A Study of Atypical Employment in the Service Sector in Ireland

Submitted by

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B.Sc.(Mgt)

in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Studies

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> > May 1995

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Signature Shawn Maun Mc Greery

Date 4 March 1996

To Ruth and Gerry,

Acknowledgements

- 1. Firstly, I must thank my supervisor Dr. Josephine Browne whose energetic and boundless enthusiasm, constant and unending support aided me in the preparation of every aspect of the project.
- 2. Secondly, I would like to extend my thanks to all those in the D.I.T. in Cathal Brugha Street, particularly, Mr. Frank McMahon, Mr. Pat Henry and Mr. Michael Mulvey, whose support and interest in the research allowed me tremendous scope during its preparation.
- 3. Thirdly, I would like to thank Jim Larragy whose tremendous wide ranging knowledge of statistical analysis techniques taught me how to use and interpret S.P.S.S.
- 4. Fourthly, I would like to thank Ruth, my mother whose overwhelming enthusiasm and hard work made an enormous contribution immediately preceding submission.
- 5. Fifthly, I would like to thank my long suffering husband who has supported and encouraged my progression throughout the duration of the research.
- 6. Finally, I would like to thank God it is all over.

Table of Contents

Abstract	1
List of Abbreviations	3
List of Tables	4
List of Appendices	6
Introduction	8
Chapter One	
The issues and debates surrounding atypical employment	9
1. Introduction	9
1.1 Changes in the world of work	9
1.2 Towards a definition of atypical employment	
1.2.1 Part time employment	
1.2.2 Temporary employment	
1.3 Rationales - Traditional or New ?	
1.4 Who are these atypical employees?	20
1.5 The role of the state	
1.6 European Union Directives	
1.6.1 Limitations of proposed Directives	23
1.7 Employment trends in hotels, tourism and the hospital sector	
1.8 The flexibility debate -The issues	26
1.8.1 Flexibility and Size of the Organisation	
1.8.2 Training Implications	32
1.8.3 The humanisation of work	33
1.8.4 Voluntary Initiatives to Improve the position of Atypical	
Employees	35
1.9 The Trade Union response	36
1.10 Conclusions	46
Chapter Two	
Research Methodology	
2. Introduction	
2.1 Secondary Research	
2.2 Research Instrument	47
2.3 Questionnaire Design	48

2.4 Pilot Survey	48
2.5 Population	49
2.6 Sample size	50
2.7 Administration of Primary Research	50
2.8 Analysis of data	50
2.9 Conclusion	52
Chapter Three	
Atypical Employees- Who are they?	53
3. Introduction	53
3.1 Response Rate	53
3.2 Composition of Respondents	53
3.3 Manpower Utilisation in the Irish services sector	56
3.3.1 Manpower Utilisation and Organisation size	57
3.3.2 Manpower utilisation and organisation type in the Irish services	
sector	59
3.4 Flexibility and Gender	60
3.4.1 Female Participation and Status	61
3.4.2 Participation of married Females and Status	62
3.5 Age and employees status	66
3.6 Unionisation	67
3.7 Conclusion	68
Chapter Four	
Personnel Policies, Terms and Conditions of Atypical	
Employees	70
4. Introduction	70
4.1 Recruitment Problems	71
4.2 Type of Organisation and problems in recruiting suitably skilled	
staff	74
4.3 Atypical Employees and success in transfer to full time	76
4.3.1 Organisation type and success in transfer to full time	
employment	77
4.4 Future recruitment plans	80
4.5 Formal induction courses	82
4.6 Formal Training Courses	85

4.7 Benefits available to employees and occupational status	88
4.7.1 Benefits available to periphery employees in unionised and non	
unionised organisations	91
4.8 Determination of pay criteria for atypical employees	93
4.8.1 Criteria Applied in the determination of remuneration for atypical	
employees in unionised and non unionised organisations	94
4.9 Conclusion	96
Chapter Five	
Functional Flexibility	99
5. Introduction	99
5.1 Skill Flexibility and Occupational Status	
5.2 Flexibility Agreements	
5.3 Atypical Employees Interchangeable with Full Time Employees	
5.4 Functional Flexibility and Gender	
5.5 Worksharing	
5.51 Marital status of work sharers	
5.52 Age and Work Sharing	
5.6 Conclusions	
Chapter Six Why Employ Atypical Workers?	110
wity Employ Atypical workers?	110
6. Introduction	118
6.1 Productivity and Atypical Employees	118
6.2 Motivation and Atypical Employees	122
6.3 Absenteeism and Atypical Workers	127
6.4 Loyalty and Atypical Employees	130
6.5 Atypical Employees and supervision	134
6.6 Contracting Out	137
6.7 Conclusions	142
Chapter Seven	
Results, Conclusions and Recommendations	144
7. Introduction	144
7.1 Summary	144

7.2 Overall Research Results	146
7.3 Recommendations	149
7.4 Conclusions	155

Bibliography

Appendices

Abstract

The primary research has been based on the Irish services sector with specific reference to the hotel, tourism and hospital sectors. Comparisons will be drawn with the UK and where appropriate other European Countries.

There are four main aims of the research: firstly, to establish a <u>profile of atypical employees</u>; secondly, to establish the <u>terms and conditions</u> of such employees; thirdly, to consider <u>management perspectives</u> which address issues relevant to peripheral employees; and finally, to consider the <u>future outlook</u> for atypical employment in the Irish Service Sector.

Within the British literature one of the best basis for discussion is the concept of the "Flexible firm" proposed by Atkinson (1987), who argued that new firms are segmenting their workforces into a core and a periphery. Core employees have standard working conditions, secure employment, promotion etc. Conversely, with peripheral employees, firms focus on using a cheaper supply of labour by using employees who attract lower non wage costs, and also by achieving numerical flexibility.

This research attempts to establish a "profile" of atypical employees within the sectors previously identified. A comparison between the Irish hotel, tourism and hospital sector is attempted in order to gain a greater insight into the nature of atypical work in these three service sectors. The research primarily concentrates on four main types of numerical flexibility: Part time, Temporary (Seasonal), Temporary (Fixed Term), and Casual employees. Issues such as age, gender and marital status are examined.

The extent of the reliance of establishments on atypical employment practices and the location of such employees within the organisation are evaluated. The issue of whether atypical employees work in isolation or are an integral part of the workforce are also considered.

Other issues addressed in this research are "terms and conditions" of employment. Levels of staff development and training and the criteria applied when developing a remuneration policy and benefits for staff. The internal promotion prospects of atypical employees is examined also. The movement from full time to non full time employment is also evaluated as is movement from the periphery to the core.

Comparisons are made between Full Time and Atypical employees in terms of productivity, motivation, absenteeism, and loyalty and the difficulties and disadvantages of utilising this type of workforce are considered.

Finally, managerial attitudes towards the <u>future usage of atypical</u> <u>employment and flexibility</u> are evaluated.

List of Abbreviations

EU European Union

ESRI Economic and social research institute

PESP Programme for Economic and Social Progress

PCW Programme for Competitiveness and Work

SIPTU Services Industrial and Professional Trade Union

ICTU Irish Congress of Trade Unions

ILO International Labour Organisation

5*Hotels Five Star Hotels

4*Hotels Four Star Hotels

3*Hotels Three Star Hotels

Pb.Hosp Public Hospitals

Pr.Hosp Private Hospitals

Pb.V.C. Public Visitor Centres

Pr.V.C. Private Visitor Centres

F/Time Full time workers

P/Time Part time workers

Temp Temporary workers

F/Term Fixed term workers

Prof Professional workers

IRN Industrial Relations News

LCR Labour Court Recommendation

List of Tables

		Page No.
3.	Percentage of respondents and category of organisation	52
3.1	Organisation type and percentage of respondents	53
3.2	Organisation type and age	54
3.3	Manpower utilisation and organisation type in the Irish services sector	58
3.4	Female participation rate and occupational status	60
3.5	Participation of married females and occupational status	62
3.6	Employee status and age	65
3.7	Percentage of unionised employees	66
3.8	Occupational status and percentage of unionised employees	67
4.1	Organisation size and difficulty in recruiting periphery employees	70
4.2	Organisation type and difficulty in recruiting	73
4.3	Size of organisation and success in transferring to full time employment	76
4.4	Female application rates and organisation type	79
4.5	Plans to recruit staff in unionised and non unionised organisations	80
4.6	Labour turnover rates of core and periphery employees	81
4.7	Induction Courses available to core and periphery employees.	82
4.8	Formal induction courses available to core and periphery employees	82
4.9	Induction courses and organisation size	83
4.10	Organisation type and formal induction course	84
4.11	Core and periphery employees receiving formal training courses	85
4.12	Formal training and organisation type	86
4.13	Benefits available to employees and occupational status	87
4.14	Benefits available to unionised and non unionised periphery employees	90
4.15	Determination of pay criteria for atypical employees	92
4.16	Criteria applied in the determination of remuneration for atypical employees in unionised and non unionised organisations	94
5.	Employer attitudes towards atypical employees suitability for skilled or unskilled work	99
5.1	Flexibility agreements	101
5.2	Organisation size and flexibility agreements	102
5.3	Atypical employees interchangeable with full time employees	102
5.4	Functional flexibility and skill levels within organisations	104
5.5	Functional flexibility and gender (full time employees)	108
5.6	Functional flexibility and gender (part time employees)	109
5.7	Functional flexibility and gender (temporary employees)	110
5.8	Functional flexibility and gender (fixed term employees)	111
5.9	Functional flexibility and gender (casual employees)	112
5.10	Incidence of work sharing	113
5.11	Organisation type and work sharing	113
5.12	Gender of work sharers	114
5.13	Marital status of work sharers	114

		Page
		No.
6.	Productivity of atypical workers	118
6.1	Productivity of atypical workers and unionisation	120
6.2	Motivation and atypical employees	121
6.3	Atypical workers and motivation (small, medium and large organisations)	124
6.4	Motivation and levels of unionisation (unionised and non unionised organisations)	125
6.5	Absenteeism and atypical employees	126
6.6	Atypical workers and absenteeism in organisations (small, medium and large organisations)	128
6.7	Loyalty and atypical employees	129
6.8	Atypical employees, organisation size and levels of loyalty (small, medium and large organisations)	131
6.9	Atypical employees and levels of supervision required	133
6.10	Atypical employees, level of supervision and organisation size	135
6.11	Contracting out and type of organisation (hotel sector)	137
6.12	Contracting out and type of organisation (health sector)	138
6.13	Contracting out and type of organisation (Visitor centres)	140

List of Appendices

Appendix A Tables 1 -12

Appendix B Questionnaire

Appendix C Bord Failte Bednight capacity by Grade and Region

Appendix D Bord Failte 1992 Hotel Stock

Appendix E Link up and Flare Campaigns

The aims and objectives of this research are:

- 1. To investigate and identify the emergence of new forms of work and the extent of their usage in Irish hospitals, hotels and Visitor Centres.
- 2. To identify and investigate employer rationales in employing atypical workers.
- 3. To evaluate the extent to which gender segregation exists within four particular categories of atypical worker: Part time, temporary, fixed term and casual employees.
- 4. To establish levels of functional flexibility present in organisations and also establish the link (if any) between gender and levels of functional flexibility.
- 5. To examine the terms and conditions, personnel policies which govern atypical employees in the workplace.
- 6. To compare the performance levels of atypical employees relative to core (full time) employees in the workplace.

