. Respected managers have mastered the technical/systems component of their work, and married this with a focus on developing relationships. This set of beliefs is underpinned by a set of values about relationships – that people come first. In effect, these managers believe that systems look after themselves once managers have developed a strong level of 'social capital' within the workforce.

However, while a humanistic management style has the potential to exceed hotel objectives, it appears to be a stressful option for managers operating in a rationalistic environment, and may lead to burnout and resignation. Adopting a rational management approach appears to provide less risk and personal stress.

5.2 On Rationalism and Humanism in Management

'Rationalism' and 'humanism' are words used to describe complex dimensions, and seeking a definition of each is difficult. It is, perhaps, more appropriate to define a rational organisation, although even 'organisation' means different things to those that observe them. Nevertheless, as a base to work from we can consider a rational organisation to be about *obedience of leadership orders by those who occupy lower offices* (Alkadry & Nyhan, 2005). The concept of 'humanistic organisation' involves concern for the welfare of people as its central tenet.

Prior to my summary of the concepts of rationalism and humanism it is appropriate to acknowledge Barley and Kunda's (1992) seminal article on surges of rational and normative ideologies in managerial discourse.

Barley and Kunda (1992) reviewed the history of managerial themes, suggesting that the changing themes, including industrial betterment, scientific management, human relations, systems rationalism, and organisational culture, are 'surges' related to cycles of economic expansion and contraction. In their view, "rational ideologies have always 'dominated' the managerial community". However, rationalism as a management discourse has tended to prosper as economies expand, while normative (humanistic) rhetorics have surged as economies contract. Thus, the dominant management discourse depends on the business environment at the time. My research was undertaken during a time of low unemployment and high tourism growth. As such, economic expansion was at almost explosive levels. Given this position, Barley and Kunda (1992) would have anticipated a predominantly rational discourse in attracting and retaining staff, and indeed this was the rhetoric from senior managers in my research. However, the more effective middle managers (those who manage staff on a daily basis), tended to be more consistently humanistic in their views, while acknowledging the need for systems rationalism. Barley and Kunda (1992) note the tendency for "cultures to revolve around ideas that are oppositional or dualistic in structure" and this dualism or opposition was reflected in these case studies. However, at a practical level, the middle managers in this research appeared able to nullify the swings (surges) of the rational-humanistic pendulum by incorporating the best of both discourses into their management practice.

Given the above commentary on this subject a more detailed coverage of the array of management surges is appropriate, I start with rationalism. Rationalism in management is not a new phenomenon and can be traced back to (at least) the 1900's and Frederick Taylor (Wood, Wallace, & Zeffane, 2001p, 710) and the Scientific Management movement (Wood, Wallace, & Zeffane, 2001p, 712-713). The thrust of this approach was for the maximisation of resources and efficiency toward the benefit of the employer, even though there were (few) elements of humanism touted. This was well understood in the manufacturing arena at the time, where work output was via mass production with employees seen as replaceable cogs in the wheel of production. However, one hundred years on, Saul (1992), an outspoken critic of this approach to management suggests there are now social trends towards more humanistic (perhaps "common sense") approaches. This may be occurring because of our movement towards knowledge and service based organisations, although Saul does not make specific reference to this.

Recent history shows a steady increase in the application of rational management methods to the service sector and especially to hotels. One manifestation of rationalism in hotels is the use of contingent labour – short term contractual relationships. The central idea behind the use of contingent labour is that organisations should only pay for labour when required. In a seasonal operation, where demand is highly variable, costs could be much reduced if staff are only employed as needed. For rational management and subsequent contingent labour to survive requires the simplification of jobs and the development of systems and standard operating procedures. To cope with the challenges that contingent labour brings, hotels have, therefore, developed systems to deal with almost every 'contingency'.

As was mooted by Taylor (Wood, Wallace, & Zeffane, 2001, p 710), such an approach allows for securing maximum prosperity for the employer, and avoids the complications of long-term – potentially time consuming, employment relationships.

Rationalism in management has been contrasted with humanism. Ket de Vries and Balazs (1997) question the appropriateness of rationalism in some sections of today's environment in *The Downside of Downsizing*. They emphasise that such an approach reduces the significance of the "psychological contract" and the associated variables of loyalty and trust.

Further, there are those like Drucker (1995) who acknowledge that rationalism has worked well (in terms of productivity gains) in the first half of the twentieth century, especially in mass production operations and during periods of high unemployment. However, in the latter half of that century, and into the twenty first century, where an emphasis has been placed on knowledge and service work (with a shrinking workforce), it is questionable if this is now an appropriate approach. Drucker, (1995, p 240) suggests that the knowledge society is an 'employee society'. Knowledge organisations are ultimately under social control, and dependent on social capital – high levels of trust and autonomy. For Drucker, a primary challenge for the 21st century is one of managing knowledge workers who require autonomy. Drucker argues that rationalism depletes social capital. In essence, Kets de Vries (1997), Drucker and, Saul (1992) are arguing for the restoration of humanism in work organisations. Nevertheless, in light of the significant use of contingent labour in hotels, at present the benefits appear to outweigh the disadvantages.

5.2.1 Are rationalism and humanism opposites?

Implicit in this discourse is the idea that rationalism and humanism are opposite poles of a single continuum. That is, the more of one, the less of the other. This is also exemplified in the work of Taylor, who argued that there was no place for social relationships in workplaces committed to efficiency. For Taylor (Wood, Wallace, & Zeffane, 2001, p 710) social relationships reduce efficiency and he is quoted as follows in a demonstration of pitting the individual against the group.

> *"Personal ambition always has been and will remain a powerful incentive to exertion than a desire for the general welfare"*

In my own research, those managers who are deemed least respected appear to accept that there is a trade-off between rational systems approaches to management, and the development of relationship.

> *"I mean you know when someone cares, right. But with that person you don't feel that they care, you just think they're there and they do what they're supposed to be doing, but obviously good at it,"*

"The staff turnover with these two is quite high, but this one would not be as upset as this one would be."

This is also exemplified in a dispute in process at the CCC while writing this chapter.

<u>Christchurch City Council – organisational changes</u>

The managerial turnover, a situation not too dissimilar to that of turnover of middle managers in hotels, was said to be changing the social and operational structure of the Council. In the case of the Council, continual turnover was said to be a result of the CEO's managerial style, that is, there was "no trust and aloofness" (Van Beynen, 2006b), as such, the loss of long term managers meant there was a dearth of knowledge and staff often were left with no support. Ex staff members described the social framework as 'in crisis', as when people left, often so did the passion. Staff within the Council commented that while stable staff knew the systems (remembering that hotels have extensive systems), it was managerial knowledge that oiled the wheels. The Council's Human Resource Manager expressed the belief that institutional knowledge should not be dependent on individuals, but rather on structures, processes and documents (Van Beynen, 2006a). The general image projected to the newspaper's readers was one of organisational and subsequent social change. Relationships had changed, therefore so had the social capital.

In all these cases, managers appear to have accepted what Collins and Porras (1994) refer to as the tyranny of the OR. That is, they have construed rational, systems-oriented, contractual approaches to management, and approaches based on social relationship and goodwill as being in opposition. As Kelly (Kelly, 1955), and Fransella and Bannister (1977) note, all construct systems are bi-polar in nature. That is, any construct exists in relationship to its opposite. However, the opposing pole in all cases is a social construction. In the case of the less respected managers in my group, they have chosen, like Taylor, to construct humanism as the opposite to rationality.

However, as Collins and Porras (1994) note, effective managers are able to achieve what they term the "genius of the AND". By this they mean that they find ways to ensure that phenomena that others may see as polar opposites (quantity *or* quality, competition *or* cooperation, systems *or* relationships) are construed as complementary. In the case of my research, respected managers use a rationalistic approach combined with humanism. That is, they understand the need for, and indeed use systems, but, develop relationships as well. In other words, rather than treating rationalism and humanism as a polarity (Burns, 1999), they are able to find a compromise between two potential opposites as suggested by this participant.

> *"He achieves and he seems to have the balance, no matter how much he does"*

While the less respected managers did appear to focus on systems and ignore relationship, the more respected managers focussed on relationships but also mastered and used systems. The polar approach of the less respected managers appeared to reduce potential gains, whereas the relationship focus of the respected managers increased gains. It seems as though, in Collins and Porrass' (1994, p 42) terms, the less respected managers may have been oppressed by the "Tyranny of the OR". The respected managers by contrast, had achieved a degree of liberation for themselves (and the staff they manage) and achieved better results through the "Genius of the AND". In my research, the modus operandi of respected managers suggested that they had mastered both the rational (systems) <u>and</u> social (humanism) in their management practice. However, their emphasis was clearly on relationship.

This observation, that some managers recognise the socio-technical nature of their role demonstrates that rationalism and humanism are not necessarily opposite poles of a single continuum. A similar conclusion has been reached by job redesign researchers (Varoglu & Eser, 2006), that a more constructive way forward achieves a balance between the desirable elements of rationalism while recognising the need for strong humanism (social relations) in work. *Consequently, rationalism and humanisms are not necessarily opposites.*

This is the central finding of my research - that respected managers achieve a synergy between the rational and the humanistic. However, this finding poses several questions: What is the state of mind (for want of a better expression) of those managers who are able to achieve the "Genius of the And"? What do they do and not do to transcend the polarity that to some extent is imposed upon them by senior managers in their emphasis on rational technical systems? In considering these questions it is appropriate to briefly review development of managerial theory to explain what we already know in relation to rational and humanistic management.

Systems (rational) management (in quest of standards) is heavily reported in the literature and in practice in hotels, yet, as we have seen in this research, and will reflect on shortly, emphasis on the rational is thought to diminish the need for relationships. Achieving a rational system of management was a dominant motivation for Taylor (Wood, Wallace, & Zeffane, 2001) in his Scientific Management, and required (in his view) minimising the impact of relationship. For Taylor, relationships lead to laziness ("soldiering") and inefficiency, and are to be suppressed. The enduring polarisation of rationalism and humanism may be traced to the influence of Taylor.

The influence of humanism in management think may have arise partly in opposition to the dominance of 'Taylorism' and found expression in various forms throughout the twentieth century. Through the 'human relations' movement, attention turned to social factors, groups and leadership (Mayo, 1933; Roethlisberger & Dickinson, 1939). Barnard(1938) was one of the first to seek a balance between rationalism and humanism and proposed that the only way a business could survive is if the aims and needs of both the individuals and organisation are kept in balance. Roesthlisberger and Dickinson (1943) note that people like to feel respected for the work that they do and to work in an atmosphere of approval, while being an integral part of a work-based group. Barnard's theme was further advanced by Peters and Waterman (1982) who suggested that, 'excellent' organisations do not handle decision making in a totally rational way. Rather, they advocate humanistic practices in concert with sound analysis. Finally, for Drucker (1995) and others, relationship is at the heart of management in a knowledge economy. Emphasis on the rational and technical, to the exclusion of more humanistic concerns is seen to reduce trust and autonomy to the point that organisations can only achieve minimum standards.

For Drucker (1999), if service and knowledge organisations are to function effectively and compete, it is imperative that they learn how to manage "knowledge workers", and this requires the development of what could be called 'social capital'. Unfortunately, as we have seen, in hotels the emphasis on rational management tools runs the risk that social capital may be eroded. The focus on systems, measurement and the tangible is sometimes at the expense of the intangible area of social capital.

Because the idea of 'social capital' is so important for my thesis, in the next section I explore the literature on this topic. As I present the central ideas of social capital, I work in a deductive way, referring back to my data to see whether the concepts of social capital have a parallel in the constructs developed by my research participants. If, as I have hypothesised, respected managers work by building social capital, then it is reasonable to expect that in my transcripts there will be frequent mention of the central ideas of social capital.

5.3 The theoretical framework of social capital

As a phenomenon, the concept of social capital is not new - Jane Jacobs is credited with first using the phrase in 1961 in a text titled *The Death and Life of Great American Cities* (Riddell, 1997, p 16). *In seeking a definition of social capital,* Coleman (1988), defines social capital as being the peoples' ability to associate with one another. Putman (1993, p. 117-118, 1995), *potentially the most notable cited research on social capital,* builds on Coleman's definition suggesting social capital is comprised of networks, norms, and trust which ultimately increase the organisation's potential. Finally, Fukuyama (1995), supports Putman's view, but adds that social capital has a measurable economic value when people share norms and values, economic value deriving from trust.

A change in century has bought about a change in our understanding of social capital on two levels. First there has been a flurry of research with explorations of the relationships between social capital and the emergence of psychological contracts (Ho, Rousseau, & Levesque, 2006), consideration of its impact on the level of socioeconomic power (Svendsen & Sorensen, 2006), and an exploration of the links between social capital, transaction costs and organisational outcomes (Fussell, Harrison-Rexrode, Kennan, & Hazleton, 206). Second, there have been important theoretical contributions. Cohen and Prusack (2001, p 4), for example, blended many of the above researchers' definitions to suggest that social capital consists of the stock of active connections among people: trust, mutual understanding and shared values and behaviours that bind the members of human networks and communities and make cooperative action possible. More recently Requena (2003, p. 331), presented an all-encompassing definition of social capital, describing it as a 'multidimensional concept' with the variables of trust, social relations, commitment, communication and influence. Requena's definition is underpinned by various other theories:

- Human Capital Theory - deals with relationships with an individual rather than within groups of people. (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992; Coleman, 1990; Lin, 1998; Putnam, 1993),
- Agency Theory – the structuring of economic exchange relationships between parties (Eisenhardt, 1989)
- Social Exchange Theory – the interactional processes motivated by maximizing rewards and minimizing losses. (Deluga, 1994, p. 315; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998, p. 515)
- Equity Theory – the individuals' satisfaction is a function of their perceived ratio of input to outcomes compared with the 1/0 ratio of comparison to others (Deluga, 1994, p. 315)
- Leader-Member Exchange Theory – leaders treat individuals differently (Deluga, 1994, p. 315)

- Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Theory – individuals change their behaviour depending on rewards systems within an organisation. (Deluga, 1994, p. 316).

Of all the definitions of social capital, I favour Requena's (2003) as it provides a complex but appropriate base from which to consider the components necessary to develop relationships in hotels.

5.3.1 The components necessary to build social capital

Requena (2003) suggests that social capital comprises five variables: trust, social relations, commitment, communication and influence and to differing degrees each were evident in my data. I explore the literature associated with each, incorporating participants' data as appropriate. I begin with trust.

5.3.1.1 Trust

The concept of "trust" is well documented across a range of literatures, suggesting its importance to management. It is appropriate, therefore, for the context of my research, to firstly define what trust is said to be.

In discussing Leader-Member Exchange theory, Butler (1991), suggested that interpersonal trust (trust of management) is a function of: supervisor availability, competence, consistency, discreetness, fairness, integrity, loyalty, openness, promise of fulfilment, receptivity and overall trust. Much of Butler's work has formed the foundation for further research with Whitener *et al* (1998, p 516), narrowing the variables to five categories of managerial behaviour that influence how employees perceive trustworthiness. These are: behavioural consistency; behavioural integrity; sharing and delegation of control; communication (including openness), and demonstration of concern. In 2003, Weber and Carter (2003, p. 19), added new variables and described trust as a socially constructed orientation between two people; that it is inherently a social phenomenon involving the components of: social structure, power and time, with social structure referring to the fact that people are within a role in the structure. An example of this notion is that a manager has certain skills and competencies that the staff can trust to be correct. The link to a managerial 'role' and Role Theory (Merton, 1957), is of note and is further discussed in Section 5.4.

Weber and Cater (2003), highlighted 'social structure' as important as it projects an element of trust in the environment . Hotels have well established 'organisational' structures, but less developed social structures. That is, organisationally hotels have lines of authority, committees, detailed job descriptions and systems and manuals for most activities; created for genuine reasons, not least being the need to cope with the need to maintain standards in the face of high turnover attributable to contingent labour. Structure – organisational or social allow for differing elements of control, potentially perceived as 'confidence or trust in the operation'. Structures, both organisational and social (to a lesser degree) are inherent in all hotels, in order to 'enable trust to be formed'.

Having reflected on the various definitions of trust, I explored my data to help crystallise themes about this variable in hotels, and to see how managers construed it. Here are some of the participants' constructs dealing with trust.

- Has everything under control – *that is, staff trust the manager to have everything organised.*
- Professional – *projecting confidence and trust.*
- Provides direction to staff – *staff trust the manager in being told what needs to be done. Handles unexpected situations well – staff trust the manager to know what to do when the unexpected arrives.*
- Knows their job, staff respect them (staff) – *respect is usually an outcome of trust.*
- Open to new views – *managers welcomed and trusted the staff opinion.*
- Open management style – *trust has been developed to the point that the manager and staff are open to communication etc.*

- Strong communicator – *being prepared to share as much as possible signals a trusting relationship.*
- Listens to staff – *when 'hearing' moves to 'listening' potentially more trust is developed by other the sender and receiver.*
- Strong and confident all the time – *potentially staff trust a manager who projects strength and confidence.*
- Personal – *possibly the ultimate trust recognition factor.*

Trust is evident in participants thoughts as seen in the following vignettes:

> *"... they have control, they are on top of their job. And both of these characters basically know the people to trust in their department, and they work on those people as well, and develop them. So they are able to delegate a lot of the jobs to these people, but they also know the other people in that department who will keep an eye on them as well".*

> *"... and the trust factor, that not breathing down their necks - saying "I'll give you this project to be met on this deadline", and still keeping in touch, but that is two way communication and trusting the process".*

Participants' reflect on the possibility of a lack of trust among less respected managers with constructs such as: p*refers control; does not demonstrate much loyalty; not interested in the staff.* As an example of a manager demonstrating a lack of trust a participant commented:

> *(Describing another manager) "Too erratic and too controlling. Wanted to do everything, didn't rely on or trust staff, wanted the staff to do everything, but wanted to have a finger in everything to make sure it was done."*

The development or demise of trust is an important factor in relationship development, and potentially more important when a manager is working at what Levinger and Snoek (1972) describe as the third level relationship development - *shared knowledge assuming responsibility for each other's outcomes and share of private norms* - Levinger and Snoek's work is further discussed in the following section 5.3.1.2. Respected managers set out to develop trust as part of the working relationship, while those who are less respected tend to rely on the organisational systems to clearly state where the boundaries of trust lie.

5.3.1.2 Social Relations

The second element in Requena's (2003, p. 331) definition of social capital is social relationship. That is, social capital is dependent on and expressed through the level of interaction or social relationship within organisations. In a hotel the workforce is operational twenty-four hours a day, seven days per week for fifty-two weeks of the year, often working under pressure. This operational configuration may engage 350 Equivalent Full Time Employees (mostly contingent labour) equating to 500 actual employees – a large, dynamic community. With contingent labour, this continually changing workforce makes the development of positive, professional social relationships difficult; particularly for the manager who is often one of the few fulltime members of staff.

Levinger and Snoek (1972) suggest that relationship development moves through three levels: (1) awareness without reciprocating, (2) interaction governed by social roles, and (3) shared knowledge assuming responsibility for each others outcomes and the sharing of private norms.

It is apparent that one of the key features of less respected managers is that they do not build relationships with their staff, or at least they operate at a lower level of relationship development.

Two participants describe the behaviour of "less respected" managers in terms of relationship development:

> *"He has a relationship with long-term people. Short term people, um, people come and go you know; he would not build a relationship with these people."*

> *"They would not know their staff very well, not know them at a level they should to be able to stimulate them to do their job"*

Respected managers, however, go well beyond this point to Levinger and Snoek's (1972), final level of relationship development: *a mutual relationship where shared knowledge is the norm, each assuming responsibility for each other's outcomes and the sharing of private norms*:

> *"Looking after is caring, watching, monitoring, seeing how they are going."*

> *"They are more caring and understanding and work with the staff."*

Managers who are respected expend energy and enhance the interaction, thereby elaborating the social role while at the same time achieving, if not exceeding, the hotel objectives:

> *"The rapport they have with staff, the way we treat them and the respect we give them. So they don't feel like an outsider, they're all part of a bigger family...they feel part of the team and all feel at ease with their job and they all want to help out and don't leave anyone in the lurch."*

> *"In terms of leadership they lead from the front..."*

> *"We try to listen to them to see we know what's happening to them, not just at work, but in their personal lives so we cater for any issues that may arise. We want them to be happy in their work."*

This deeper level of relationship development is highlighted in constructs such as: *open working environment; wants people to succeed; treats people with respect; delegates work to staff; provides direction to staff; caring – listening*. These managers have made a commitment to push for a meaningful working relationship:

> *"... you've really got to know them (employees), I can walk up the corridor to any of them and know little things about each of them. Probably more with some and less with others."*

The research participants' constructs suggest that social relations are developed by managers in the following ways: *Open door policy; Gets involved with staff; Does not find fault with people; Has a positive attitude toward staff; Knows their staff and how to get the best out of them; Quiet and approachable; Involves staff in decisions.*

Participant vignettes highlighting this element include:

> *" Yep, one and three (managers) are very open door, very approachable, people who will listen to their staff, who have no hesitation to be friendly, but know when to draw the line with their staff."*

> *"If you run a department whether it's part time or full time, if you want to be effective, you should know or you should have a good understanding of your staff. Like strengths, weaknesses, different backgrounds ... and then you should apply your theories appropriately."*

By contrast, the less respected managers are described in terms of constructs such as: *does not have the rapport with staff that allows delegation; not totally negative, but less positive; does not know their staff very well; abrupt; not interested in staff*

One participant described two less respected managers in this way:

> *"They don't seem to be as effective when managing their staff, they seem to have a lot of problems I would say, but a number of issues that don't' ever seem to get resolved or looked at effectively."*

Crystallisation of the data suggests that the development of social relationships is important to respected managers. For rational managers, the *development* of social relations is less important - they accept the limits on relationship placed on them by the hotels' systems, and see relationship as something that is "nice to have" provided that the operation is profitable.

5.3.1.3 Commitment

In defining social capital, Putnam (1993, 1995) and Cohen and Prusack (2001) do not use the word 'commitment' per se. Rather, the theme of commitment is implicit in their treatment of trust and connections/networks between people. However, Requena (2003) refers specifically to commitment. Commitment from a manager's perspective can be viewed in several ways: commitment to the job/hotel/industry; to employees, and to themselves. A number of participant constructs demonstrate the importance of commitment, including: *very passionate to get the job done; treats the hotel as their own business; never gives up on a challenge; drives to succeed; passion shows through naturally; supports people who are leaving; lengthy experience in the industry; drives to succeed and strong communicator*

One participant described the commitment of a manager to his staff as follows:

> *"We have got to listen to them, make them feel important because they are the people running the show."*

Commitment to the business in particular, as opposed to an individual or group of people, can also be seen as a form of trust with participants reporting that some managers were: *conscious of department costs;* and *got good results.* Supporting this concept a participant noted:

> *"Like for arguments sake, if we need to work as managers eighteen hours a day, seven days a week when the hotel is busy it's OK. For those of us who are passionate about our role we will do it because we want to do it. It's because we want the hotel to succeed and the hotel won't succeed without us."*

Conversely, managers who are less respected are seen to have lower levels of commitment as seen in the following constructs: *comes to work and goes home; less drive; does not demonstrate much loyalty; not interested in the staff.* One participant described this as follows:

> *"Whereas this particular person over here it will be more a case of 'I'm here to do a job, I do my job, my eight hours and then its' out the door' sort of thing."*

My data provides support for Requena's (2003, p. 331) notion that commitment is important in developing social capital.

5.3.1.4 Communication

The dynamic operational environment of hotels – including the continuous reconfiguration of staffing level - requires extensive communication between managers and with employees at all times. The importance of communication for respected managers is clear from these constructs: *being a strong communicator;*

listening to staff; giving positive feedback; being consultative; showing a personal (professional) interest in staff; accepting of different cultures; open to new views; open management style; strong views on how things should be done; involves staff in decisions; delegates work to staff and being very understanding.