Introduction

This research is an exploratory study into atypical employment patterns in the Irish service sector. In particular, it explores manpower utilisation and personnel policies associated with the management of atypical workers in the hospital and hospitality sectors in Ireland.

The first chapter of the study reviews the literature in the area and explores the issues and debates surrounding atypical employment in Ireland, and raises a number of questions this research attempts to address.

The second chapter of the present study details the research methodology, identifying the research instrument, population and sample size.

The third chapter attempts to provide a profile of atypical employees in Irish hospitals, hotels and the tourism sectors. The characteristics of atypical employees is explored, such as their age, occupational status, gender and level of unionisation.

The fourth chapter attempts to examine the personnel policies and practices pertaining to atypical workers. It explores and considers whether atypical employees are disadvantaged, by inferior terms and conditions of employment relative to full time staff.

The fifth chapter, explores a central theme of this research and attempts to examine the nature of functional flexibility within respondent organisations in the Irish service sector. The sixth chapter attempts to examine employer rationale when employing atypical workers and how this may differ from full time employees. Results, conclusions and recommendations are presented in the final chapter.

Chapter One

The issues and debates surrounding atypical employment

1. Introduction

This chapter attempts to discuss the current literature surrounding the emergence of new forms of work in the services sector and highlight the salient issues pertinent to the present research which will be further developed and examined later at the analysis stage. In particular this chapter will consider the following issues - changes in the world of work, characteristics of atypical employment, employer rationale for recruiting atypical employees and a profile of atypical workers.

1.1 Changes in the world of work

According to Kelly (1994:11) the world of work is changing more rapidly than at any other time since the beginning of industrialisation. Change is being fuelled by a number of factors such as the globalisation of business and economics and the subsequent emergence of multinational companies and the growth and application of flexible and inexpensive technologies.

Since the industrial revolution most Western countries have made significant progress towards eliminating and reducing the exploitation of workers and generally improving the quality of working life. Forms of labour market regulation built around regular, protected jobs have come to dominate their industrial systems, especially during the phase of rapid economic growth between the end of the second world war and the mid 1970s. The standard employment relationship which developed under the aegis of legislation or collective agreement, incorporated a degree of regularity and durability in employment relationships. Workers were protected from socially unacceptable practices and working conditions and their rights and

obligations were established which provided a core of social stability to underpin economic growth. Rodgers (1989:1-3)

Profound changes have occurred in all industrialised and economically advanced countries of Western Europe. Treu (1992:497) Statistics from all industrialised countries show that the distribution of employment among the major economic sectors over recent decades has undergone a serious of changes. The tertiary sector has taken first place in the classification of economic activity by sector. Cuadrado and del Rio (1990:438) Over the past 18 years economies and in particular the most advanced ones have undergone a de-industrialisation process, which has run parallel to the advance of employment in the tertiary sector. However the growth of employment in the services sector over the European Union was insufficient to provide employment (European union 1992:77) for all. The service sector accounted for 62 % of the total numbers employed in the European Union in 1989.

Throughout the 1980s the number of people employed in the service sector, within the European Union increased by almost 12 million, an increase of just below 1% per annum. The growth of service employment between 1980 and 1989 varied from around 3% a year in Luxembourg, Greece and Spain to under 1% a year in Belgium, Ireland and the Netherlands.

According to the results of the labour force survey in the United Kingdom (1991) 82% of working women had jobs in the services sector, compared to 54% of men. Women significantly outnumber men in health associate professions, personal services and clerical and teaching occupations. (Waering 1992:207). A similar pattern has developed within the Irish framework.

A majority of service sectors jobs are filled by women, and more than four fifths of all women work in that sector. It has been suggested that some of the growth in the service sector and the decline in manufacturing may be more apparent than real in that it results from the contracting out by manufacturing firms of activities previously carried out in house e.g. cleaning, catering, business services Brown (1990:309). In the United Kingdom, one estimate is that as much as half of the increase in service sector employment between 1979-1988 (around 300,000) has arisen from increased subcontracting by the manufacturing sector(Manpower services commission 1987). Similarly some

of the growth of self employment and of small firms has been due to similar subcontracting, sometimes to former employees previously carried out by employees (Premier dairies) or the privatisation of services in the public sector.

The ability of employers to implement policies which have increased the rate of female labour force participation at a time of historically high levels of unemployment cannot be understood solely in the context of external labour market influences. Robinson (cited in Walby 1989: Chpt 9)

Private sector service industries can be regarded as epitomising the picture which has often been given of economic development in the 1980s, these may be welcomed or deplored: economic growth and enterprise in the form of self employment and small businesses and a highly competitive labour market, with limited regulation leading to some very high and some very low paid employees.

This will be investigated later as comparisons are drawn between the public and private sectors.

1.2 Towards a definition of atypical employment

In order to define atypical employment it may first be sensible to examine typical employment:

Typical employment defined as waged work which is performed within a formalised employer-employee relationship (i.e. under a statute or contract of indeterminate duration concluded within the framework of a collective agreement) is stable (possibly offering career prospects) is full time (thus a basis for participation in collective life and social identity) provides the essential part of the family income, depends on a single employer, is performed at a specific workplace and is specifically assigned to the individual concerned. The conventional model of full time employment in the service of a specific enterprise has been treated as the "to be or not to be" of labour legislation. Dupeyroux (1981:486) cited in Piotet (1987)

Francois Piotet (1987:107) provides a useful definition of typical employment.

- 1. Status: This involves an indefinite duration work contract and in the specific case of the civil service a job guarantied for the active working life of the individual.
- **2. Implementation:** This is a waged or salaried work which is carried out at a workplace away from home during a period of time and in a collective pattern governed by legislation or very similar work arrangements.

This model, the origins of which go back a long way in the history of our society, became widespread under the industrial revolution before becoming a really dominant model around which the patterns of family life and the whole social system progressively became organised.

Atypical employment is more easily defined by what it is not than what it is: It covers a host of forms of work which deviate from the standard. This heterogeneity makes generalisation dangerous. Casual work, odd jobs precarious work, there is no lack of terms to designate this vague concept which embraces the emerging forms of a new type of employment. The very variety of vocabulary in use illustrates the difficulty of delimiting these forms of employment, which depart from the standard employment contract as defined by law and which give rise to ambiguous situations sometimes straddling employment, unemployment and inactivity suggests Caire (1988:75). Atypical employment is the generic name used to designate all these different forms of work. So widespread are some forms of atypical employment particularly part time employment, that atypical is no longer an appropriate adjective.

Clearly then, the identification of atypical employment forms are by no means straightforward. The simple dichotomy between secure, regular jobs and precarious atypical jobs may be misleading. In practice, an equally important issue may be the security and protection of regular jobs, if those are threatened, and although atypical jobs tend to be more precarious than regular jobs this is not universally the case. The focus of this research is

concentrated on four types of atypical work: Part time, temporary, fixed term and casual employment. A definition of each type is provided.

1.2.1 Part time employment

Where part time employment has a legal definition it generally corresponds to the I.L.O. definition:

"regular wage employment with hours of work substantially shorter than normal in the establishment concerned"

This definition is intended to clarify a number of points namely:

- 1. The employment is regular i.e. a formal, continuing employment relationship exists.
- 2. It is wage employment not independent or unpaid work.
- 3. Hours of work are substantially shorter (some national legislation specifies at least 20 % shorter so that employment which is assimilated to full time employment is not covered)
- 4. Hours of work are shorter "than normal in the establishment concerned" So that establishments with relatively short hours for all employees are excluded, as are cases of short time working or partial unemployment for temporary economic or technical reasons.

Inherent in any definition are weaknesses and ambiguities as Thurman and Trah (1990: 23) point out. Firstly, it does not match national definitions for statistical purposes. These vary from country to country but tend to refer to a specific hours limit, usually 30-35 hours a week. An additional problem identified concerns casual, seasonal and temporary workers. They usually work shorter hours over a year, yet they are not part time workers in the usual sense unless they work shorter hours during their periods of employment. Other problems also exist, in some establishments only managerial employees work full time and all others work part time. What are usual hours? The requirement that hours be substantially shorter leaves some workers in the anomalous situation of being neither full time nor part time. Multiple job holders may hold more than one part time job and yet work full time hours.

Part time work is the most standard of all non standard employment practices. It is the most important in terms of its share of the labour force.

Part time employment admits a variety of situations: working part of the day, part of the week, and even part of the month. Generally it refers to regular employment however in a number countries irregular work is also included, explicitly, implicitly or merely because it has not been excluded, thus inter country comparisons can be problematic.

1.2.2 Temporary employment

From a European perspective, the most extensive definition of temporary employment originates from an Italian report which states that (Meulders and Plasman 1989:27) "Temporary employment includes all non permanent types of employment undertaken by paid employees or self employed persons". This term includes a number of categories which are not mutually exclusive, It includes:

A. Fixed term Contract: When it is agreed between employer and employee that the end of a period of employment will be determined by the objective criteria such as the passage of a certain period of time or the fulfilment of a task (also included here are individual company training contracts and arrangements for the provision of work for the unemployed provided that these arrangements are not of a premature nature) Those mainly involved are employees.

B. Interim: When there is a three sided relationship involving an interim employment agency, a temporary worker and a user firm. Those mainly involved are employees. This particular form of temporary employment is not included in the present research.

<u>C. Casual</u>: Temporary employment characterised by its sporadic nature (if the person involved is an employee, he or she will also come under the heading of workers on fixed term contracts) Those mainly involved are employees and self employed persons.

<u>D. Seasonal:</u> Temporary employment characterised by its periodic availability in connection with sectors activity cycles (If the person involved is an employee) Those mainly involved are employees and self employed persons. Three of the above named forms of temporary employed are relevant to the present research.

The unusual situation clearly highlights the atypical "legal" nature of temporary work and may explain whilst although not the commonest amongst the non standard forms may be the most controversial. Bronstein (1990: 293)

This category (as illustrated above) includes all workers not in reasonably permanent employment such as casual, seasonal, fixed term and agency workers. The term is often used interchangeably with occasional workers. The label temporary embraces all those in jobs which are not of indefinite duration. Thus, it covers casual workers, short term workers, and fixed term contract workers and may also encompass seasonal workers, the latter is particularly salient to the present research. Thus, it can be clearly illustrated that a plethora of forms exist. There is no general category of temporary worker in Irish labour law and social security law which has given rise to anomalies. Cousins (1992: 648)

It has been estimated that there are about 70,000 workers in temporary employment i.e. 6 % of those at work in Ireland. Cousins (1992:684)

Wickham (1993:184) notes that the most obvious expansion has been in the state sector. As a result of the embargo on all permanent employment in the state sector, temporary employment has expanded in education and health service, the latter will be looked at in much greater detail in the current research. In these areas many annual contracts have been renewed between four and six times.