The rich data related to this area is exemplified in the following two vignettes:

> *"... very, very good at communicating, letting staff know what they want... very approachable, very easy to get along with."*

> *"Basically, I'm just a firm believer in being consulted as a manager. Of being open to people, it doesn't matter whoever they are..."*

As with the previous social capital variables, participants drew attention to the negative pole of this construct among less respected managers: *a need to dominate staff; does not resolve issues with staff; not a great communicator; does not effectively communicate; has not built a rapport with staff and at times too blunt with feedback.* Potentially a manager could 'get away' with this lack of communication mode as the hotels' systems tell people what to do and how to do it, and with a continually changing workforce, this is energy that a manager could use elsewhere. Perceived managerial approaches in this vein are reported by one participant as follows:

> *"Not very strong communicators. Don't make staff aware of what is expected and then keep to that image and they change their image and thoughts often. Then staff aren't really 100% sure where they are and what they are doing."*

5.3.1.5 Influence

Requena (2003, p. 331) has not prioritised the variables of social capital: trust, social relations, commitment, communication and influence. However, social capital could be thought to culminate in the capacity to be influential, to lead. That is, social capital can be seen in the willingness of people to be influenced or led by those who they trust, etc. Influence is the fifth of Requena's social capital variables, and is central to my research question: how managers influence the contingent workforce. In order to be influential it is likely that respected managers harness all the previous variables.

Contingent labour is a resource used for the purposes of ensuring numeric flexibility (Conley, 1998), allowing maximisation of profit. However, the use of contingent labour is likely to make it harder for managers to influence the workforce to be available and to maintain expected standards. Under a rational management approach, influence is through the hotel's systems, in particular the employment contract. However, reliance on contractual means to influence behaviour is a weak form of influence. For many in the contingent labour market, a part-time role in a hotel is "just a job until they find a real job". When faced with this level of alienation it is understandable that managers may adopt a minimalist "rational" systems approach rather than assume the risks of trying to establish relationships with people who may not reciprocate.

However, respected managers are willing to take these risks and appear to exert greater influence as a result. Respected managers not only achieve the hotels' goals, but possibly exceed them, and in doing so may also achieve personal career and satisfaction goals – they build relationships where each party benefits. Samples of participants constructs supporting this concept include: *knows the staff and how to influence them; has a convincing ability; gives a natural sense of leadership; knows what results are required and how to achieve them; achieves good results; secure in what they are doing; takes pride in their work; never gives up on a challenge; provides direction to staff; has international hotel experience in several hotels; experienced and on top of things; very knowledgeable in their area.*

One participant was clear about how influence is demonstrated:

> *"He spends a lot of time with his staff... the management side of his job is sometimes influenced by what the situation his staff are in. But saying that, he's learnt a lot as well, he's found the balance now, but definitely he's very influential."*

Other participants have influence through their actions; through example:

> *"I know they have all those different hats and their time is being pulled in all sorts of directions, but just being there and they many not have a great deal of contact or as much as they wish they could have, but just being part of that team they are automatically influencing the people that report to them."*

> *"Because I enjoy working with people. I guess through experience that has lead me to where I am at. To be able to share the knowledge and experience to date."*

> *"It's a sweeping statement to say, but 'John just loves being here'."*

> *"... 'I really want to work in a hotel. I'm proud of where I work and I really want to service guests'."*

> *"A pat on the back goes a lot further than a two dollar or five dollar tip. If you give cash incentives – which is all nice and attractive, but to actually turn around and say to your team "thanks guys we had a busy day yesterday – you blew me away – you got everything done" you can tell from the look on their faces... they feel actually rewarded."*

Managers who are less respected have less influence on their staff. Constructs here include: *comes to work and goes home; is less respected; is distant from staff – not personal and cannot influence people.to get results.* In particular one participant said:

> *"Not as much of a strong leadership feeling to them… you don't get the feeling that they are able to deal with things or as able to drill down to the issues or the problem and actually neutralise the underlying problem. They always deal with surface issues and never actually underlying things."*

Being recognised as an influential manager is possibly one of the highest rewards and recognitions that a manager can achieve, and while this may be the result of an amalgam of the former variables, participants in this research are clear on its existence.

There is possibly no right or wrong way to manage contingent labour in international hotels, and managers do make choices as to how they will manage. However, as managers choose their mode of management, the five variables of social capital are engaged in varying ways to varying degrees of success with the most respected managers being those who inject a powerful dose of humanism into the managerial mix. They are not naïve, nor do they ignore the systems component of their work, but they place a special emphasis on social relationships, and on the construction of social capital. Those who are less respected, by contrast rely on formal systems to carry them through their working day.

5.3.2 Recent research on social capital

While the above sub-sections have reviewed the area of social capital in the context of my research (time and field), it is worthy considering this in the general context of the latest research of social capital to highlight my contribution to this field. Given the numerous research outputs with social capital as a theme, it is apparent that research in this area is expanding into all business fields from, as examples, its impact on psychological contacts (Ho, Rousseau, & Levesque, 2006), to socioeconomic power (Svendsen & Sorensen, 2006), to transactions costs and organisational outcomes (Fussell, Harrison-Rexrode, Kennan, & Hazleton, 206).

Utilising the above three themes as examples of the extent to which social capital is interwoven into the fabric of our business operations Ho, Rousseau and Leveaque (2006, p 460) notes that the informal dynamics, that is, the social capital, does not necessarily parallel the organisations formal structures (and systems) and in some circumstances is more powerful and predictive in explaining work perceptions and attitudes – event to the extent of lowering turnover. Ho, Rousseau and Leveaque make mention of managers who 'broker structural holes', that is, those who use systems to connect people, verses mangers who 'cohesively manage', that is managers who seek to connect people together via relationships. My research findings have similar findings, yet is contextualised within international hotels and expressed in terms of rational and humanistic managers.

While Svendsen and Sorensen (2006) recently set about testing Putnam's view that social capital can be traced to improved socioeconomic power and hid note find supporting evidence, they were very clear of the existence of social capital as an intangible economic factor, just as human capital is considered a tangible economic factor. In a business world focused on measurement of almost every variable, these researchers are adamant that social capital is an invisible form of capital, bur arguably involving visible effects. My research supports this position, but again in the context of international hotels.

Finally, the section of business that most general managers want to see reduced, and is extensively reported on, is that of transaction costs and organisational outcomes. Whether this in reference to hotels is engagement of labour or customer interaction, systems are usually at the forefront of control, if not considered the only way to control these. Research by Fussell Harrison-Roxrode (2006) concluded that there is a significant association between social capital and both transactional costs and organisational outcomes. They note that the existence of social capital – as a concept – has considerable explanatory power. As with the above two researchers, there is existence of this proposition in my research and findings, however, with specific knowledge added to the base of how hotel managers manager their contingent labour.

Given the themes of the past two sections it is, therefore, helpful to consider how these respected managers operate: what is the "mindset" that enables them to build relationships in a systems-oriented world?

5.4 On the mindset of those who achieve the genius of the AND.

5.4.1 Theoretical Sampling

Following the field work described in chapters 3 and 4, I read John Ralston Saul and learned that rationalism in management is similar to what I had called an "economic" mode, while humanism equates to "active" management. With these 'newly framed concepts' about how the managers operate, I returned to the hotels to obtain the reactions of these two. I spoke to three human resource directors (as representatives of senior management and the architects of contingent labour systems) and to a group of middle managers. In this I sought contrasting views of the two styles of management and was interested to explore differences between the two groups in how they construed the task of managing. In completing this exercise it is a form of data analysis triangulation.

5.4.2 Contrasting HR Directors and Line managers

> *"I think the major issues are that sometimes I believe that there is not a bigger link being drawn between the bottom line and the people that produce the bottom line. I think at this hotel, people look at the numbers and go "why that and that", rather than you go "OK, go back to where it comes from, go back to the coal face, look at who we have got, look at what we've got". You*

need to understand that one leads to the other."

(A middle managers holistic view of operations)

In taking the concept of active and economic managers back to a group of middle and senior managers (Human Resource Directors) it was noted that several middle managers had already left their positions. However, I re-interviewed three former line management participants, two of the original HR Directors with a third having replaced an original participant. The life of an HR Director is quite different to that of a practicing middle manager, with HR Directors generally having spent little time in operations and working 8.00am – 5.00pm, Monday to Friday. As such, they do not see the daily cut and thrust involved in managing contingent labour. As part of the hotel's senior management team, HR Directors also focus on financial matters such as labour and training costs – quantifiable measures, where as middle managers inevitably have to interact directly with staff.

Interestingly, none of the HR Directors believed that economic managers were prevalent (if they existed at all) in the hotel industry, as such a managerial approach 'didn't fit' the culture of a 5-star hotel. This view, however, contrasts with the views of the line managers who indicated that such an approach can, and indeed does exist, saying:

> *"If you are tough, and in this role I have to be, it's easy to operate in an economic mode."*

> *"If you want to get promoted you have to be noticed, and being seen as economic is the easiest way of doing that."*

> *"I prefer the active mode, it is much more satisfying to have a relationship where you see people grow and develop. However, in this job, at this hotel, I have to operate as an economic manager, and that's because of the budget."*

While being 'tough' is not defined, the tenor of the first quote is that there is pressure on the manager to perform, at least to minimum standards. The second quote presents the notion that being efficient in terms of organisational time and resources produces quantifiable outputs, fitting within the concept of economic rationalism (Saul, 1997), and that this is noticed by senior managers. Finally, managers know there are different ways of managing contingent labour, but at times business objectives force them to operate in the economic / rational mode.

When asked why active managers should build relationships, the HR Directors explained their behaviour in terms of personality:

> *"They (respected managers) like people."*
> *"It is just their personality."*

One HR Director pointed to a more instrumental reason for building relationships; that is, to retain staff and meet the needs of the organisation.

> *"They are encouraged to be build relationships as it helps retain staff and the future needs of the organisation."*

While line managers do not necessarily disagree with the above, they offer additional and more intrinsic reasons as to why they want to build relationships and support staff.

Participants suggest that the benefits of building relationships are internal not external, as demonstrated in the following vignettes:

> *"The satisfaction (of doing a good job) and success of the team."*

> *"A feeling of satisfaction... staff seen as equals."*

> *"There are two reasons I get out of bed can come to work in the morning cos they are equally important and that's really personal: my clients and my events..."*

"There is more satisfaction in relationships when you see people grow and develop."

"My level of passion for the job, ambition, and I want to do the best job I can."

"I appreciate staff – it's the type of person I am... I won't have people think my staff are inferior."

HR Directors agreed there were benefits to managers in building relationships, but often with a distinct organisational objective (profit) bias:

"Satisfaction in the social sense and in achievement."

"People become family and friends but also staff retention."

"Their departments would be efficient and effective and make money."

All managers noted that building relationships was important (including one self-confessed economic manager), but there are differences between HR Directors and managers in their beliefs about how and why this should occur. For the most part, HR Directors see relationship building as a means to an end; as a way of reducing labour turnover, maintain continuity and thereby flowing through to business results. By contrast middle managers (at least those who are respected) see relationship building as an end in itself. They believe that the results will follow if there is a strong foundation of social capital. They are concerned that more senior managers do not make the link between having strong relationships and strong organisational performance:

"You need to understand that one (social capital*) leads to the other* (measurable business results*)."*

In summary, two factors may predispose a manager to choose between economic rationalism and humanism: the environment (and its systems) that manager's work within and the manager's personal view. Respected managers take pride in their job and staff. Such managers also appear to believe that building relationships can be achieved at the same time as achieving hotel objectives – they have mastered systems and humanism.

5.4.3. Gender-based differences.

> *"If you are tough, and in this role I have to be, it's easy to operate in an economic mode."*

Being tough may be considered a male trait, and if 'being tough' is related to 'promotion' this links to the anecdotal evidence that there are more male senior hotel managers than females. The majority of middle managers in the case study hotels were female (and predominated in the list of "more respected" managers), suggesting that gender may be related to decisions to embrace rational management approaches and/or to build relationships. Polster (1973, p. 101) discusses the concept of building connections between colleagues and alludes to possible gender biases, while Tannen (1993, p. 24) suggests that women are not as focused as men on achieving status and goals, but are concerned more with connection and relationship. In progressing this theme further, Bass (1999), and Kark (2004), point to gender related differences in management style and that females may be more 'transformational' than males. Participants' agree with this, commenting:

> *"I think males and females do react differently in the workplace. I think it is more personal. It tends to be more personal for females."*

> *"Gender is a big thing you know; I've only really come to appreciate that myself in the last twelve months or so, to be*

honest… How females are perceived in the workplace as opposed to males are viewed. How we perform and what we have to do to get this, and for males is usually different."

Yukl (1989, p. 204), defines transformational management (and managers) as "the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organisation members and building commitment for the organisation's mission or objectives." Seltzer and Bass (1990), add to Yukl's definition suggesting that managers induce staff to transcend their own self interest for the sake of the organisation. In this respect, the focus of respected managers in the case study hotels appears to be on developing relationships with staff and dealing with the 'here and now parts of their lives'. For these managers, achievement of the hotels objectives is implicitly accepted, but is not at the expense of relationship-building. Further, the choice by these managers to build relationships is quite deeply personal: "they become family":

"I think you see more of the relationship management, but it is a model system driven: you know the relationships, mentoring, unofficial mentoring type of relationship. I'm seeing the modern manager is a leader, not a manager and that's where you build relationships, you get to know them, they become family… "

And another participant:

"I think a lot of it's personal to me. My staff are very personal to me and I've said this to my General Manager, I've said you can take this any way you like – 'I don't get out of bed in the morning to please you, whatever, you might think of that, that's it'."

While there is the possibility that humanism in management may be seen as a female trait and rationalism as a male trait, I found no compelling evidence to suggest that these preferences were gender-based. Rather both male and female participants shared their preference for humanism as a preferred approach, even those who stated they were presently rational / economic managers.

5.5 The costs of developing relationships – a humanistic approach

> *"I'm getting worn out as I want to keep these people, I'm sorry, I'm tired, I hate that aspect of it."*

One further theme is that the choice to be humanistic is not without personal risks for the managers. Systems are designed to reduce business risk and to assist in ensuring standards are met in the most efficient manner. If systems are followed, managers can operate safely, and need to take very little personal 'risk' in executing their role. The extensive use of systems in hotels means that there is little room for managerial autonomy or creativity. However, humanism in management encourages managerial (and employee) autonomy. As managers develop relationships and encourage staff autonomy, so their activities can be opposed to the requirements of rational systems, and as such can involve personal risk as they bend, use and ignore the rules. Thus, humanistic managers working within a rationalistic environment may experience stress and burnout, with resignation a possibility.

Managers' point out that building relationships is high stress as they develop relationships only to have those people leave, and then have to start the process all over again with new staff.

> *"The stress is higher... burnout and people leaving."*

> *"It's physically draining and if affects your family life."*

> *"Being responsible for the team the size I have there is a cost factor of losing people but it is a personal factor with me. I'm*

getting worn out as I want to keep these people, I'm sorry, I'm tired, I hate that aspect of it."

An awareness of these costs means that there are strong pressures on managers to adopt rational approaches in their management practice; to minimise the costs by maintaining distance between themselves and their staff:

> *"There is a fine line between staff and management and you can be making a rod for your own back."*

> *"He has a relationship with long-term people. Short term people, um, people come and go you know; he would not build a relationship with these people."*

One male, self-elected rational manager – although insisting that he preferred to build relationships, made the following comments regarding the costs associated with doing so.

> *"It's easier to be economic than active... self imposed stress and not adhering to budgets (*by being too "active"*) equals losing your job."* and later commented:

> *"Active management* (in the sense of building relationships*) is a luxury as long as you are making money."*

Two HR Directors felt that respected managers were 'high maintenance', as they challenged and queried systems and processes. One of the managers confirmed this:

> *"I'm always in the HR Directors face trying to find solutions."*

The third HR Director was more positive stating:

"Yes, they are more challenging to support, but it's a nice way to be challenged. They create energy in the system and the hotel needs to think differently. They take ownership."

Thus, both the managers and the HR Directors are clear about the risks associated with humanism in a rational environment. Apart from burn-out and stress, managers risk their own promotional prospects as they "buck the system", and those who don't fit, leave.

The departure of managerial staff through stress and burnout depletes the organisation's social capital and is a cost at three levels – operational, managerial and personal. While operative staff can be replaced at short notice and bought up to speed through systemic training with operation manuals, procedures and codes, the loss of a manager is more significant. Managers develop tacit business knowledge over a period of time, and this knowledge is almost irreplaceable when they leave. Respected managers also develop relationships with staff, with the potential to greatly disrupt the organisation's social capital on their departure. Replacing managers is costly and challenging (Buick & Thomas, 2001; H. Cohen & Neilson, 1998; D'Annunzio-Green, 1997; Dermody & Holloway, 1998; Y Guerrier & Lockwood, 1990).

Several months after having completed my field work and most analysis, I checked the employment status of the seven managers who participated in phase two of this research. Five of the managers were no longer employed with the case study hotels. One manager had left the industry, one left to become a hospitality training adviser, and three had moved to other hotels. In my opinion the departed managers' emphasised humanism in their management style. The self-styled rational manager was one of the two remaining. Of the three original HR Directors, two remain, the third returning to a hospitality HR Director position in Australia.

This evidence is, of course purely circumstantial, but does pose a paradox for hotel management: in the pursuit of rational methods to manage risk, including the use of contingent labour, the biggest risk to hotels is the loss of the very people who can achieve expected results. These are managers who know and use the hotel's systems, *and* build strong relationships with their staff. The paradox is deeper because, for the most part, the guests of 5-star hotels do not usually wish to part of a "system". They seek, and hotels promote, a high quality, intangible experience based on special relationships with the hotel staff. The very people who are adept at creating these relationships – humanistic managers – may be at greater risk of leaving. By promoting the casualisation of labour and the systems that are inevitably part and parcel of managing a contingent labour pool, hotel management are at risk of losing their greatest asset – managers with a humanistic mind-set.

5.6 Contribution to the body of theoretical knowledge

Remeyi *et el* (2003) consider a fundamental requirement of a PhD is to make a contribution to the Body of Theoretical Knowledge and in Section 5.1 of this Chapter I presented my theory of how middle managers manage and influence contingent labour. The mark of such a contribution is said to come in two forms: (1) does it produce some new and interesting ideas, and (2) do the findings have a degree of general applicability (Remeyi, Money, Price, & Bannister, 2003, p 109). I address each of these issues in this section while at the same time highlighting the impact they have on the hotel industry. I begin with new and interesting thoughts.

5.6.1 New and interesting ideas – the theory

> **Managing contingent labour: the theory**
>
> Middle managers in five-star hotels experience pressure to choose between a rational, systems-oriented approach to managing contingent labour (with little room for social relationship), and a humanistic approach where managers place relationships ahead of business objectives. Humanistic or active managers believe that business objectives will ultimately be met as a result of strong relationships. Humanistic managers, however, manage within an environment strongly based on rationalism which in general suppresses the development of relationships. While managers experience this "polarity" of managerial dimensions (that is, one can manage in either a rationalistic *or* humanistic manner), the two are not necessarily polar opposites. In my field work, I found that respected managers do both: they have mastered the technical/systems component of their work, <u>and</u> married this with a focus on developing relationships. Their approach is underpinned by a set of values about relationships – that people come first. These managers believe that systems tend to look after themselves once there is a strong level of 'social capital' (they refer to "trust") within the workforce. However, while 'humanistic' managers have the potential to exceed hotel objectives, the approach is stressful for managers operating in a rationalistic environment. Adopting a rational management approach appears to provide less risk and personal stress.

The central "finding" from my research is that some managers are able to transcend the rationalism-humanism polarity. Furthermore, they appear to do so through a set of values about people – that people come first. This simple precept - putting relationships first appears to make good business sense, as these managers meet (and perhaps exceed) the business expectations of their senior managers. I do not know from this research precisely how or why a humanistic approach has this effect of jointly optimising both the technical systems and the social systems. One possible mechanism is that the process of winning the goodwill of staff in turn increases the likelihood that they will make the technical systems function effectively. In other words, by putting people first, there is less need to emphasise systems. Conversely, among those who emphasise systems, the perception may be created among staff that they are not valued, and they then become less committed. As their commitment declines, so necessary systems are not tended or complied with which means more aggressive rationalistic management by the manager, thereby aggravating the situation.

While this research goes some way towards understanding the "genius of the AND", several questions remain unanswered, among them:

1. Whether knowledge organisations that emphasise humanism also experience stronger business results. There are some hints in this research that humanistically oriented managers achieve better results, but no definitive conclusions
2. What the specific mechanisms are that yield the "genius of the AND", with respect to the rationalism-humanism "polarity". Again there are hints from this work – that respect for staff in turn may yield improvements in systems as staff take more ownership of their work. However these are only hints, and more research is needed, perhaps of a more deductive and quantitative nature.

5.6.2 A new theory... so what?

During my research, I posed an open question to a senior manager, suggesting that we may not fully understand how middle managers manage contingent labour. I received a heated response that took me by surprise:

> *"I don't believe it! I think the problem is that people look for these strange, over creative and dynamic things they need to*

do in order to be more effective, which is totally unnecessary. Of course that is my personal opinion. Because at the end of the day, if you got down to basics and do some of the things that we need to do, we have that recognition, we have that sensitivity and empathy to people, that is what people are looking for...it is a formula that has never failed... You recognise people, provide them with the inputs that they need to perform, provide them with basic data the way you want them to meet their goals, provide them with achievable targets and keep going along with them providing that support. It is as simple a formula as that. However over simplistic that sounds I don't think there is any need to re-coin fancy strategies for HR Management. You get down to those basics then it works."

I was taken aback by his answer, and proceeded to justify the importance of my research. Instead of taking a grounded theory approach: ("that's interesting, I wonder what's going on here?") I became defensive. Had I been able to stand aside from his emotional response, I might have reached the central conclusions of my thesis much more expeditiously because, on one level he is saying that effective managers build relationships: "It is as simple a formula as that." However, on another level in describing the actions of managers as "formulaic", he is expressing the paradox that lies at the heart of my thesis – the tension between rationalism and humanism.

Certainly, at one level what I have found is simple and common-sense. That is, effective managers build relationships. However, as most five-star hotels have found, common-sense is quite uncommon. In the push to embrace contingent labour, and in developing systems and "formulae" to cope with the turnover and reduced commitment of casual staff, hotels have made it difficult for their managers to build relationships. In an attempt to overcome the need for social capital, they have created the conditions for rationalism and humanism to be construed as a polarity. And in the process, only the courageous and committed engage in the risky business of building relationships.

It is interesting to note that this senior manager is a staff manager, focussed on the numbers, and a proponent of rational management approaches, not unlike the HR Directors in phase 2 of the research. I suspect that he was unable to see quite how complex and difficult the task of building relationships is in a rationally-focussed world.

For the hotel industry, the practical significance of this research lies in the paradox that it presents:

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<tr><th colspan="2">The Paradox...</th></tr>
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While international hotels are built to provide a luxurious environment for their guests, the quality of their experience depends primarily on the quality of their relationship with staff.
Because of variability in demand, hotels cannot be profitable without contingent labour.
However, with contingent labour it is hard for them to maintain consistent staff performance.
To ensure consistent staff performance hotels invest heavily in rational management systems.

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Five star hotel guests generally do not want to feel that they are part of a 'system', they seek both tangible and intangible service experiences
Managers sensitive to guest needs and organisational goals believe that the most productive way of achieving this is for them (the managers) to build strong relationships with the staff.
The beneficial effect of building relationships with staff assumes many systems issues will take care of themselves. This is not to suggest that systems be reduced or removed.
Emphasis on systems risks eroding social capital.