Within the private sector, temporary contracts have become widespread as employers have become unwilling to take on staff who would consider themselves to be permanent. Temporary staff here appear to fall into two main groups:

1. A small number of highly skilled people hired to carry out a specific task of (in principle) limited duration.

2. A larger number of employees in routine assembly jobs and low grade clerical jobs.

The skill levels of temporary workers is considered in the present research. Wickham et al also notes that the expansion of temporary work in Ireland appears to have been tacitly accepted by all the stakeholders except the temporary workers themselves. Given the embargo on permanent posts, state sector organisations could not work without it. While Private sector employers regard it as a crucial element of the flexibility they need, trade unions accept temporary jobs as being better than no jobs at all.

One interesting aspect of temporary work cited by Casey in the UK. is the manner in which temporary workers overlap with other forms of non-standard workers namely part time and self employed. The most dramatic overlap lay in the range of part time and temporary workers. According to Casey (1987:299) industries such as retail distribution, catering and personal services a high proportion of the total labour force is part time, over 80 % of temporary workers work full time.

Casey raises an interesting point regarding the incidence of part time working and whether it is much higher amongst those with seasonal, temporary or casual jobs than those with fixed term contracts.

There are no legislative restrictions on the recruitment of temporary workers and no special regulations governing the terms and conditions of employment in Ireland. For example, there are no restrictions on the maximum length of temporary work contracts.

1.3 Rationales - Traditional or New?

The rationales behind the main reasons for the use of temporary employees correlate closely to those identified for part time workers. This issue will be dealt with at length later in the research. Temporary employees can be used to hold down the total wage bill, to match labour utilisation to fluctuations in demand and hold down non wage costs and so on. Newer rationales promoted more recently suggest a move towards a more strategic approach on the part of management towards the use of peripheral labour. These rationales are associated with a more conscious attempt to minimise labour costs, and the related adoption of manpower strategies that allow

unanticipated changes in market conditions to be absorbed more easily by the use of peripheral labour force. (Atkinson 1986)

It is argued that the workers from this peripheral group may be moved into and out of the workforce more easily than permanent employees. This partially is reflective of the lower level of trade union membership amongst such workers compared to permanent employees. This line of argument supported by Sproull and McGregor (1990:10) who suggest that temporary employees can be used specifically because they make it easier to adjust manning levels.

The hospitality sector has a long history of seasonality therefore temporary work may be utilised solely to staff peak times as opposed to an employer strategy to avoid dismissals. The health sector however, may differ in this respect as it may be an employer (namely government) strategy to avoid dismissals and reduce wage bills.

Many factors have been identified as encouraging more widespread recourse to atypical employment: technological advance, which gives a new lease of life to home working: Management practices seeking less costly or less constraining forms of employment: It is difficult to identify an unequivocal pattern in the propagation of atypical forms of employment. It not only includes survivals of old forms of waged work, it also indicates a regression in labour legislation as well as aspirations to achieve new forms of organisation of working time.

Stimulated by high unemployment, by new technology, by more aggressive international competition, by deregulation and the erosion of trade union strength, and by a desire to overcome the uncertainty induced by international economic instability, enterprises everywhere are devising means of reducing the fixed costs of labour. There is a global trend to reduce reliance on full time wage and salary workers earning fixed wages and various fringe benefits. Companies and the public sector are increasingly resorting to casual or temporary workers, to part timers, or subcontracting and to contract workers. In the process they further erode employment and income security Standing (1989:1077)

Undoubtedly the most frequently cited causes of the rise in atypical employment is persistent and high unemployment. Indeed, unemployment may be viewed as a catalyst of atypical employment as it has forced governments to devise means of creating employment and distributing available jobs, leading at times to non employment models. On the other hand it has predisposed workers who are unemployed to accept these alternatives however unstable or precarious they may be Marshall (1989:18)

The economies now seem incapable of generating enough jobs to ensure that full time employment remains the basis and model for labour legislation. Prolonged recession has prompted those affected to explore alternatives to full time employment and to unemployment.

Periphery labour has the ability to contribute to both qualitative and quantitative flexibility of labour within the organisation. Whether it is utilised depends on both the availability of such labour at prevailing real wages and the balance between the perceived advantages and disadvantages associated with the use of such labour.

The possibility of promoting atypical work in order to combat high unemployment has been considered by many European governments. Such incentives have included:

- 1. Direct subsidies and removal of associated additional costs so as to make atypical work more attractive to employers.
- 2. Better protection and more equal pay to make it more attractive to workers.
- Several government sponsored schemes such as job splitting, job sharing on the job training and other schemes for the unemployed youth have proliferated.

Ironically perhaps, policies relying on incentives have had a very minor sometimes negligible impact.

During a period of relatively high unemployment the labour supply behaviour of the majority of economically active individuals is heavily shaped by the limited job opportunities available to them, thus labour market changes will be mainly driven by the employment objectives of management. Rodgers (1991:5)

Working time and working hours are currently of considerable interest. Their topicality is the result of a variety of social, economic and international pressures.

- 1. Social pressures: Derive from the fact that workers are increasingly demanding a greater say in the hours they work and the times they work them.
- 2. Economic pressures: Have resulted from the speed of technological change in recent years and the increasingly competitive environment in which companies operate. If they want to remain competitive, employers have to be able to respond rapidly to alterations in demand for their products or services, hence the need for flexible working patterns.
- 3. Lengthening of business operating hours: In the services sector there has been customer demand for the availability of services over a long period of the day or week. As soon as the day or weekly operating hours of enterprises exceed the usual working hours of their employees, it becomes necessary for working patterns to be staggered or fragmented if cover is to be maintained. So the extension of operating hours has contributed to a proliferation of new working arrangements. This is clearly evident in the hospitality and tourism and financial services sectors.
- **4. Reduction in the usual working hours of employees:** Can also contribute to the mismatch. Pressures for an overall reduction in working hours have come from two main sources in the UK and Ireland: The trade Unions and more recently the European Union.

1.4 Who are these atypical employees?

Atypicality can occur through the holding of an atypical job and or having a working life pattern which differs from that of long term, relatively uninterrupted participation in the labour market on a full time basis. Even then, women who are currently in typical jobs may have an atypical employment pattern over their working lives. Dickens (1992a:14)

The characteristics of atypical workers varies greatly. Three distinctive characteristics have been identified: they tend to be women, they tend to be young and they tend to be less skilled than the population average for their sex group. Rodgers (1991:9). The present study has attempted to develop a profile of atypical employees and assesses conformity to this predescribed norm.

Unlike other European countries (except the UK) the ideological context, which constructs women as mothers is particularly significant in Ireland. as Brannen (1989 cited in Wilkinson1993) points out that full time care by mothers is regarded as normal desirable and socially acceptable for preschool children. The perceived conflict between motherhood and paid employment help fosters the idea of part time work as marginal. Employers tap into and reinforce this ideology. This view is also enshrined in the Article 41 Irish constitution. One significant question which this research hopes to answer is: Has the emergence of atypical employment reinforced rather than eroded traditional views regarding female employment? Recent figures from the labour force survey (IRN 1995:4) indicate that part time work in Ireland had increased by 22% between 1992 and 1993. Over 72% of part time workers are female in Ireland. The present research examines the gender implications of atypical employment in the services sector in Ireland.

1.5 The role of the state

The resultant picture is one of governments that accept atypical work as an inevitable fact of life, and which behave as promoters of atypical or precarious work at the same time they condemn it. Ricca (1992:287)

Growth in precarious work results primarily from the fundamental belief of many governments in the basic validity of the neo-classical theory for economic and employment policies. The role of the state is to create an environment favourable to technological innovation, seen from the this perspective a precarious job is better than no job at all. Most public programmes of skill training or recycling are nothing more than the creation of precarious jobs on the initiative of governments, in their fight against unemployment. Precarious work emerges notes Ricca (1992:288) as a side effect of what governments believe to be sound employment policy. The present study attempts to assess the impact of atypical employment practices in public and private hospitals, public and private sector tourism outlets and hotels in the Republic of Ireland.

Governments can be regarded as initiators of a certain expansion of precarious work. In some cases recipients of unemployment benefits were allowed to undertake work for wages for a limited number of hours per week without reducing their entitlements.

However, given the current state of unemployment, governments appear reluctant to fight or tackle malpractice's in the use of atypical employment.

Subcontracting, in particular is an endless source of abuse to which most governments have not paid sufficient attention. Undoubtedly, subcontracting is the most ingenious means of establishing a link between legal and clandestine enterprises. It also gives rise to forms of precarious work which have increased rapidly. This increase has not yet been matched by any parallel effort on the part of governments to define and regulate this form of production. The present study examines the services which are contracted out within Irish hospitals and the hospitality sector.

The major area where state policy as an employer has affected atypical work trends, is in the area of temporary working. In Ireland, Public sector hiring and redundancy policies operating since 1983 have increased the numbers of full time temporary workers. In 1985 the state introduced a scheme to fill some civil service posts, which had an embargo since 1976 as a cost saving measure, by employing 1,000 young people on temporary contracts. The scheme was renewed in 1986 (Barry and Jackson 1988:89 in Meulders and Plasman) This helped to underpin the growth in full time temporary

employment between 1983 and 1987. Bonner(1995:17) argues that in Ireland we have an educated and adaptable workforce and a degree of flexibility which compares favourably with other similar European countries. According to Bonner we must continue to maintain that flexibility in the face of increasing competition. The core of such flexibility requires co-operation between management and employees at enterprise level to introduce new forms of working so as to offset competition.

State encouragement has also been found in the self employed sector through such schemes as the Enterprise Allowance scheme and aid to community enterprises.

1.6 European Union Directives

Draft directives aimed at improving conditions for part time and temporary workers date back to 1980 however these were not adopted. In the summer of 1990 however, three proposals for directives on atypical workers emerged as part of the social dimension to the Single European Market.

The three directives on working conditions, distortions to competition and health and safety of temporary workers cover both temporary and part time employees. The third directive, on health and safety has been adopted but the other two are still under discussion.

The provisions of the first directive on working conditions concern access to training, services and benefits. It provides that part time workers should have access to vocational training in the undertaking comparable to full time workers and should be entitled to receive the same treatment with regard to benefits in cash and in kind granted under "Social Assistance" or Non contributory social security schemes and access to other social services available to other employees. Under the directive, part time workers would be counted as pro rata in calculations of numbers of employees in respect of triggering thresholds for establishing employee representation bodies (such as works councils). It also provides for full time vacancies to be notified to part time workers so they can apply.

The second directive relating to atypical employees is concerned with distortions to competition and requires member states to ensure that part time workers are afforded social protection under statutory and occupational social

security schemes, underpinned by the same ground work and the same criteria as for full time employees. Thus member states would have to ensure that part time workers are entitled to full time pro-rata benefits from national social security schemes. It would require pro-rata entitlement to annual holidays, dismissal allowances and security allowances. This, argues Dickens (1992a:5) would appear to require changes to ensure that part time employees can qualify under each countries employment protection, redundancy and maternity rules.

An interesting point made by Dickens (1992a:6) is that the current directives do not go as far as previous directives on part time work.

1.6.1 Limitations of proposed Directives

The draft directives have a number of limitations as Dickens (1992a:6) points out. The 1982 directive applied the equality pro-rata principle to matters not covered in the 1990 draft directives including, discrimination in pay and working conditions. There are a variety of limitations to the current draft also. Certain employment protection rights are not covered such as time off for union duty and the requirement is to inform rather than consult with unions over the use of atypical employees.

Workers on zero hours or minimum-maximum contracts may fall outside the scope of the directives, as well as homeworkers, often working part time if held to be self employed.

The history behind the absence of protection for part time workers in Ireland reflects a stereotypical view of a women's role in society and the value of women's work. This is particularly evident from debates on the redundancy payments act 1967.

Prior to the Regular Part time Workers Act (1990) it has been stated that protection for such workers was derisory (Wilkinson 1993:122). The government having finally recognised the increase in part time workers introduced the Worker Protection Act (Part time employees Bill 1990) in the Dail on 19th December 1990.

The act extends the benefits of a range of protective legislation to regular part time workers. Such employees are defined as those who are in continuous employment of an employer for not less than 13 weeks, and who are normally expected to work not less than 8 hours per week.

All regular part time employees are now entitled to public holidays on the same basis as full time employees, the benefits of the Redundancy Payments Act 1967-1990, the Maternity Protection Employees Act 1981, and the Protection of Employees Act 1984 and 1990.

Wilkinson (1993:126) identifies a number of short comings in relation to the Act while recognising that it is a welcome extension to protection of a large sector of the peripheral workforce. The maintenance of the eight hour threshold is problematic in the context of the European community discrimination law. Wilkinson argues the majority of part time workers who work less than eight hours are women, the eight hour threshold places women at a disadvantage. The thresholds may infer indirect discrimination and thus be contrary to European Community Law.

The Act does not apply to those on contract work and through employment agencies. Despite the provisions of the act and the existence of other equality legislation, certain aspects of employment are not covered legislation consequently an attempt was made by the Workers party but was defeated.

The legislation itself was preceded by a Trade Union campaign which sought a considerable extension of rights to part time employees. Employers on the other hand viewed such protection as posing obstacles to continued and future employment.

1.7 Employment trends in hotels, tourism and the hospital sector

During the 1980s, the relative positions of the manufacturing and service sectors continued to change. In employment terms (1980-90) service employment grew 16 % while manufacturing employment declined by 25%. By 1990, service industry employment had risen from 60% in 1980 to 69% in 1990.

During the 1980s only banking and finance and insurance grew faster than hotels and catering (31%). In the UK, employment growth in the hotel and catering industry continued at around twice the rate as in the service sector as a whole, and by 1990 hotel and catering comprised 8 % of all service sector jobs, an increase from 7 % in 1980 Lucas (1992a:34).

In Ireland, the Cert manpower Survey (1993:3) provides information on the regional distribution of employment and current employment practices within the sector. The Cert study reveals that there is a continuing move from seasonal full time and part time to permanent part time. Female employees are in the majority accounting for 63% of all employees in the industry.

Changes in the nature of hotel and catering employment in recent times have not, in the main been for the better. The historical fact of low pay, low status and highly stigmatised jobs has been compounded by employer strategies to weaken further the power of employees by moving towards increased numerical flexibility in the use of labour: The increased employment of workers limited in bargaining power, most notably women: The creation of a multiplexed workforce incorporating a strata of low skill, deskilled and degraded jobs many of which are heavily sex typed: and heightened divisions within the workforce engendered by the utilisation of greater numbers of peripheral and casual and part time workers at the expense of the full time core staff. Wood (1992:163).

The Cert manpower study (1993) provides detailed information on employment in a wide range of tourism related activities. The range of tourism products are extremely varied and categorised into forty categories. The present research concentrates on only one tourism product known as Visitor Centres, which are operated by both the public and private sector alike. Seventy three per cent of all em-employees employed in this sector are employed on a seasonal or temporary basis. However, it should be mentioned that the intense nature of the peak season means that 80% of seasonal and temporary workers are employed on a full time basis, the survey also found that 82% of seasonal workers are females.

A well established health sector is an important component of any developed economy. The health sector in Ireland has traditionally been a substantial employer and much growth has occurred in recent years. At present there are

approximately 65,000 people employed in the operation and administration of health services in Ireland according to health statistics published by the department of health (1990:136).

1.8 The flexibility debate -The issues

The theoretical base sustaining what has become known as the flexibility debate was developed in the first half of the eighties by John Atkinson and Nigel Meagher and was explicitly designed to address the issue of which factors shape the use of peripheral labour in employer labour use strategies. The core/ periphery theory proposed has achieved considerable acclaim. It appears superfluous to detail the theory and more appropriate to deal with the issues it raises or omits.

Briefly, Atkinson proposed that employers have developed a "Flexible manpower strategy". It has an inner core of stable, or skilled employees with secure employment and good working conditions. In this particular case, flexibility is qualitative. Traditional craft demarcation lines are relaxed and workers are trained to be multiskilled. Around this core is an outer layer of peripheral workers with poorer conditions more directly determined by the market and with security of employment largely based on how busy the establishment is. Here flexibility is quantitative. Traditional craft demarcation lines are relaxed and workers are trained to be multiskilled. Finally the firm may depend less on direct employment and to a greater or lesser extent on peripherals such as part time temporary and contracting out.

Although the model was developed in the UK. context, inevitably perhaps it has emerged into the debate on atypical work in Ireland. Obviously the identification by Atkinson of the various "pressures" which support the emergence of flexibility have resonance in Ireland as in many market economies.

Although a useful conceptual device, the model is not without its opponents (Pollert 1987, McInnes 1988, Bagueley 1991). In Ireland an exploratory analysis of the development of the forms of flexibility associated with the flexible firm model, undertaken on the basis of reported material, concluded that while flexibility deals have increased, the flexible firm has not yet

emerged in the Irish context (Suttle 1988, cited in Wood 1989). The present study attempts to establish the relevance of Atkinsons model in the context of the Irish services sector.

The flexible firm model was developed on the basis of research in the private sector yet, developments within the Irish state sector where change is particularly marked for example in the use of temporary staff indicate it can also be applied in the public sector. Dickens and Luckhaus (1990:38) This research evaluates manpower utilisation strategies in both the public and private sectors in Ireland.

Flexibility may embrace a number of forms namely numerical, functional and financial also a distancing / contracting out strategy.

Frequently referred to as external flexibility numerical flexibility has proved one of the most controversial types. The essence of numerical flexibility is that it involves tailoring staff utilisation in conjunction with peaks and troughs of business activity, this would generally involve usage of part time temporary and casual staff. It has been cited that the advent of such diverse forms of employment patterns have enabled employers more discretion in the distribution of hours through the week and indeed possibilities for the allocation of shift work and part time working arrangements including weekend work and formulas such as job sharing. Treu (1992: 505)

There appears little doubt that as part of the service sector the hotel industry has a long history of relying on low paid, low skilled, casual and part time and seasonal employment and in this sense has followed a typical service industry pattern of relying on numerical flexibility to cope with the uncertainty of market conditions. Lockwood and Guerrier (1989:9) conducted research based on the above model in the UK and concluded that numerical flexibility was primarily based in peripheral group two. The present research will consider manpower utilisation strategies within hotels, tourism outlets and hospitals in Ireland.

A further issue raised in the research and one considered also by Walsh (1991:109) was that numerically flexible staff frequently perform tasks in key areas central to the profitability of the establishment within a hotel situation this may be witnessed in the banqueting department. If however, as Baggueley argues (1991:738) such staff are central to operations it is

inappropriate to refer to them as peripheral employees. Lockwood and Guerrier (1989:13) note that in relation to casual staff attempts by management to build skills and commitment are complicated as the staff being hired and rehired just for the hours required, are not actually the employees of the hotel concerned. The issue of employee loyalty amongst part time, temporary, fixed term and also casual workers is considered in the present study.

Rather ironically, Riley (1992b: 738) argues that despite its reputation as a "real problem" high labour turnover may be invaluable to the service of numerical flexibility as turning recruitment on and off like a tap is probably the easiest mechanism available from a managerial control perspective. The present study evaluates turnover levels of core and peripheral groups within respondent organisations.

The gender issue surrounding numerical flexibility is well researched namely Wickham 1992, Dickens 1992, Sproull and McGregor 1990, however the issue surrounding areas perceived to be dominated by women and therefore ripe for peripheralisation has rarely been touched upon and worthy of research.

It is pertinent to mention at this stage that rather than being a primarily new development in hotels both numerical and functional flexibility have been used to a greater or lesser extent particularly in times of a labour shortage. Given the current state of the labour market supply it may also be an appropriate management strategy from a budgetary control stance.

Prompted by the core periphery strategies many authors have lamented the neglect of an alternative source of flexibility (namely functional)

Functional flexibility concerns the application of multiskilling within the workforce. At a glance, functional flexibility appears more "socially acceptable" strategy than many alternative forms of flexibility. However there are difficulties associated with its introduction. For example the introduction of functional flexibility vertically down the organisational hierarchy may be easily obtainable however to become multiskilled at ones own skill level may take considerably longer and to institute functional flexibility upwards may be even

more difficult. In terms of ease of application numerical and financial flexibility are far more attractive options. Taken in context, given the current situation of oversupply in the labour market, Riley (1992a:738) notes that it may be "a last resort strategy" remembering that technical substitution is always a possibility.

In essence functional flexibility implies role change, some deskilling and a move away towards single status, the destruction of groups and other structured interests.

In a "perfect world" everybody in the organisation would be multiskilled and willing and able to don different hats and use different skills in response to business fluctuations. For the employer to a certain extent there is stability in flexibility. There are a number of problems associated with its institution and these shall be fully dealt with at a later stage. Turning alternatively to the gender issue within the institution of functional flexibility, it is an area which has largely remained neglected to a large extent. Baggueley (1991:743) argues that men are more likely to be involved functional flexible that is related to occupational segregation as men are much more likely than women to be involved in general hotel management. In the UK (hotel and training board) research found people in managerial or administrative positions had the most diversity in their work, followed by kitchen jobs. People working in reception of the front office had the least. The operative positions are those occupations in hotels such as cooks, waiting staff and bar staff, kitchen hands, domestic staff and cleaners which are overwhelmingly filled by women. The present research raises the question, is functional flexibility only limited to male employees or is there a strong bias in the likelihood of male workers being functionally flexible? It is hoped to formulate a response to this question later in the research.

Both deregulation and flexibilization have accelerated the erosion of notions of vocational skill and job security (traditionally defended demarcation rules) Within many industries, skill polarisation favours the feminization of employment. Traditionally, sexual inequality within the labour market has been perpetuated through sexual segregation in entry to specific jobs, covering both the level of recruitment and subsequent promotion. However if a growing proportion of all jobs, have no promotion potential that is they are static rather than progressive then one mechanism intensifying sexual inequality is reduced Standing(1989:10)

Riley (1992b:366) continues to argue that in order to implement any strategy directed promoting flexibility would have to address the following issues:

- 1. The simplification of existing jobs using work study, and technological substitution.
- 2. A search for core skills and knowledge across functional boundaries.
- 3. The use of marketing and information technology to transfer knowledge from jobs to guests?
- 4. The reorganisation of the pay structure from a hierarchy of occupations to a hierarchy of time periods based on principles of convenience.