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<tr>
<td colspan="2">Pushing past the paradox

The challenge for senior managers in modern hotels is to realise that rational systems and strong social relationships are not necessarily opposed. However,

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their placing of a priority on rational systems in managing contingent labour may have cast the two into mutual opposition.

- Joint optimisation of technical systems and social relationships requires awareness that systems are intended to serve people rather than people serving systems. Without this insight, many middle managers in hotels will continue to find themselves in stressful situations which may ultimately lead to their resignation.
- The hotel industry cannot afford to lose the social capital represented by the loss of their tacit knowledge.

The academic significance of my research lies within the field of social capital. While there has been a flowering of research exploring the importance of social capital, there has been little work exploring the relationship between the humanistic ideas that underpin the concept of social capital and the dominant rational, systems-oriented models of management. Indeed this research shows how we tend to think of rational and humanistic management in oppositional terms. The greatest significance of the research lies in illustrating some of the ways in which this rational-humanistic polarity might be overcome and a 'balance' achieved between the two – some of the ways in which organisations might achieve the "genius of the AND".

5.6.3 A degree of general applicability

The second broad aim of a PhD in adding to the body of theoretical knowledge (Remeyi, Money, Price, & Bannister, 2003), is that the research results should be generally applicable. This requirement creates some special problems for grounded theory. By its very nature, case-based, inductive research using grounded theory makes few claims to generality. The intent is to develop theory to account for local conditions and local phenomena. Glaser disavows the importance of generality in grounded theory, while proposing that generalisation of a theory is ensured by engaging in theoretical sampling determined by the social process under investigation rather than the setting.

In my research I contained all my field work within the three case study hotels. Accordingly I make few claims for the generality of my results. Nevertheless, I believe there is a good case for believing that the substance of this theory (that a rationalism – humanism polarity can be transcended by a focus on relationship) can generalise to other settings.

5.6.4 Limitations of this research and future research opportunities.

Having acknowledged the general applicability of the research, there are some research limitations to discuss and signals for further research opportunities.

As mentioned in Chapter Three, my research paradigm is that of a social constructionist, and as such, it is important to understand that biases and personal views are an integral part of the research, although I have taken all practicable steps to minimise such effects. However, as the vignette described in 5.6.2 exemplifies, whenever the researcher is the primary instrument of the research, there is no objective standard of truth or correctness in the work. Readers of this research may well form different opinions. However, the test of the value of this research has to be whether it poses new and fruitful grounds for future understanding.

Appendix 01 Phase One Open Coding of interviews

During open coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) the number of codes grows quickly in light of the amount of data to analyse and in the case of the first Phase of analysis, transcripts yielded 110 codes. I allowed code development to 'run freely from the data' while contrasting and comparing potential codes to already developed codes.

As there was a considerable amount of data to review over a length of time, it was inevitable that some codes would be closely related.

Open Coding stage

Open Code Number	Code Name	Code Description
1	"A" hotel specific issue	Factors that is specific to some hotels only.
2	Acknowledging contingent labour	The frustration that some managers experience regards not having time to positively deal with and acknowledge contingent labour.
3	Available talent	The view that there is staff with the right talent to work in the industry.
4	Being responsive	Depending on the nature of the organisation (independent or chain) makes a difference when being responsive to employees. The more independent the more responsive.
5	Benefits of contingent labour to a hotel	Where managers see the using contingent labour is beneficial to the hotel and their managerial advantage, yet not necessarily to the advantage of the worker.
6	Benefits of full timers	Where a manager feels that full time staff are

		beneficial, e.g. in supporting the part-time staff and with training etc.
7	'Between hotel' contingent labour	When employees move between hotels, either domestically or internationally – not staff entering the hotel from a previous non hotel position.
8	Building relationships	How managers try to manage the contingent labour by building relationships with them.
9	Business demands	Where the business levels demand that staff be available when needed, therefore assisting with managing costs.
10	Career opportunities	Where managers see opportunities for contingent labour to gain/start a career in hotels.
11	Challenges managers face	Some of the issues that managers have to deal with and could be frustrating for them.
12	Contingent labour positions in hotels	The types of positions in hotels that are mainly contingent
13	Commitment to the industry	Some managers see hotels as a career and make a definite commitment to the job and industry.
14	Communication	Managers see that effective communication is important as part of the working relationship.
15	Confident senior managers	Senior Managers who project great confidence in their managerial ability.
16	Contingent Labour	The importance of part-timers and how they come and go
17	Contractual issues	Where contracts have to be adhered to, e.g. no more than X hours per week, or no less than 4 shifts each 2 weeks etc. Generally these are factors out of the control of a manager.
18	Cultural difference that affect management	Where the different cultures mean that manages have to manage differently.

19	Cultural similarities	Highlights countries that have similar employment views to New Zealand or other countries that have similar views, e.g. Canada and USA.
20	Demographics of contingent labour	Describing the contingent labour market in hotels in terms of who they are, e.g. students, people on working holidays.
21	Different department requirements	All departments are different and require different training, management etc.
22	Disadvantage of using contingent labour	Where hotels feel that there is a challenge in using the contingent labour market.
23	Education and industry mismatch	Issues that hotels have with education not providing what hotels need - of the wrong perception being given to students about career positions on graduating.
24	Employee retention issues	The various frustrations of managers regards training staff
25	Employee turnover issues	Managers view that turnover is normal and revolves round certain seasonal and university factors.
26	Employees view on contingent labour use	Employees are aware that you can come and go from a job without causing much concern to the hotel.
27	External regulations of contingent labour use	Where other agencies place restrictions of the use of contingent labour e.g. student visas only allow 20 hours working per week.
28	Factors managers can't control	Some of the areas that managers do not have control over, e.g. finances.
29	Future issues for the industry	Senior managers views on the future staffing issues of the industry globally.
30	Gaining respect	How some managers (by their actions) gain respect from their staff.

31	Getting the right staff	Being clear about what they will do to ensure that they get the right staff to work in the hotel, e.g. interviews.
32	Hard to find staff	When managers are challenged to find good staff – and at times any staff.
33	High contingent labour areas	Housekeeping and banqueting is a high contingent labour area.
34	Hotel-employee 'fit'	Where a hotel wants to make sure that the employee fits the hotel job and the hotel in general, e.g. the employee can cope with a 5-star standard. A positive 'fit' is generally someone who has a hospitality background.
35	How managers view senior management	Quite often in terms of frustration at their senior management, e.g. not assisting supporting increased training etc.
36	Hotel are not a career	The view (by some managers) that hotel work is not seen as a career - workers use it to only earn money while on their way to somewhere else or another career.
37	How managers view senior staff	How managers see their managers, often frustrated at their lack of understanding of the work that they do
38	Industry has grown	Where managers are highlighting that the industry has grown and that this may affect the availability of contingent labour.
39	Industry image	The image that the industry projects to potential staff.
40	Influencing staff	Where a manager believes that by their own approach and actions they influence others
41	International contingent labour in New Zealand vs domestic contingent labour	Where there is a noticeable difference in the way international/migrants etc approach the job than domestic contingent labour.

42	International student labour market	There appears to be an emphasis on international students working in hotels, e.g. restaurants and kitchens – many who are completing degrees in hospitality.
43	It's personal	For some managers the job and the people are very personal.
44	Job recognition	Some hotels recognise the job as different to other job and make allowances for this in terms of recognition.
45	Job security	Where employees are looking for a secure job – not a part-time job.
46	Lifestyle	A managers perception of the industry as a 24/7/365 business and is a lifestyle you adopt.
47	Listening to people	As part of building relationships, listening to staff appears a key factor, hearing their problems etc.
48	Location affects contingent labour use	The location of the hotel can affect the use of contingent labour, i.e. Auckland is seen to have a readily available student population.
49	Looking after people	Managers see that the people working for them are very important and that they need looking after.
50	Looking for solutions	Partly a cry for help. Managers want solutions to the issues regards contingent labour, but sometimes are left on their own to find them.
51	Love of the job	Where managers have a real love for the job.
52	Low skill positions	Positions that managers believe are low skilled and are easy for people to start in.
53	Management comradeship	How managers often get together as support for each other.

54	Management style changes	When a manager has had to adjust their management style due to being in a different country etc and then how that affects the employees.
55	Managers are key staff	Where senior managers see that middle managers are key staff.
56	Managers are transient	Where managers themselves are transient within the industry.
57	Managers being supported	Where the hotel supports managers in different ways that enables manager to get on with their job.
58	Managers experience in the industry	That managers have varied 'experience' in the industry – usually quite a few years.
59	Managers perception of the workforce	How managers see the workforce that they have to manage
60	Managers personal characteristics	What managers see as the positive characteristics of other managers – what makes them successful.
61	Managers personal style	Why some managers take certain actions regards managing their staff, e.g. wanting to get to know them as an individual.
62	Manager vs hotel view	Where a manager has a different view on how things should be done compared to the hotel company.
63	Manager wanting recognition	Managers often want recognition for the job that they do, they believe that they work hard and it is often not noticed.
64	Managers work hard	Descriptions of how managers believe that they work hard.
65	Managing contingent labour	How managers try to manage contingent labour in various ways.

66	Managing costs	Where managers see the need to manage costs and are using contingent labour to achieve this.
67	Managing the student contingent labour market	It appears that at times this market is 'interesting to manage' due to their study requirements and them wanting to only work certain hours. Is the reverse of the employer being in control of the hours worked.
68	Managing turnover issues	Strategies that managers have in place to manager any turnover, e.g. cross training etc.
69	Mix of experience	At times it is not necessary to have worked in a hotel environment, but a hospitality background is always good to have.
70	Motivating staff	How managers motivate staff (in particular) contingent labour.
71	Owners impact on managers	Where hotels are owned off shore (Asia etc) often owners do not take cultural differences into account.
72	Passion for the industry	People who are really excited about working in the industry and that managers like to be with these people or as managers they are passionate about the job.
73	People need managing	The view that people need managing, people have to know what the rules are.
74	perception of the workforce	How managers 'personally' view their workforce e.g. how important contingent labour is to them
75	Perception of the job	How people (managers and employees) perceive jobs in hotels.
76	Personal management style	Where the style of management is very personal.
77	Pride in a team	Where a manager is proud of their team and takes great pride in what they do.

78	Qualified staff	Where managers find it difficult to get qualified staff – contingent labour.
79	Recognition for the work involved	That some hotels recognise hotel work different to managing in other sectors
80	Reducing turnover	Strategies that managers have developed to reduce employee turnover, e.g. making people feel comfortable at work, respecting employees etc
81	Relationship to other industries	How managers feel the hotel industry is different to other industries.
82	Retention issues	Where managers see retention possibilities but may note be able to do anything about it. Different to No. 32.
83	Seasonality	Highlights the seasonal nature of the industry and then how this affects staffing levels.
84	Senior management perspective of the workforce	How senior managers perceive their workforce and how they indirectly manage them.
85	Senior managers view on middle managers	What senior managers think middle managers should be doing and how they should be acting.
86	Setting expectations for employees	Where a hotel is very clear on the expectations that they have of staff and what they will do for staff.
87	Some managers achieve more than others	Senior managers' views on why some managers achieve better results than others.
88	Staff attitude	When managers notice a positive or negative attitude from staff.
89	Staff recognition	Managers believe that staff need to be recognised for what they do.
90	Staff 'working the rules'	When staff use the 'systems' to their advantage, e.g. sick days.
91	Standards	The standards that hotels want in their employees

92	Stress on managers	How managers are placed under a lot of stress in undertaking their job - self imposed or managerial imposed.
93	Student labour market	Issues posed by using students as part of contingent labour.
94	Systems within the hotel to maintain standards	Where systems are used to ensure that standards are maintained.
95	The reasons for having managers	Why some managers believe they exist.
96	Transient Managers	Managers also come and go
97	Transient within the hotel industry	An emphasis on people working in the industry while they are travelling round the world. Hotels offer position that they can slot into.
98	Turnover frustration	When managers are frustrated by turnover.
99	Understanding individual staff	Managers trying to understand individual staff so that they can get the best out of them.
100	Understanding staff	Understanding that staff are all unique
101	What managers want to see in staff	What mangers like to see when potential contingent labour applicants come in for a job.
102	What staff think of managers	A manager's view of what staff think about them.
103	Why hotels use contingent labour	The reasons managers understand for using contingent labour in a hotel environment.
104	Why people leave hotels	The various reasons why some people leave hotels
105	Why people leave the 'industry'	Reasons why managers believe people leave the hotel industry and not just shift to other hotels.
106	Why people want to work in hotels	Managers' view that people see the glamour side of hotels and this is why they want to work in them.