If functional flexibility serves the economic interests of employers its benefits for employees will be even greater flexibility in the work rota's. This in itself according to Riley should be the main incentive for employers to want such a change.

A cynical view may well be that functional flexibility may only be a serious contender when the employment rights of part time workers are equalised with their full time equivalents.

A realistic view however might be that functional flexibility will evolve only when there is constant qualitative demand from consumers which forces management to retain their staff.

Wages have not remained untouched by the pressures for greater flexibility and considerable attention has been devoted to the need to make wages more flexible in the sense of being more closely correlated with the various indicators of organisational and individual performance.

The extent to which the structure of pay encourages and supported the numerical and fictional flexibility which the establishment seeks and the level of pay reflects individual performance in past and the market rate in question.

1.8.1 Flexibility and Size of the Organisation

The relationship between establishment size and the demand for peripheral labour can be developed in a number of ways. The literature on the flexible firm concentrates primarily on the dynamics of a larger organisation, reorganising its activities and labour force to produce establishments able to respond more flexibly and more efficiently to changing economic circumstances. A number of researchers (Shutt and Whittington 1987, Storey and Johnson 1987) however, have found the growth of the small firm sector in part as a response to the restructuring of larger organisations. This issue is a consistent theme in the present study as many organisations in the selected sectors tend to operate in relatively small units employing less than twenty people.

A further issue to be considered in this research is the limited scope for labour specialisation within smaller sized organisations. The scale of smaller organisations activities constrains its ability to hire specialist workers on a full time basis unless such skills are readily available from the pool of flexible or peripheral employees. An additional feature of smaller establishments which may influence the recruitment and deployment of peripheral labour include the lower levels of unionisation in the sector. Levels of unionisation, recruitment practices and training in relation to small organisations are thoroughly investigated in this research.

Equally the ELUS (McGregor and Sproull 1990:43) argues that there is likely to be significant variations between public and private sectors reflecting the sectoral mix within each camp as well as the differences in the average size of the establishments. Notably the flexible firm literature leans heavily on the model of the large private sector firm restructuring to cope more effectively with long run competition and an uncertain environment. Concurrent with this the Public Sector is not free from external funding pressures, cash and staffing limits have become widespread and uncertainties about the future funding environments have entered more directly into the resource allocation processes. It could be argued that the pressure on costs and the need to secure in built flexibility to respond to future exigencies will push Public sector bodies in the same direction as the private sector, although the extent and the nature of the shift need not be identical.

1.8.2 Training Implications

Functional Flexibility involves a reallocation of work between employees so that the same employee becomes able to carry out any of an enlarged number of tasks. This may involve horizontal enlargement of competencies at approximately the same competence level or vertical enlargement which may be either upwards or downwards. As previously referred to, it is in the core workforce that functional flexibility is expected or most likely to develop and its realisation is seen as being dependent on a considerable degree of job security for such employees and the possession, or at least the opportunity for them to acquire appropriate skills. This research attempts to establish whether core employees are more likely to be functionally flexible than peripheral workers.

It is commonly accepted and frequently cited Brown (1990:324) that left to its own devices the private sectors will not produce adequate levels of training. Skills are very much a collective good and a firm/establishment which invests heavily in training risks seeing employees poached by competitors who will reap the benefit Streeck (1989). However, without a highly skilled labour force the full advantages of functional flexibility cannot be optimised. Recently the Independent Business supplement 27/08/93 published a comment relating to a plan put forward by IBEC "IBEC has proposed greater employer say in training programmes "It is important that firms take ownership of their training

It is also envisaged that firms would cooperate much more closely in putting together training packages for their staff. It would make sense for groups of firms to look at their needs in common so as to overcome some of the disadvantages of their small size.

A major attraction of the notion of flexibility is that it brings together a number of features of the organisation of work and employment relations within organisations of the labour market and the labour force, which have often been considered in isolation form each other will only go part way to providing an assessment of how far European society has moved towards more flexible patterns of employment.

1.8.3 The humanisation of work

On the face of it functional flexibility has its own built in incentive that is for the unskilled it will involve taking on a number of small skills and doing a more interesting job. One major argument proposed in favour of functional flexibility/ multiskilling at establishment level is that such approaches include elements that are important components of theoretical perspectives on the humanisation of work (job enrichment and sociotechnical systems theory) and as such might be expected to contribute to such desirable individual and organisational outcomes as increased job satisfaction, motivation and lower absence and turnover. Riley (1992b:366) notes that functional flexibility will permit work rotas to be devised that will allow social and unsociable hours to be distributed more on a basis of convenience than previously.

Having dealt with the barriers, it should be noted that Riley (1992b: 367) argues that the hotel industry at least is used to handling newcomers and first jobbers which gives the industry a tremendous start in implementing functional flexibility unlike perhaps the health care/ hospital sector where turnover rates may be lower. This research will seek to evaluate labour turnover rates in each of the sectors included in the primary research.

Disadvantages of atypical employment

Dickens (1992a:14) outlines some of the disadvantages facing atypical employees these are relevant to the present research as it highlights the disadvantages suffered by atypical employees.

It is a well established fact that women's average pay is below that of men's. Atypical working may reflect this norm and also magnify it.

It is also known that part timers are to be paid a lower hourly rate than full timers doing the same job in the workplace. Where services have been contracted out, those providing them often get detached from the pay structures of typical employees. Unlike full timers part timers rarely receive a premium pay for working beyond their contracted hours for unsociable hours (working at weekends, early mornings, evenings or at night. Lack of income security is not only limited to part time employees, temporary employees also suffer unpredictability of earnings.

An important factor of lifetime earnings is progression up pay structures, atypical employees may be disadvantaged in this respect.

The lack of opportunities to work fewer than full time hours at higher levels within organisations results in part time women frequently being overskilled for the work they do.

Atypical employees may also have less access to training than their full time counterparts, this issue in particular has been well researched and will be returned to at a later stage. A comparative analysis regarding access to training between core and periphery employees is carried out in the present research.

The disadvantages of having an atypical work pattern interact with the reduced pay and pay opportunities associated with atypical work. Child birth and women's primary responsibility for child care and the resultant employment discontinuity not only implies direct loss of earnings due to labour force withdrawal but in addition indirect loss due to atypical employment patterns with their inherent low rates of pay. It has been calculated that the cost of having children is some 30% of lifetime earnings for women Newell and Joshi (1987) (cited in Newell 1992)

Atypical workers who are not considered employees will not be awarded the same occupational benefits such as sick pay, paid holidays and occupational maternity leave and pension schemes. The present research addresses these issues and some interesting trends emerge.

Inherent in flexibility is the fact that atypical workers provide for employers the ability to adjust labour to demand, conspicuously perhaps employment security for such workers tends to be precarious. It is frequently cited that atypical employees are used as a buffer stock providing protection to core employees in the instance of redundancy.

Insecurity and inability to plan for the future are additional disadvantages atypical employees encounter vis a vis their typical counterparts which may have a psychological impact on the individual concerned.

1.8.4 Voluntary Initiatives to Improve the position of Atypical Employees

Irish employers appear to be taking a reactive as opposed to proactive stance towards voluntary initiatives with regard to improving the lot of atypical employees. In the United Kingdom, many companies are currently rethinking their position regarding access to company sick pay schemes and occupational pension schemes. Dickens (1992b:10)

Within the United Kingdom framework voluntary developments have also been encouraged by an awareness of demographic changes and the rediscovery of women as a valuable labour market resource.

Demographic change, and a need to retain and recruit women is something occupying unions as well as employers, particularly in the United Kingdom and Western Europe. Ireland however, has one of the "youngest" labour forces in the European Union current initiatives are more likely to concentrate on employment initiatives which may imply atypical contracts. In the UK. part of the union response to the decline in full time male employment and membership losses in the 1980's has been to develop campaigns around full time rights for part time workers targeting the growing number of part time workers as members or potential members, have launched major campaigns and the TUC held a conference on Part time work in July 1991 to signal its recognition of the importance of such workers.

A recent survey in the Employment Gazette (UK) states that higher status work is not widely available however, opportunities are increasing, however, it also qualifies this emphasising that innovative management policies are required to help create more higher status part time job opportunities. The current research aims to develop further this issue by examining the availability of such "Higher Status jobs in the Irish Services Sector".

The appearance of higher status jobs being available to atypical employees may be due to any one of the following:

1. Operational Reasons:

Which are traditionally given as the reason for the employment of numbers of part time workers and shift workers.

2. Strategic Reasons:

Involving conscious and forward looking planning for the usage of labour. Strategic reasons are associated with two inter related factors. Firstly there is the importance of retraining experienced and trained staff in general and a recognition of the costs to the organisation of a high turnover. It noted that in the report this may be particularly important to companies where the costs of high labour turnover is perceived to be specifically relevant to the hospitality sector.

3. Reactive reasons;

Finally reactive reasons generally, expressed in terms of retaining a valued and experienced employee on an ad hoc basis and is a reactive response as opposed a result of a long term strategic plan.

It was also noted that companies which need permanent extra coverage of peak hours may have a fairly large and stable group of relatively low status part timers usually women.

These part timers are not likely to move up the career structure and are often regarded by managers as unambitious and satisfied with their position. Traditional operational systems, in creating a number of lower status part time jobs, can also offer some higher status opportunities to part time staff who due to the demands of shift patterns, will be needed for supervision management and staff welfare.

1.9 The Trade Union response

As a result of the economic crisis of the 1970s the trade unions have undergone a marked decline and were initially on the defensive regarding all aspects of labour relations (Fisher 1990, Kochan 1988)

There is little doubt that many European Unions are in crisis. Unions movements have experienced falling membership and density reflecting mass unemployment, the decline of traditional industries and the spread of

secondary labour markets in which employment is often precarious and difficult to organise cites Hyman (1992:34). Such changes have been obvious for some time - a relative decrease in industrial labour predominantly male and an increase in female workers predominantly female and younger workers. Delson (1990: 260)

Roche (1993:88) attributes three sets of factors to trade union growth or decline, described as cyclical influences, structural influences and institutional influences. The latter is the most important in the current debate, in the development of atypical employment.

- 1. Structural influences: Trade unions have found it easier to penetrate some industries than others also unions internationally have found it easier to retain and recruit members in the public rather than the private sector. Men also have shown a higher inclination, or have enjoyed greater opportunity than women to unionise. As the distribution of the workforce changes across sectors, occupations and genders, types of employment contract (full time, part time, permanent, non permanent) and enterprise sizes, the trend in union growth is either accelerated or decelerated. The present research addresses this issue particularly the greater propensity to unionise within the public sector.
- 2. Institutional Influences: Arise form the manner in which the institutions regulating the labour market and industrial relations are structured. Likewise strategies of employers may exert an important influence on unionisation. Finally the level at which collective bargaining is conducted may also affect trade union growth. This is a particularly salient point in light of the fact that employers have been moving towards a more individualised relationships with employees Hyman (1992:34)

The Warwick industrial relations research unit report "Trade unionism into the 1990's" found that management had taken steps to increase the individualisation of the employment relationship. The most radical departure was the introduction of personal contracts in some grades, but this was supplemented by a rapid increase in the use of appraisal schemes, management by goals, and temporary promotions. Thus, even where individualisation did not take atypical contractual forms, it did make staff increasingly reliant on non collective regulation in their career paths E.I.R.R (1993:18)

Trade Unions did not manage to unionise the female entrants on the labour market. The present trade union policy still gives a priority to full time members, and a general working time reduction is still their prime instrument to cut the number of jobless. Delson (1990:264) The present research will examine union densities amongst atypical workers.