107	Why some cultures work in hotels	Many countries (but not New Zealand) offer a tipping system therefore; contingent labour can make more money if they are good. New Zealand doesn't focus on tips, rather a wage which may lead to decision of staying in the job or leaving.
108	Why students work in hotels	Why students, international or domestic, want to work in hotels, e.g. experience and the emphasis on studying hospitality.
119	Why people want to work in 'certain' hotels	Some people select certain hotels to work in, even on a contingent labour basis, e.g. a 5-star vs a lower star rated hotel.
110	Why work in hotels	The raft of general reasons for working in hotels

Appendix 02 Phase One Axial Coding

Axial Code; Category Number	Category Name	Open Codes Names	Category Theme
1	Keys to successfully managing contingent labour	• Building relationships • Communication • Understanding staff • Staff recognition • Pride • Personal management style • Motivating staff • Manager personal characteristics • Looking after people • Listening to people • It's personal • Influencing staff • Managers experience in the industry • Managers being supported • Some manager achieve more than others • Management comradeship • Gaining respect • Confident senior managers	Ways in which managers interact with their contingent labour market that potentially leads to a successful (positive) working relationship.

2	Uncontrollable factors	• Business demands • Location affecting contingent labour use • Systems • Seasonality • Factors managers can't control • External regulations of contingent labour use • Contractual issues	Factors that managers acknowledge are outside their control, yet affect their management of contingent labour.
3	Workforce demographics	• Demographics of the contingent labour workforce • Student labour market • Why students work in hotels • International vs domestic contingent labour market • International student labour market • Managing the student contingent labour market • Why certain cultures work in hotels • Hotel-employee 'fit'	The contingent labour workforce is varied with people working in hotels for different reasons. There is a reliance on students to fill the majority of positions, yet this its-self can create issues given their other commitments.
4	Contingent labour usage areas	• High contingent labour areas • Different department requirements • Contingent labour	The clear understanding that there are certain departments in hotels that use more

		positions in hotels • Disadvantage of using contingent labour	contingent labour than others –for various reasons. It also acknowledges that there are disadvantages to the use of contingent labour.
5	Positive reasons for working in hotels	• Why people want to work in hotels • What managers want in employees • Low skill positions	Reasons why many people want to work in the hotel industry and what managers look for when engaging these people.
6	Transient labour force	• Transient within the hotel industry • Transient managers • Between hotel contingent labour	The hotel workforce is transient - both managers and operative staffing, including contingent labour.
7	Maintaining standards	• Setting expectations for employees • Qualified people • Available talent • Standards • Getting the right staff • Hard to find staff • Future issues for the industry	Maintenance of standards is critical at 5 -star level, therefore identifying and engaging the right people to work - contingent labour of fulltime, is very important.
8	Managers passion for the industry	• Lifestyle • Commitment to the industry	For some managers working in hotels is more than a career –

		• Passion for the industry • Love the job	they are passionate about the job and are very strongly committed to the industry.
9	Hotel careers	• Career opportunities • Education – industry mismatch	Hotels can be a career, therefore often staff will move to different positions to gain experience.
10	Managing different cultures	• Cultural similarities • Cultural difference that affect management	The demographics of the workforce is very multicultural which poses challenges for some managers.
11	Managing contingent labour	• Managing contingent labour • Managers perception of the workforce • People need managing	Managing contingent labour is different to managing fulltime staff, therefore while employees need support the managers also needs to be clear on what they need from them.
12	Hotel industry image	• Industry image • Perception of the job • Staff attitude • Relationships to other industries	The hotels industry is seen as different having both a negative and positive image.
13	Reasons for using contingent labour	• Why use contingent labour • Contingent labour • Benefits of contingent	While fulltime staff have their benefits, managers are clear on the benefits of part-

		labour to a hotel • Benefits of full-time labour	time staff.
14	Hotels are not seen as a career option	• Hotels are not a career	Those who do not see the hotel industry as a career are 'obvious' by their attitude and approach.
15	Why people leave hotel jobs	• Why people leave the industry	Many people leave hotel jobs as they know them to be temporary and it suites their needs for that point in time.
16	Managing labour costs	• Managing costs	Fundamentally contingent labour is used as a means of managing costs – of which labour is the biggest factor.
17	Turnover issues	• Employee retention issues • Reducing turnover • Retention strategies • Managing turnover issues • Turnover frustrations	Managers understand that turnover happens, but also their role in keeping it to a minimum, a paradox of sorts. Managers use various techniques to maintain the equilibrium but do fid the task frustrating.
18	Managers general	• The reasons for	Managers have

	views on factors affecting their role	managers • Mangers are key staff • Acknowledging contingent labour • Challenges managers face • Recognition for the work involved • Manager work hard • Managers wanting recognition • Being responsive • Stress on managers • Owner impact on managers • Job recognition • Managers vs hotel view • How managers view senior managers • Senior managers views of middle managers • Senior managers perceptions of the workforce	various views that are linked indirectly to the management of contingent labour. These views span how they feel their job (and its stress) is not recognised as much as it should be, yet they believe they are a central part of the hotel operation.
19	Changing management styles	• Management style change	
20	A specific hotel issue	• A specific hotel issue	At times hotels have one-off issues that affect staff and consequently how the

			manager manages situations.
21	Job security	• Job security	While the business environment has moved to the use of contingent labour, some managers would like to see some staff have more job security.
22	Looking for solutions	• Looking for solutions	Solutions to challenges can often take time to develop, yet time for such evaluation is often not something that the manager has.
23	Employees views on contingent labour use	• Employees views on contingent labour use	Employees are aware of the contingent nature of their job and at times present an attitude that managers see as negative.
24	What staff think of managers	• What staff think of managers	Managers are interested in hearing from staff – contingent labour and full time.
25	Industry has grown	• Industry has grown	Times have changed and the industry has grown – all affecting contingent labour

			use.
26	Staff 'working' the rules	• Staff 'working' the rules	Staff get to know the contractual rules and often play them.
27	Mix of experience	• Mix of experience	Experience in terms of culture and working environment has added positively to the hotel workforce

Appendix 03 Participant Personal Constructs

This appendix shares how participant's personal constructs were developed.

1. Participants were asked to think of six different managers (elements) that matched a given description that would then be used during the interview as part of repertory grid. The element descriptions are show in Appendix 3(a).

2. Throughout the interview participants were given various combinations of three elements and asked to pair and contrast three elements within a given qualifying statement. The qualifying statements are listed in Appendix 3(b).

3. How all managers paired and contrasted elements is listed in Appendix 3(c).

4. The detail of personal construct development is best explained by the following example – Appendix 3(d). Here participant 1 is provided with the triad of Elements numbers 1, 2 and 3. The participant compared Elements 1 and 3 and contrasts Element 2.

   Developed personal constructs under Pole 1 (paired Elements) are listed as 1.1.1 – 1.1.9 and 3.1.1-3.1.8. Personal constructs under Pole 2 (contrasted) are listed as 2.1.1 – 2.1.8.

   At times there were common constructs for the paired elements, e.g. 1.1.1 and 3.1.2. However, I also noted participant's personal constructs as they related to one Element of the paired set two. The contrasting pole of personal constructs is also noted.

   The various qualifying questions spanned a range of themes developed from Phase One and, in addition to subsequent laddering, in their totality have provided a holistic understanding of how managers manage contingent labour given their demands, constraints and choices.

5. The full listing of developed personal constructs is shown in Appendix 3(e).

   The representation of personal constructs to Elements is for simplification of the overall data. The example provided in 4 above can be replicated by bringing together the various personal constructs as shown in Appendix 3(c).

Appendix 3(a)   Elements

Element No.	Element Description
1	Manager has a high contingent workforce; positively copes and influences them.
2	Manager has a high contingent workforce: negatively copes and influences them.
3	Manager has a low contingent workforce, positively copes and influences them
4	Manager has a low contingent workforce, yet does not seem to positively cope with and influence them
5	Manager has a high contingent workforce but they themselves are from a different culture from the majority of their workforce
6	A relatively new manager, managing a high contingent workforce
7	Participant 7 - themselves

Appendix 3(b) Qualifying statements

Question Number / Element	Question
1 a 1, 2, 3	Can you please tell me in which way two of these people are different from the third ***in terms of managerial style?*** What is the managerial style of the group of two managers? How would you describe the other by contrast?
1 b 3, 4, 5	Can you please tell me in which way two of these people are different from the third in ***terms of managerial style?*** What is the managerial style of the group of two managers? How would you describe the other by contrast?
2 1, 6, 2	Can you please tell me which two managers are the ***most successful in terms of achieving the hotels objectives***, i.e. budgets and service standards Why do you feel they are successful? How would you describe the other by contrast?
3 7, 5, 1	Can you please tell me which two managers have a ***similar managerial style and contrast a third?*** (note the participant themselves was included in this triad, i.e. No. 7) Why do you think your style is different to the one contrasted?
4 2, 6, 7	Can you tell me which two managers are different from the third in term of being the ***most influential on their staff?*** Why do you think this is so? How would describe the other by contrast?
5 1, 5, 6	Can you please tell me which tow managers are different from the third in terms of ***managing the cultural aspects of staff?*** Why is there a different? How would you describe the other by contrast?
6 1, 2, 3	Can you please tell me which two managers are different from the third in terms of ***coping with the job when they have a high staff turnover?*** What does the group of two have in common? How would you describe the other by contrast?

Appendix 3(c) Paired and contrasted elements

Participant Number	Triad selected (Elements)	Question No.	Pole 1 (Similar)	Pole 2 (Contrast)
1	1 2 3	1 a	1 3	2
	3 4 5	1 b (but with different triad)	3 5	4
	1 2 6	2	1 6	2
	1 7 5	3	1 5	7
	2 6 7	4	6 7	2
	1 5 6	5	1 5	6
	1 2 3	6	1 3	2
2	1 2 3	1 a	1 3	2
	3 4 5	1 b (but with different triad)	4 5	3
	1 2 6	2	1 2	6
	1 5 7	3	1 2	6
	2 6 7	4	2 7	6
	1 5 6	5	5 6	1
	1 2 3	6	1 3	2
3	1 2 3	1 a	1 3	2
	3 4 5	1 b (but with different triad)	Did not ask	
	1 2 6	2	1 6	2
	1 7 5	3	1 7	5
	2 6 7	4	6 7	2
	1 5 6	5	1 6	5
	1 2 3	6	1 2	3

4	1 2 3	1 a	1 3	2
	3 4 5	1 b (but with different triad)	3 5	4
	1 2 6	2	1 6	2
	1 7 5	3	1 7	5
	2 6 7	4	6 7	2
	1 5 6	5	1 6	5
	1 2 3	6	1 3	2
5	1 2 3	1 a	1 3	2
	3 4 5	1 b (but with different triad)	3 5	4
	1 2 6	2	1 6	2
	1 7 5	3	7 5	1
	2 6 7	4	6 7	2
	1 5 6	5	5 6	1
	1 2 3	6	1 2	3
6	1 2 3	1 a	1 3	2
	3 4 5	1 b (but with different triad)	4 5	3
	1 2 6	2	1 6	2
	1 7 5	3	7 5	1
	2 6 7	4	6 7	2
	1 5 6	5	5 6	1
	1 2 3	6	1 2	3
7	1 2 3	1 a	1 3	2
	3 4 5	1 b (but with different triad)	3 5	4
	1 2 6	2	1 2	6
	1 7 5	3	1 7	5
	2 6 7	4	6 7	2
	1 5 6	5	1 5	6
	1 2 3	6	1 3	2

Appendix 3(d) **Sample personal construct development**

Participant	Question	Pole 1 (Element 1 & 3)	Pole 2 (Element 2)
1	1 a	1.1.1 Very passionate to get the job done. 1.1.2 Goes out of their way to teach new staff 1.1.3 Gets involved with staff 1.1.4 Sets goals for themselves 1.1.5 Understands the standards expected 1.1.6 Has international hotel experience in several hotels 1.1.7 Has worked in a multicultural environment 1.1.8 Has established personal and system mechanisms to deal with and reduce turnover 1.1.9 Caring and involved with managing and watching training	2.1.1Knows what has to be done, but not as passionate. 2.1.2 Relies on the staff to know what to do when they arrive. 2.1.3 Wants others to set goals for them. 2.1.4 Unsure of the expected standards. 2.1.5 Been in the one hotel for a long time. 2.1.6 Less interested in building relationships due to high turnover. 2.1.7 Distances themselves from the issues of turnover –less concerned. 2.1.8 Gets others to look after and train new staff.
		3.1.1 Has established personal and system mechanisms to deal with and reduce turnover 3.1.2 Caring and involved with managing and watching training	

		3.1.3 Very passionate to get the job done. 3.1.4 Goes out of their way to teach new staff 3.1.5 Knows what results are required and how to achieve them 3.1.6 Knows the people to reply on and trust 3.1.7 Experienced and on top of their job 3.1.8 Delegates work to the staff	

Phase Two Participant-Generated Constructs Related to Elements

Element No 1 Manager has a high contingent workforce; positively copes and influences them.	
Participant No 1	Constructs 1.1.1 Very passionate to get the job done. 1.1.2 Goes out of their way to teach new staff 1.1.3 Gets involved with staff 1.1.4 Sets goals for themselves 1.1.5 Understands the standards expected 1.1.6 Has international hotel experience in several hotels 1.1.7 Has worked in a multicultural environment 1.1.8 Has established personal and system mechanisms to deal with and reduce turnover. 1.1.9 Caring and involved with managing and watching training
Participant No 2	Constructs 1.2.1 High energy and effective at managing staff 1.2.2 Very organised and able to coordinate a high number of staff 1.2.3 Open door policy, listens to staff 1.2.4 Friendly, but knows when to draw the line between management and staff 1.2.5 Provides strong examples of what should happen 1.2.6 Has everything under-control 1.2.7 Strong communicator 1.2.8 Conscious of department costs 1.2.9 Knows what is expected in standards

	1.2.10 Accepting of different cultures
Participant No 3	Constructs 1.3.1 Knows the staff and how to influence them 1.3.2 Has a convincing ability 1.3.3 Positive attitude toward staff 1.3.4 Listens to staff 1.3.5 Knows how to achieve what needs to be achieved 1.3.6 Provides direction for staff 1.3.7 From the same (banqueting) background, with lots of experience 1.3.8 Handles unexpected situations well 1.3.9 Is able to lead various cultures 1.3.10 Very comfortable operator, who has less staff turnover 1.3.11Does not find fault with people, corrects positively 1.3.12 Supportive if staff are leaving

Participant No 4	Constructs 1.4.1 Knows their staff and how to get the best out of them 1.4.2 Very level headed – experienced 1.4.3 Positive team player 1.4.4 International experience 1.4.5 Lengthy experience in the industry 1.4.6 Very professional 1.4.7 Treats the hotel as their own business 1.4.8 Wants the hotel to succeed 1.4.9 Work is not a job, it's a lifestyle 1.4.10 Open to new views 1.4.11 Open management style 1.4.12 Used to a multi-cultural working environment 1.4.13 Recruitment is a fact of life
Participant No 5	Constructs 1.5.1 Treats people with respect 1.5.2 Achieves good results 1.5.3 More knowledgeable of their area 1.5.4 Very thorough with all tasks 1.5.5 Never gives up on a challenge 1.5.6 Just copes with turnover 1.5.7 They are used to staff coming and going
Participant No 6	Constructs 1.6.1 Tough, yet very understanding 1.6.2 Knows their job and staff respect them 1.6.3 Has 'very' high standards

	1.6.4 Worked in several 5 star properties 1.6.5 Strong and confident all the time 1.6.6 Turnover happens, it's OK, relaxed about it 1.6.7 Does not see culture as an issue in any way
Participant No 7	Constructs 1.7.1 Personal, gives staff great respect 1.7.2 Quiet and approachable 1.7.3 Everything under control 1.7.4 Knows what has to be done 1.7.5 Strong views on how things should be done 1.7.5 Gives positive feedback to staff 1.7.6 Open working environment 1.7.7 Does not differentiate people on base of culture 1.7.8 Don't get flustered when people come and go 1.7.9 'Supports' people who are leaving

Element No. 2 **Manager has a high contingent workforce: negatively copes and influences them.**	
Participant No 1	Constructs 2.1.1Knows what has to be done, but not as passionate. 2.1.2 Relies on the staff to know what to do when they arrive. 2.1.3 Wants others to set goals for them. 2.1.4 Unsure of the expected standards. 2.1.5 Been in the one hotel for a long time. 2.1.6 Less interested in building relationships due to high turnover. 2.1.7 Distances themselves from the issues of turnover – less concerned. 2.1.8Gets others to look after and train new staff.
Participant No 2	Constructs 2.2.1 Does not resolves issues with staff. 2.2.2 Small number of staff. 2.2.3 Trouble distinguishing between staff and managerial positions. 2.2.4 Conscious of department costs. 2.2.5 Knows what is expected in standards. 2.2.6 Staff don't follow the example provided. 2.2.7 Not as 'in control' of everything. 2.2.8 Concerned that staff can grow.

Participant No 3	Constructs 2.3.1 Doesn't have a solid understanding of the workforce. 2.3.2 Doesn't know how to get the best out of staff. 2.3.3 Not totally negative, but less positive. 2.3.4 Not a great communicator. 2.3.5 Wants to achieve but not sure how to do it 'comfortably'. 2.3.6 Not always clear on showing staff what to do. 2.3.7 Not able to assess situations as well as others. 2.3.8 Needs to develop their personality. 2.3.9 Not really comfortable with their job – they have higher turnover. 2.3.10 Not sure how to convey 'positive or negative' messages properly. 2.3.11 Just 'lets people go' if they decide to leave.
Participant No 4	Constructs 2.4.1 Does not know their staff very well. 2.4.2 Not as experienced. 2.4.3 Less a team player. 2.4.4 Little international experience. 2.4.5 Shorter time in industry. 2.4.6 Professional. 2.4.7 Here to do a job only. 2.4.8 Not as 'attached' to the hotel. 2.4.9 (Job) A means to an end. 2.4.10 Prefers control. 2.4.11 Prefers structure in staff relations.

	2.4.12 Much less hands on. 2.4.13 Less respected. 2.4.14 Used to 5 star semi-mono cultures. 2.4.15 Stresses out if someone doesn't turn up.
Participant No 5	Constructs 2.5.1 Does not know how to manage staff. 2.5.2 Achieves OK results. 2.5.3 Has the knowledge but doesn't use it. 2.5.4 Sometimes doesn't achieve standards. 2.5.5 Does not effectively communicate.
Participant No 6	Constructs 2.6.1 Softer on their staff. 2.6.2 Lacks confidence in their own role, does not command respect. 2.6.3 Appears to lack the drive and experience to know the standards. 2.6.4 Only worked in this property. 2.6.5 A bit introverted in their approach. 2.6.6 Is more comfortable to lead from the desk. 2.6.7 Doesn't show passion as strongly. 2.6.8 Does not demonstrate as much loyalty. 2.6.9 Turnover happens; it's OK, relaxed about it.
Participant No 7	Constructs 2.7.1 Knows what has to be done and how to do it. 2.7.2 Strong views on how things should be done. 2.7.3 Distant from staff – non-personal. 2.7.4 Abrupt. 2.7.5 Panics at times.

	2.7.6 Has not built rapport with staff yet. 2.7.7 No interest in the staff. 2.7.8 Less pride, not attached to the position. 2.7.9 Big panic if someone leaves. 2.7.10 Makes it difficult if a person is leaving.

Element No. 3 Manager has a low contingent workforce, positively copes and influences them	
Participant No 1	Constructs 3.1.1 Has established personal and system mechanisms to deal with and reduce turnover 3.1.2 Caring and involved with managing and watching training 3.1.3 Very passionate to get the job done. 3.1.4 Goes out of their way to teach new staff 3.1.5 Knows what results are required and how to achieve them 3.1.6 Knows the people to reply on and trust 3.1.7 Experienced and on top of their job 3.1.8 Delegates work to the staff
Participant No 2	Constructs 3.2.1 High energy and effective at managing staff 3.2.2 Very organised and able to coordinate a high number of staff 3.2.3 Open door policy, listens to staff 3.2.4 Friendly, but knows when to draw the line between management and staff 3.2.5 Provides strong examples of what should happen 3.2.6 Has everything under-control 3.2.7 Strong communicator
Participant No 3	Constructs 3.3.1 High energy and effective at managing staff 3.3.2 Very organised and able to coordinate a high number of staff 3.3.3 Open door policy, listens to staff

	3.3.4 Friendly, but knows when to draw the line between management and staff 3.3.5 Provides strong examples of what should happen 3.3.6 Has everything under-control 3.3.7 Strong communicator 3.3.8 Conscious of department costs 3.3.9 Knows what is expected in standards 3.3.10 Accepting of different cultures
Participant No 4	Constructs 3.4.1 Knows the staff and how to influence them 3.4.2 Has a convincing ability 3.4.3 Positive attitude toward staff 3.4.4 Listens to staff 3.4.5 Knows how to achieve what needs to be achieved 3.4.6 Provides direction for staff 3.4.7 From the same (banqueting) background, with lots of experience 3.4.8 Handles unexpected situations well 3.4.9 Is able to lead various cultures 3.4.10 Very comfortable operator, who has less staff turnover 3.4.11 Does not find fault with people, corrects positively 3.4.12 Supportive if staff are leaving
Participant No 5	Constructs 3.5.1 Treats people with respect 3.5.2 Achieves good results 3.5.3 They love their job – the job is their life 3.5.4 Showing results through people 3.5.5 Not soft, quite outspoken, but friendly 3.5.6 More upset if someone was to leave

	3.5.7 Has staff who are loyal to the hotel
Participant No 6	Constructs 3.6.1 Tough, yet very understanding 3.6.2 Knows their job and staff respect them 3.6.3 Gets good results 3.6.4 Involves staff in decisions 3.6.5 Doesn't cope well with turnover
Participant No 7	Constructs 3.7.1 Personal, gives staff great respect 3.7.2 Quiet and approachable 3.7.3 Everything under control 3.7.4 Don't get flustered when people come and go 3.7.5 'Supports' people who are leaving

Element No. 4 **Manager has a low contingent workforce, yet does not seem to positively cope with and influence them**	
Participant No 1	Constructs 4.1.1 Knows what results are needed, but lacks the drive to achieve them 4.1.2 New to the job, still unsure of what is expected 4.1.3 Does not have the rapport with staff that allows delegation
Participant No 2	Constructs 4.2.1 Very hierarchical in their approach to staff
Participant No 3	Constructs 4.3.1 Did not respond to this area
Participant No 4	Constructs 4.4.1 Mainly one property 4.4.2 Wants to be one of the boys 4.4.3 Less drive
Participant No 5	Constructs 4.5.1 Comes to work and goes home 4.5.2 Cannot influence people to get results
Participant No 6	Constructs 4.6.1 Fiery – doesn't get results 4.6.2 More directive
Participant No 7	Constructs 4.6.1 Less time in industry. Still learning how to manage