However, the challenge ahead is great for the trade unions which will have to respond to the pressures for greater individual diversity of working time patterns and for production flexibility, without losing the collective objective of redistributing and maintaining some minimum standards of work. They have to cope with the growing number of peripheral workers i. e. try to internalise them, while still having to count on the core labour force. The traditional institutions of industrial relations are challenged because they were devised for stabler and more homogeneous reality than that prevailing in the service society Treu (1989:149)

Union density in the hotel and tourism industry has traditionally been low and remains so. Riley (1985:99) However, the health sector has displayed a much greater propensity to unionise. Conspicuous features of the hospitality industry most cited are: Its fragmented structure, high labour turnover, abundant foreign labour, tipping ect. However, in search of a more thorough explanation for such low density amongst hotel employees Wood and McCaulay (1992:20) identified numerous features of the industry which closely demonstrate this point:

- 1. The ethos of hotel and catering work
- 2. The structure of the workforce
- 3. Employer and management attitudes towards trade unions
- 4. The role of trade unions in encouraging and discouraging unionisation.

The hotel and catering industry employs many part time workers and these are often regarded as difficult to recruit. Many part time workers work shifts and feel themselves (or are made to feel like outsiders) They may not have regular contact with other employees. This can diminish workplace cohesion

which is often an important precondition for effective union organisation. Furthermore, most part time work in the industry is undertaken by women and women have often felt ignored and neglected by the trade unions movement. The large numbers of casual and seasonal workers further militates against effective unionisation. This effect is increased by the high rates of labour turnover common in the industry and the distribution of the hotel and catering workforce amongst small establishments.

According to Wood and McCauleys study (1992:26) employer and management hostility to trade unionism persists. Moreover, employees, perceptions of this hostility has a role in forming apparent psychological barriers to acceptance of the likely benefits.

It has been argued that there is a link between unionisation and the peripheral workforce in a number of ways McGregor and Sproull (1990:17) At a most general level, a growth in the peripheral labour use has implications for trade unions given the greater problems encountered in recruiting and retaining part time employees. More specifically the decision by an employer to increase the peripheral component in their labour force may be partly conditioned by a desire to weaken the hold of trade unions.

Low densities have been reported for temporary employees Sproull and McGregor (1990:234) This issue will be discussed in greater detail at a later stage in the research.

To date very few writers have recognised any benefits accruing to atypical workers from trade union membership.

The problems implicit in the notion of flexibility for the trade unions have been expressed by Atkinson (1987:98)

- Recruiting and organising peripheral workers is much more difficult to achieve, relevant factors being the tenuous relationship between peripheral workers and employer: the isolation of peripheral workers, their unorthodox patterns of attendance, the self employed status of some peripherals.
- 2. Legal protection of such workers is modest leaving the union reliant on collective bargaining to push for better conditions for these workers.

3. Bargaining strength among peripheral workers is likely, nevertheless, to be undercut by the relative oversupply of such workers on the external labour market.

Atkinson also foresees problems with the core workers:

- 1. Competition for influence over core workers between unions and employers is already evident, and it is by no means clear that unionism will automatically maintain its traditional resonance for workers. The extent to which they enjoy employment security, merit pay and single status, and are not subject to authoritarian and hierarchical work disciplines, is the extent to which they may abandon collectivism for incorporation.
- 2. Single craft unionism has been a potent focus for organising workers with common interests. However, as core jobs are less and less likely to be based on single skills, craft unions will find themselves competing with one another for bargaining rights, while facing all the problems of the general unions in organising a membership with a host of different skills and interests.
- 3. Worker competition between core and periphery could develop as core worker conditions of employment become undercut by peripheral workers. Collective solidarity is further reduced in this way.

Despite the more or less consistent rejection of flexibility by unions nationally and locally local initiatives have frequently accepted such management initiatives. There is a clear gap in the rhetoric and the reality of the workplace.

Atkinson (1987:98) has crystallised the responses into four main classifications:

The Ostrich Approach: Holds that segmentation between core and periphery is not really happening and that management initiatives to create flexibility through restructuring their workforces are confined to one or two isolated incidences. They do not therefore call for any change in the traditional union approach to organisation and recruitment.

The Dinosaur approach: Accepts that significant changes are under way, but considers them to be a by product of recession and deregulation. As such their are temporary phenomena, and all the unions need to do is hang on until a labour government and or economic stability restore the status quo.

The Bourbon approach: Holds that flexibility deals are simply a 1980's version of productivity deals. Not only did the unions survive but also some workers prospered under them.

The Opportunist approach: Recognises that there are substantial advantages to be secured for individual workers and for a union which can represent them, in acquiring a core staff. This approach often trades the acceptance of flexibility for a single union agreement and possibly an employment security pledge.

None of the approaches offer any unifying analysis: They are no more than a series of defensive postures.

The obvious objective from a union perspective must be to produce a bargaining response which furnishes some real benefits from flexible working arrangements without sacrificing union strength the strategies adopted by unions must be perceived to be relevant and appropriate to all the workforce within their operational influence. This would limit the ability of management to drive wedges into the union position and thereby false choices between servicing supposedly secure core workers at the expense of the less secure periphery.

The unions themselves regard responses as one of the following:

On the basis that employee involvement and demands for greater flexibility are "nothing more than a misguided desire for a union free environment "Canadian Union leaders statement.

Pragmatic scepticism: Reported in 1989 (ATGWU)"The union does not advocate or promote participation in these new style management techniques. But we do recognise that many of our members are already caught up in them and need guidance about how to apply basic principles of control to them. In February 1993 the unions paper T & G record stated that "The challenge now is not how to resist the implementation of these systems

(for they are here) but how to respond to their introduction in such a way that allows companies and unions to function."

Participation mechanisms organised for workers such as works councils are inapplicable to atypical employees. Cordova (1986:53) cites several examples whereby such employees are unable to participate.

A number of alternative options for the trade unions have been identified, these are briefly outlined below: The report however, does recommend the following options that trade unions should follow

- 1. The belief that new forms of work organisation will form an increasingly significant element of management's strategy to ensure competitiveness.
- 2. Achieving competitiveness is essential to long term job security.
- 3. A recognition that new forms of work offer the potential to provide for an improved quality of work life for union members.

Based on the above criteria (notes the report) it quickly becomes apparent, that a response based on opposition would be both inappropriate and inadequate. In addition the report notes "such an approach (opposition) is likely to significantly undermine the perception and credibility of unions as well as leading to increased marginalisation".

Flexibility on workers terms : At present there appears little chance of this developing save from some flexitime arrangements .

In order to extend union influence to the periphery it has been mooted that the trade unions should possibly take the following action:

- 1. Limit the scale of periphery employment to an absolute minimum.
- 2. Ensure pro-rata terms and conditions of employment for periphery workers.
- 3. Open up access to bridges between the periphery and the core.
- 4. Limit the enforced duration of workers in peripheral status to a minimum.

Many unions have seen the need to recruit part time workers and fight for pro rata terms and conditions. Paradoxically, despite resistance, much growth potential stems from atypical employees.

The implementation of functional flexibility has frequently given employers an opportunity to **by pass** the unions. Innovations in this field, as in working time practices have given them an ideal opportunity to introduce participative management practices and establish direct relations with employees outside union channels. Such practices have gained ground especially where they had government approval, as in the United Kingdom, and in the weakly unionised areas (tertiary sector, high tech firms)

The unions have reacted in various ways, but in those sectors and countries where they are more solidly entrenched they have met the challenge: In return for greater internal flexibility, they have obtained guarantees of employment security, at least for the core workforce, and possibly closer involvement in company level decision making. Indeed this kind of experiment has even encouraged trade union negotiators in countries with a tradition of conflictual pluralism to move towards the participative practices typical of central European systems (Germany) Treu (1992: 507)

More recently international responses to the introduction of new forms of work have been formulated by the unions. There remains little doubt that in a situation where changes in work organisation have been driven by management, unions have taken time to assimilate the nature and scope of the change which is taking place.

In an Irish context the prime concerns have been expressed in a recent discussion document "New Forms of Work organisation Options for the unions" ICTU (1993:20)

- 1. A concern that management through the same employee involvement initiatives may establish a unitarist culture in which unions are no longer seen to have a valid or necessary role by members.
- 2. A concern that union and employee involvement with management in work organisations will weaken unions capacity to maintain strength and solidarity in collective bargaining.
- 3. A concern that new forms of work organisation, introduced primarily for reasons of competitiveness will, when fully operational lead to the

intensification of working, particularly if traditional union restraints are removed.

4. Finally, a concern that team working and increased multiskilling will not necessarily lead to skills upgrading or improved quality of working life, but may lead to relative deskilling and simple forms of job rotation if management take a short term view of competitive requirements.

Unions may fear that part time work is a counter strategy to their struggle for a collective reduction of weekly working hours. Alternatively they may fear that the promotion of part time work might lead to an increased number of precarious jobs with low skill requirements and low pay at the expense of full time job opportunities. Part time work may be seen to perpetuate the traditional roles of men and women and does not provide equal opportunities. Wickham (1992:144) This point is particularly salient in the light of the present research.

In France, the issue of flexibility in labour use, the precariousness of atypical jobs is a side issue which will be resolved at the creation of employment through economic growth. Trade unionists have adopted diverse strategies but a typical trade union view, in the UK and Belgium at least (Rubbery, Alaluf) would be that precarious work is only the tip of the iceberg: that the major long term issues are the erosion of protection of jobs, in terms of rights and wages, and the growth of a low wage segment among regular workers. Atypical employment is then one aspect of this larger issue, rather than the primary concern in its own right. As a result there is a tendency for trade unions to concentrate their attention on defending the rights of those in standard jobs. Rodgers (1991:12)

Typical trade union reactions in the past to atypical employment have been epitomised by the following comment from Bill Callaghan Secretary economic dept. TUC (1985:176)

"In practice flexibility means real wage cuts, removal of statutory support for low paid workers, action to weaken collective rights, enforced privatisation of public services, encouraging self employment, home working and contracting out."

It is important to note significantly that despite traditional union hostility or suspicion of atypical working has not prevented the introduction of new work patterns in the workplace by many firms. In the United Kingdom, a 1987 ACAS survey only 33% of managers reported that they were constrained in their organisation of work and that trade union presence had not generally inhibited the introduction of new working practices.

Interestingly, it may appear a marginally less defensive stance is now being considered in the Irish situation by the ICTU in a recent article Peter Cassells 1.08.93 Sunday Tribune

"To innovate effectively, whether it be with products, services or new forms of work based on total quality management, world class manufacturing or human resource management requires a high trust environment with workers and their unions accepted by companies as partners in their enterprises. For many Irish companies this in itself maybe the biggest single innovation that they will have to make. It may also be the most important."

Rejection of flexible labour relations by the trade unions, results in a weak labour market position for these groups. Rejection by the trade union does not stimulate personnel or flexible labour contracts to become active union members. They remain outside the trade unions. The fact that trade unions have hardly any members among categories of workers with a weak labour market position results in trade unions not bargaining for them. Many trade unions regard part time and temporary work as a phenomenon that will disappear with a return to full time employment - however unrealistic this may seem. Delson (1990:264)

Trade union policy may need to adapt to change to these new and flexible patterns of working time. The extent in which the unions will take into account what has changed in the expectations and behaviour of workers in revising their strategies will be decisive for the future of unionism. Trade unions as democratic institutions will need to overcome their distrust of this type of unionism and turn instead their energies to defending the rights of temporary workers and promoting part time work. Part time and temporary work have been advocated by employers in response to the reduction of working hours, demanded by trade unions. Until now trade union policy towards these new forms often have been defensive and trade unions acquiescent attitude has contributed to the growth of these forms. Delson (1990: 26)

1.10 Conclusions

This chapter has attempted to raise a number of salient issues which will be developed in the course of the research.

Firstly, the chapter highlighted the higher female participation rates in the services sector and the emergence of new forms of work which are particularly evident within the sector. In tandem with this, the disadvantaged position with regard to the terms and conditions, legal status and protection of atypical workers were all highlighted. The question raised from the literature is as follows: Has the emergence of atypical employment reinforced rather than eroded the traditional roles of women in our society?.

Secondly, the chapter highlighted the issue of functional flexibility and the associated benefits it brings to an organisation. The question raised from the literature is as follows: Are males more likely than females to be functionally flexible?

The next chapter outlines the methodology utilised in the present study and the following chapters attempt to answer the questions and assess the issues raised in chapter one.

Chapter Two

Research Methodology

2. Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodology used in the present study. First, the secondary research is outlined which was carried out prior to the commencement of the field work.

The primary research is outlined in the next section which details the research instrument and questionnaire design. This is followed by details of the pilot survey which was sent out and administered prior to the mailing of the questionnaire.

The population and sample size are outlined in the next sections, details of the dates of the primary research are also provided. This is followed by details of the administration and analysis of the data. Finally, it should be noted this is an exploratory study and does not claim to provides a basis for the analysis of atypical work in the service sector as a whole in Ireland.

2.1 Secondary Research

Extensive secondary research was prepared prior to the commencement of the primary research. Essentially, this involved extensive use of on-line computer search facilities in libraries throughout Ireland. Additionally it also involved a visit to the UK. to meet with a number of leading academics in the area of atypical employment.

2.2 Research Instrument

For the purposes of the present survey a self administered mail questionnaire was selected as the most effective method of collecting large amounts of information efficiently and cost effectively. A copy of the questionnaires sent out is included in Appendix B.

Due to the cost effectiveness of this method it allowed for a much larger sample to be covered. It is anticipated that the larger sample size will aid the overall accuracy of the data collected. The population and sample size for the present study are outlined in the next section. An additional advantage of using this method is that there is no interviewer present and therefore no

interviewer bias. These advantages however were set against the prime disadvantage in mail questions which is the low response rate that they yield. The response rate from the present survey is outlined in chapter three. However with regard to a poor response rate it is not as Oppenheimer (1992:34) points out the reduced size of the sample, which could be overcome by sending out more questionnaires but the possibility of bias. This is because almost invariably the returns are not representative of the original sample drawn and non response is not a random process.

2.3 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was designed with a number of key objectives:

- 1. To illicit as high a response rate as possible by making it as user friendly as possible.
- 2. To provide data pertinent to the present study.
- 3. To facilitate analysis on S.P.S.S.

The questionnaire consisted of forty eight questions the majority of which were coded as multiple response questions which allowed for analysis using S.P.S.S.

In order to facilitate ease of comprehension three identical questionnaire types were sent out to the hotel sector (indicating hotel grade), hospitals (indicating if in the private or public sector) and finally visitor centres (again indicating if in the public or private sector)

The questionnaires were accompanied with a covering letter and a self addressed, stamped envelope. It was anticipated this would enhance the response rate.

2.4 Pilot Survey

The aim of the pilot survey is to identify any ambiguous or complex questions which respondents may have difficulty with and may therefore avoid answering or answer incorrectly. The questionnaire this research was piloted on fifteen individuals currently employed in the hospitality and health sectors. This is significant as it is important that those included in the pilot study are as

similar as possible to those in the main inquiry as Oppenheimer (1992:29) points out. The pilot survey prompted a number of queries regarding the questionnaire which were subsequently adjusted.

2.5 Population

For the purposes of the present study the population for each of the three sectors surveyed are defined below:

Hotel sector

Five Star Hotels 22
Four Star Hotels 114
Three Star Hotels 196
Total 332

Tourism Sector

Within the tourism sector, all Visitor and Heritage centres in both the public and private sectors of the Republic of Ireland are included: The aggregate figures are listed below:

Public Visitor Centres 10
Private Visitor Centres 21
Total 31

Hospitals

Within the present survey all public and private, general and regional hospitals from the eight health boards are included. The aggregate figures are listed below:

Public hospitals 68
Private Hospitals 24
Total 92

2.6 Sample size

For the purposes of the present research due to the wide geographic dispersion of respondents and therefore heterogeneous profile it was considered appropriate to survey the entire population. It was also envisaged that this would enhance the validity and reliability of the survey data.

2.7 Administration of Primary Research

The questionnaires were sent following extensive secondary research between February and March 1994. The majority of completed questionnaires were returned over the following four weeks. Reminder notes were sent in early May 1994 which illicited a number of additional replies. The data analysis and subsequent interpretation of results took place between June and October 1994

2.8 Analysis of data

Following the collection of completed and usable returned questionnaires the data was administered using the Excel spreadsheet which facilitated the preparation of the data for statistical analysis in a suitable format. The statistical analysis primarily involved the generation of frequency distributions and subsequently extensive cross tabulations were generated. This formed the basis of the primary research in the present study. Following the preparation of the cross tabulations, tables were prepared to facilitate ease of interpretation and presentation.

In order to correctly administer and analyse the research data a number of important criteria were applied. Those are outlined below:

A. Geographic dispersion

In the Republic of Ireland the health services and the hospital sector is administered by eight regional health boards. As this division is broadly similar to that applied by Bord Failte it was considered appropriate to classify all respondent organisations in the present research according to the eight

health board regions. These are indicated below and identify the various counties they include:

- 1. Eastern Health Board; Dublin, Kildare, Wicklow.
- 2. North Western Health Board; Donegal
- 3. Midlands Health Board; Laois, Leitrim, Longford, Offally, Sligo, Westmeath.
- 4. Midwestern Health Board; Clare, Limerick, Tipperary
- 5. North Eastern Health Board; Cavan, Louth, Meath, Monaghan
- 6. South Eastern Health Board; Carlow, Kilkenny, Waterford
- 7. Southern Health Board; Cork, Kerry,
- 8. Western Health Board; Galway, Mayo, Roscommon.

B. Size of Organisation

The size of the organisation is an important variable as it frequently determines the types of manpower practices and personnel policies in place. Respondents in the present survey were classified according to three sizes of organisation based on the criteria of the number employed in each organisation.

- **1. Small Organisations :** Small organisations were described as those employing less than one hundred people within their organisation.
- **2. Medium Organisations :** Classified as respondent organisations who employ between one and two hundred people.
- **3. Large Organisations :** Classified in the present research as organisations employing over two hundred people

C. Skill level of Employees:

The skill level of employees is another important variable in the present research. For the purposes of the study, employees were classified into three categories which are explained below.

- **1. Unskilled employees:** Workers who require little or no training to carry out duties normally assigned to them.
- 2. Skilled employees: Staff who have undergone some training in the acquisition of job specific skills.

3. Professional employees: Staff who have undergone extensive training prior to joining the organisation and have high level skills usually of a specialist type.

D. Participation Rates of Females

The participation rate of females was particularly important in the present research when analysing the levels of functional flexibility and gender. Female participation rates were classified into three categories for the purpose of this research.

- **1. Low:** Organisation where female and married females participation is between zero and twenty-five per cent.
- **2. Medium :** Organisations where females and married females participation is between twenty-six and seventy per cent.
- **3. High:** Organisations where females and married females participation is over seventy per cent.

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the research methodology used in the present study. The following chapters which will seek to analyse and interpret the research data collected. The primary aim of the next section of this research is to integrate the research findings of the present study with the literature review set out in part one of this dissertation.

Chapter Three

Atypical Employees- Who are they?

3. Introduction

This chapter attempts to answer the questions: Who are the atypical employees. What industrial sector are they found? Is it predominantly women's work?. These questions are addressed in the next section of this research.

3.1 Response Rate

The overall response rate for the survey was 39%, as illustrated in the table 3.0 below:

Table 3. Percentage of Responses and Category of Organisation

Five Star Hotel	45
Four Star Hotel	9
Three Star Hotel	56
Public Hospital	26
Private Hospital	42
Public & Private Visitor Centres	55

Response rates were particularly strong from three and five star hotels included in the present research. Equally, private hospitals responded particularly well with 42% returning completed questionnaires. As illustrated in the table above, response rates from private hospitals was considerably better than public sector hospitals.

3.2 Composition of Respondents

The next section examines the percentage breakdown of respondents and illustrates the composition of all those replying to the questionnaire. Hotels in particular represent a substantial proportion of all respondents totalling 64%. Personal service workers in 1990 represented 4.8 % of the total labour force, this figure is forecast to increase to 5.0 % in 1996 (Fas /ESRI 1993:40). Within the Health Sector, associate professionals and health professional

accounted for 3.4 % and .9 % respectively in 1990. This category is forecast to increase only in the associate health profession category to 3.5 % in 1996. (Fas /ESRI 1993:40)

Table 3.1 Organisation type and percentage of respondents

	%	N =
Five Star Hotels	8	10
Four Star Hotels	16	21
Three Star Hotels	40	51
Public Hospitals	20	25
Private Hospitals	5	7
Public Visitor Centres	7	9
Private Visitor Centres	4	5
Total	100	128

Organisation Size

Organisation size can have an important bearing on personnel policies and manpower utilisation, both of these issues are developed later in the research. Organisation size which was measured in terms of numbers employed in the organisation is another variable which is systematically associated with many key employment variables such as earnings, labour turnover and industrial conflict all of which are pertinent to the present research.(ELUS McGregor and Sproull 1990:42)

The ELUS (McGregor and Sproull1990:42) further argues that the literature on the flexible firm primarily concentrates on the dynamics of the larger organisation, reorganising its activities and labour force to produce units able to respond more flexibly and more efficiently to changing economic circumstances.