Element No. 5 **Manager has a high contingent workforce but they themselves are from a different culture from the majority of their workforce**	
Participant No 1	Constructs 5.1.1 Knows that results are required and how to achieve them 5.1.2Know the people to rely on and trust 5.1.3 Experienced and on top of their job 5.1.4 Delegates work to the staff
Participant No 2	Constructs 5.2.1 Very hierarchical in their approach to staff 5.2.2 Authoritative manager 5.2.3 Problem focused, not solution focused 5.2.4 Prefers a monoculture
Participant No 3	Constructs 5.3.1 Less experience in (banqueting) 5.3.2 Does not cope as well with the unexpected 5.3.3 'Manages' more than leads different cultures – but getting better
Participant No 4	Constructs 5.4.1 Worked in several properties 5.4.2 Understands the management and staff boundaries 5.4.3 Drives to succeed
Participant No 5	Constructs 5.5.1 They love their job – the job is their life 5.5.2. Showing results through people 5.5.3 Not soft, quite outspoken, but friendly 5.5.4 Used to large number of employees 5.5.5 Not afraid to ask for advice

Participant No 6	Constructs 5.6.1 Very aware of cultural issues 5.6.2 Softer approach, non-aggressive 5.6.3 Fiery – doesn't get results 5.6.4 More directive
Participant No 7	Constructs 5.7.1 At times too blunt with feedback 5.7.2 A less open working environment 5.7.3 Does not differentiate people on the base of culture

Element No. 6 **A relatively new manager, managing a high contingent workforce**	
Participant No 1	Constructs 6.1.1 Sets goals for themselves 6.1.2.Understands the standards expected 6.1.3 International hotel experience in several hotels 6.1.4.Balances managerial and operational requirements 6.1.5.Builds relationships with staff no matter who comes or goes
Participant No 2	Constructs 6.2.1 Aware of costs but often off target 6.2.2 Seems to fall short in the required standards 6.2.3 Prefers a monoculture 6.2.4 Needs to dominate staff
Participant No 3	Constructs 6.3.1 High energy and effective at managing staff 6.3.2 Very organised and able to coordinate a high number of staff 6.3.3 Open door policy, listens to staff 6.3.4 Friendly, but knows when to draw the line between management and staff 6.3.5 Provides strong examples of what should happen 6.3.6 Has everything under-control 6.3.7 Strong communicator 6.3.8 Conscious of department costs 6.3.9 Knows what is expected in standards 6.3.10 Accepting of different cultures
Participant No 4	Constructs 6.4.1 Knows the staff and how to influence them 6.4.2 Has a convincing ability

	6.4.3 Positive attitude toward staff 6.4.4 Listens to staff 6.4.5 Knows how to achieve what needs to be achieved 6.4.6 Provides direction for staff 6.4.7 From the same (banqueting) background, with lots of experience 6.4.8 Handles unexpected situations well 6.4.9 Is able to lead various cultures 6.4.10 Very comfortable operator, who has less staff turnover 6.4.11 Does not find fault with people, corrects positively 6.4.12 Supportive if staff are leaving
Participant No 5	Constructs 6.5.1 Very knowledgeable in their area 6.5.2 Very thorough with all tasks 6.5.3 Caring, listening 6.5.4 Very understanding 6.5.5 Used to working with different cultures

Participant No 6	Constructs 6.6.1 Has 'very' high standards 6.6.2 Worked in several 5 star properties 6.6.3 Strong and confident all the time 6.6.4 Secure in what they are doing 6.6.5 Gives a natural sense of leadership to the staff 6.6.6 Passion shows through naturally 6.6.7 Great sense of loyalty to the hotel 6.6.8 Very aware of cultural issues
Participant No 7	Constructs 6.7.1 Needs time to get to know the business 6.7.2 Not as vocal due to lack of industry knowledge 6.7.3 Things have to be done the way it was in their home country

Element No. 7 Participant 7 - themselves	
Participant No 1	Constructs 7.1.1 Builds relationships with staff no matter who comes or goes 7.1.2 Balances managerial and operational requirements
Participant No 2	Constructs 7.2.1 Concerned that staff can grow 7.2.2 Consultative manager 7.2.2 Approaches problems positively
Participant No 3	Constructs 7.3.1 High energy and effective at managing staff 7.3.2 Very organised and able to coordinate a high number of staff 7.3.3 Open door policy, listens to staff 7.3.4 Friendly, but knows when to draw the line between management and staff 7.3.5 Provides strong examples of what should happen 7.3.6 Has everything under-control 7.3.7 Strong communicator 7.3.8 Conscious of department costs 7.3.9 Knows what is expected in standards 7.3.10 Accepting of different cultures
Participant No 4	Constructs 7.4.1 Knows the staff and how to influence them 7.4.2 Has a convincing ability 7.4.3 Positive attitude toward staff 7.4.4 Listens to staff

	7.4.5 Knows how to achieve what needs to be achieved 7.4.6 Provides direction for staff 7.4.7 From the same (banqueting) background, with lots of experience 7.4.8 Handles unexpected situations well 7.4.9 Is able to lead various cultures 7.4.10 Very comfortable operator, who has less staff turnover 7.4.11 Does not find fault with people, corrects positively 7.4.12 Supportive if staff are leaving
Participant No 5	Constructs 7.5.1Used to large number of employees 7.5.2 Not afraid to ask for advice 7.5.3 7.5.3 Talks to people openly
Participant No 6	Constructs 7.6.1 Softer approach, non-aggressive 7.6.2 Secure in what they are doing 7.6.3 Gives a natural sense of leadership to the staff 7.6.4 Passion shows through naturally 7.6.5 Great sense of loyalty to the hotel
Participant No 7	Constructs 7.7.1 Gives positive feedback to staff 7.7.2 Open working environment 7.7.3 Positive rapport with staff 7.7.4 Shows a personal (professional) interest in staff 7.7.5 Takes pride in their work

Appendix 04 Merging of Constructs to Themes

This appendix is an amalgam of all developed personal constructs listed under *themes.* Participants identified common constructs for paired elements these have been eliminated in this presentation; however, personal constructs may appear in more than one theme.

Theme: The backdrop to managing contingent labour

Constructs relating to the theme

Balances managerial and operational requirements
Conscious of department costs
Does not see culture as an issue in any way
Has international experience in several hotels
Is able to lead various cultures
Just copes with turnover
Recruitment is a fact of life
They are used to staff coming and going
Used to a large number of employees
Used to a multicultural working environment
Used to working with different cultures
Very aware of cultural issues
Very comfortable operator, who ash less staff turnover
Used to a 5-star semi-mono culture

Constructs which project contrasts to the theme

Big panic if someone leaves
Doesn't cope well with turnover
Just let's people go if they decide to leave
Less interested in building relationships due to high turnover
Makes it difficult if a person is leaving
Not really comfortable with their job – they have higher turnover

Prefers a monoculture
Stresses out if someone doesn't turn up
Things have to be done there way
Trouble distinguishing between staff and managerial positions

Theme: **System based organisations**

Constructs relating to the theme

Achieves OK results
Doesn't get flustered when people come and go
Everything under control
Handles unexpected situations well
Knows how to achieve what needs to be achieved
Knows what has to be done
Knows what has to be done and how to do it
Knows what is expected in standards
Knows what results to achieve and how to achieve them
Recruitment is a fact of life
They are used to staff coming and going
Turnover happens, it's OK relaxed about it
Understands the standard expected
Very organised and able to coordinate a high number of staff
Prefers structure in staff relations
Very hierarchical in their approach to staff
Wants others to set goals

Constructs which support the need for systems

Been in one hotel for a long time
Distant from staff – non personal
Does not have the rapport with staff that allows delegation
Does not know how to manage staff
Gets others to look after and train staff
Is more comfortable to lead from the desk
Less a team player
Less open working environment
Less time in industry, still learning to manage
Little international experience
Mainly in one property

More directive
Needs time to get to know the business
Needs to develop their personality
No interest in the staff
Not as 'in control of everything'
Not as experienced
Not as vocal due to lack of industry experience
Panics at times
Relies on staff to know that to do when they arrive
Seems to fall short in the required standards
Shorter time in industry
Sometimes does not achieve standards
Unsure of the expected standards
Wants to be one of the boys

Theme: Wanting to succeed

Constructs relating to the theme

Achieves good results
Conscious of department costs
Experienced and on top of things
Gets good results
Great sense of loyalty to the hotel
Handles unexpected situations well
Has international experience in several hotels
Has very high standards
International experience
Lengthy experience in the industry
Never gives up on a challenge
Open to new views
Professional
Provides strong examples of what should happen
Secure in what they are doing
Sets goals for themselves
Strong and confident at all times
Strong communicator
They love their job – the job is their life
Tough yet very understanding
Treats the hotel as their own businesses
Very knowledgeable in their area
Wants the hotel to succeed
Worked in several 5-star properties
Worked in several properties

Constructs which suggest challenges with this theme

Cannot influence people to get results
Fiery – doesn't get results

Knows the results that are needed, but lacks the drive to achieve them
New to the job – still unsure of what is expected
Not as vocal due to lack of industry knowledge
Prefers control
Problem focused not solution focused
Want to achieve but not sure how to do it comfortably

Theme: Passionate leadership

Constructs relating to the theme

Goes out of their way to each new staff
Great sense of loyalty to the hotel
Handles unexpected situations well
High energy and effective at managing staff
International experience
Knows how to achieve what needs to be achieved
Never gives up on a challenge
Not afraid to ask for advise
Not soft, quite outspoken, but friendly
Open door policy, listens to staff
Open management style
Open to new views
Open working environment
Passion shows through naturally
Positive attitude toward staff
Professional
Provides direction for staff
Provides string examples of what should happen
Provides strong examples of what should happen
Sets goals for themselves
Strong views on how things should be done
They love their job – the job is their life
Tough yet very understanding
Treats the hotel as their own business
Very knowledgeable in their area
Very thorough with all tasks
Work is not a job – it's a lifestyle

Constructs which suggest a contrast to the theme

(Job) a means to an end
A bit introverted in their approach
Abrupt
Appears to lack the drive and experience to know the standards
Aware of costs but often off target
Comes to work and goes home
Does not cope well with the unexpected
Does not demonstrate much loyalty
Doesn't hold a solid understanding of staff
Doesn't show passion as strongly
Gets other to look after and train staff
Has the knowledge but doesn't use it
Here to do a job only
Knows what has to be done but not as passionate
Lacks confidence in their own role, does not command respect
Less drive
Less pride, not attached to the hotel
Much less hands on
Needs to dominate staff
No interest in staff at all
Not a great communicator
Not able to access situations as well as others
Not as 'attached' to the hotel
Not totally negative, but less positive
Staff do not follow the example provided

Theme: Respected managers who, through their actions have the potential to build relationships

Paired constructs

Consultative manager
Delegates work to the staff
Does not find fault with people, corrects positively
Friendly, but knows when to draw the line between management and staff
Gets involved with staff
Gives a natural sense of leadership to the staff
Gives positive feedback
Goes out of their way to teach mew staff
Has a convincing ability
Has everything under control
Has international experience in several hotels
Has staff who are loyal to the hotel
Has very high standards
High energy and effective at managing staff
International experience
Involves staff in decisions
Know their staff and how to the best out of them
Knows the people to rely on and trust
Knows the staff and how to influence them
Knows their job and staff respect them
Lengthy experience in the industry
Listens to staff
More knowledgeable in their area
Never gives up on a challenge
Not afraid to ask for advise
Open door policy, listens to staff
Open management style
Open to new views

Open working environment
Personal, give staff great respect
Positive rapport with staff
Positive team player
Professional
Provides direction to staff
Provides strong examples of what should happen
Quite and approachable
Show a personal (professional) interest in staff
Shows results through people
Softer approach, non-aggressive
Takes pride in their work
Tough, yet very understanding
Treats people with respect
Understands the management and staff boundaries
Very professional
Very thorough with all tasks
Very understanding

Constructed constructs

At times too blunt with feedback
Cannot influence people to get results
Does not have the rapport with staff that allows delegation
Does not know how to manage staff
Does not know their staff very well
Does not resolve issues with staff
Does not know how to get the best out of staff
Gets others to look after and train staff
Lacks confidence in their own role, does not command respect
Less interested in building relationships due to high turnover
Less respected
Not a great communicator

Not sure how to convey positive or negative messages properly

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