The breakdown of organisation size is illustrated in table 1 in the appendix. Generally, the majority of hotels are considered in the small category with 76 % of Four Star Hotels and 88% of Three Star Hotels. Five Star Hotels deviate significantly in this respect with only 40 % accounting for the category "Small" organisations and 50 % accounting for "Medium" organisations. This factor is further developed in chapter five on flexibility which examines the relationship between organisation size and flexibility and as argued by Sproull and McGregor (1990:42) the scale of small establishments' activities may constrain its capacities to hire specialist workers on a full time basis unless they can provide a range of specialist skills. A further feature of smaller

organisations noted by the researchers and one reinforced by the present research is the fact that smaller organisations tend to have lower levels or unionisation which may reduce a potential constraint on employer recruitment behaviour.

Visitor Centres conform to the pattern established, that is the majority are concentrated within the small category with 78% and 100% respectively. The majority of Visitor Centres operate with relatively few staff however, for comparative purposes the Cert Manpower Survey 1993 notes that only 31% of centres employ more than nine people, and 49% employ less than five people.

Table 3.2 Organisation type and age

	<10 years	11-20 years	>20 years	Total	N =
	%	%	%		
5* Hotels	33	17	50	100	6
4*Hotels	15	8	77	100	13
3*Hotels	23	2	75	100	44
Pb.Hosp	4	0	96	100	23
Pr.Hosp	29	0	71	100	7
Pb.V.C.	100	0	0	100	6
Pr.V.C.	100	0	0	100	4

The age of the organisation was sought in order to establish the link between employment practices and the relative age of the organisation. Some interesting points emerge in this respect and are discussed later in this chapter. The British ELUS (McGregor and Sproull 1990:43) argues that the age of a particular establishment may exert some influence on the employment of peripheral labour. Age profiles the strength of establishment based systems of industrial relations. The industrial relations environment of older establishments may impose a greater constraint on local management. Alternatively, it could be argued that in younger organisations, custom and practice rules will be less well developed and work groups less well established.

Table 3.2 above illustrates the age of the establishment. Most of the respondent organisations within the hotel and health sectors are over 20 years old, the highest percentage recorded is for Public hospitals at 96 % and the lowest at 50 % for Five Star Hotels.

Five Star Hotels also report a third (33%) which are less than 10 years in operation. Notably, Visitor Centres collectively represent the youngest category with 100% less than 10 years in operation. Visitor Centres represent a new product which has been actively encouraged by recent governments from the perspective of tourism development. Additionally, it has also attracted substantial funding and grant aid from the European Union in recent years.

3.3 Manpower Utilisation in the Irish services sector

Manpower utilisation and its application is a central theme of the research in the chapter. It has been argued by Morley and Flood (1994:112) that Irish management appear very much like their counterparts abroad, by attempting to go some way towards ensuring that labour inputs are more responsive to environmental conditions. However, this may not be to the extent one may expect.

The present study has addressed the question of labour utilisation by considering three aspects. Firstly, the aggregate figure of all types of employees in all organisations in the survey is analysed. Secondly, a breakdown of manpower utilisation according to organisation size and thirdly, manpower utilisation in each type of organisation included in the survey is examined.

The present research has found that most organisations in the survey use both core and periphery employees to staff their organisations. Eighty-seven per cent of respondents stated that full time staff are employed, significantly, 13% of respondents indicate that full time staff are not used, implying perhaps a greater reliance on other more flexible forms of staff. A very high proportion of (80%) respondents stated that part time staff are used in their organisations, only 20% of respondents indicating that part time staff are not presently utilised.

Again, temporary employees demonstrate high utilisation amongst respondent organisations as 73% of respondents indicate that they currently employ them. Only 27% of organisations in the survey stated that temporary employees are not used.

Fixed term employees demonstrate a marked deviation from other categories outlined above as the majority of respondents (74%) stated that fixed term employees are not currently employed, only 26% of respondents indicated that they currently use fixed term workers.

Finally an interesting pattern emerges in the case of casual employees. Almost fifty percent (47%) of all organisations in the present survey state that casual employees are currently employed in their organisations. A further 53% stating that casual employees are in fact not used.

Overall the present research indicates a clear and distinct pattern of relatively intensive utilisation of all occupational categories within respondent organisations.

3.3.1 Manpower Utilisation and Organisation size

The next section examines the relationship between organisation size and manpower utilisation within respondent organisations in the survey. (Illustrated in Table 2 in Appendix A)

1. Full Time Employees

The majority of organisations in the survey indicate that full time employees are used. An interesting point revealed in the present research is that medium sized organisations are the most likely to employ full time staff. By contrast, 85% of small organisations state that full time employees are utilised. This represents the lowest utilisation of full time staff amongst respondent organisations. Small organisations in the present study are primarily composed of four and three star hotels and both public and private visitor centres. By contrast large organisations are generally composed of public and private hospitals.

2. Part Time Employees

The majority of all organisations in the survey state that part time staff are employed. Small organisations however, are less likely than medium or large organisations to employ part time staff. Medium sized organisations display a heavy reliance on part time staff as 89% of respondents in the survey indicate that part time staff are employed. Medium sized organisations in the present study are mostly composed of five star hotels.

3. Temporary Employees

Again the majority of organisations in the survey indicate that temporary staff are employed. However, in this case large organisations appear the most likely to use temporary staff, as 91% of respondents from large organisations indicate that temporary employees are currently used.

Respondents from small and medium sized organisations report a lower level of utilisation of temporary staff at 67 and 69% respectively.

4. Fixed term Employees

A clear pattern emerges regarding the utilisation of fixed term employees within respondent organisations in the present survey. The majority of small organisations (87%) do not employ fixed term workers, only 14% of respondents indicate that fixed term staff are employed. This may be a direct result of less formalised personnel policies in operation within small organisations, this issue will be further developed in the next chapter. However, the usage of fixed term employees increases substantially in medium sized organisations, as 41% of respondents state that fixed term staff are employed. A further 59% indicating that fixed term employees are not used. Large organisations demonstrate the greatest usage of fixed term employees as 52% of respondents state fixed term staff are present within their organisations. A further 48% state that fixed term staff are not employed. The present research indicates that large organisations are more likely to use fixed term employees than small or medium sized organisations. This may reflect the fact that large organisations are more likely to have formalised personnel policies and procedures in place than smaller organisations. The next chapter will address the issue of personnel policies in place to deal and manage atypical employees. An interesting point to mention is that large organisations in the present study are generally respondents from the hospital sector. This pattern however, may alter with the introduction of the Unfair Dismissals (Amendment) Act 1993

5. Casual Employees

Almost half of all respondents in the survey indicate that casual staff are currently employed. Unlike the situation outlined for fixed term employees, size did not appear to be a contributory factor, as only 44 % of large organisations currently employ casual staff, this increases to 53% in medium sized organisations. The present study shows that the most intensive usage of casual staff occurs in medium sized organisations which tend to compose of five star hotels.

Table 3.3 Manpower Utilisation and organisation type in the Irish Services Sector

	F/time	P/time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%	%
5*Hotels	90	70	70	30	40
4* Hotels	86	86	71	33	48
3*Hotels	88	72	67	8	54
Pb.Hosp	92	96	84	46	32
Pr.Hosp	100	100	83	67	83
Pb.V.C.	56	68	75	33	13
Pr.V.C.	80	80	80	20	20

3.3.2 Manpower utilisation and organisation type in the Irish services sector

Table 3.3 above examines manpower utilisation and organisation type from the present research data. The first point of interest is that the majority of organisations employ some full time staff, however notably, within the data set the figures range from 56 % (Public Visitor Centres) to 100 % (Private Hospitals). Secondly, the majority of organisations employ part time staff and the figures range between 68 % in (Public Visitor Centres) and 100 % for Public Hospitals.

The comparatively low reliance on full time staff in Public Visitor Centres and Private Visitor Centres can be explained in the context of seasonality within the Tourism sector. Notably, Public Visitor Centres and Hospitals rely marginally less on full time staff than their private sector counterparts.

All sectors surveyed display a high reliance on part time labour, the most notable being the health sector at 96% and 100%. The utilisation of temporary staff witnessed a marginal decline, the health sector appears the most reliant of all sectors with 84% and 83% of respondent hospitals using temporary staff.

The question relating to the utilisation of fixed term staff yielded a mixed response. The greatest utilisation of this employment type is in Private hospitals at 67%, however this figure is in direct contrast with both public hospitals (46%) and also Private sector Visitor centres at 20%. Three star hotels display the lowest percentage response at 8%, however it is argued

this may in part be due to the lack of formal personnel terms and conditions typical in many smaller rural hotels. This issue will be examined in greater detail in the next chapter.

The utilisation of casual staff also, yields a mixed response. Again, Private Hospitals display a high usage at 83%, this is in direct contrast to Public and Private Visitor Centres at 13 % and 20 % respectively. Overall the present research points to intensive usage of atypical employees particularly in the private sector.

3.4 Flexibility and Gender

The issue of flexibility and gender has been raised in the literature. To date there has been considerable academic debate surrounding this issue. Many argue that peripheral employment is almost exclusively the domain of women. Wickham (1992:5) however, argues that much of the literature exaggerates what is currently a British phenomenon (high percentage female atypical employees) into a universal truth. In the United Kingdom, current indications are that males now constitute 27% of the flexible workforce, rising from 18% in 1981 Watson (1994:239). Interestingly, the proportion of female workers who are part of the flexible workforce has remained fairly stable since the early 1980s at around 50%, conversely for men it has increased from 18% in 1980 to 27% in 1993.

The present research findings indicate the following: (as shown in Table 3, Appendix A)

- Fifty percent of five star hotels employ between 41-60% of females, only 10% report rates between 61-80%.
- One third of Four Star hotels report female participation rates between 41-60%, a further third indicate participation rates between 61-80 %.
- Three star hotels largely assume the pattern of four star hotels, however, 43% of respondents indicate participation rates between 41-60%.
- The hospital sector indicates levels as high as 80% female participation, 50% of public hospitals and 71% of private hospitals indicate this is currently the situation.
- The visitor centres display less marked concentrations, with a more even distribution across the categories.

According to a Fas Labour market review (1992) which analyses the structure of employment, the gender composition is rather similar to that in the hotel sector argues Breathnach (1992:21). The present research rejects this, and has found higher female participation rates in the tourism sector than in Irish hotels.

It is widely held within both the hotel and the health sectors there is considerable occupational segregation, both vertical and horizontal.

Recent research suggests that such segregation persists. According to the Cert Manpower Survey (1993:38) 83% of all "Front of House" and non managerial positions were held by females. Conversely, amongst managerial staff, 60% of full time managers were males, this inequality persisted even amongst part time staff as 65% of part time managerial staff were male.

Within the health sector (in the UK.) there is also a marked segregation of job, with women typically located in low paid, low status occupations, and most management positions held by men (Metcalfe 1992:17)

However, Watson (1994:240) notes that in the United Kingdom, 38% of people are in the flexible workforce. The proportion of women workers who are in the flexible workforce has remained fairly stable since the early 1980s at around fifty percent whereas for men it has increased from 18% in 1981 to 27% in 1993. The present research supports these findings.

3.4.1 Female Participation and Status

Gender composition of core and periphery employees can also be analysed on an aggregate basis from the research data. Evidence from much existing research indicates that women are over represented in part time employment the differential however, is less marked for temporary and casual staff. Dale and Glover (1992:14)

Table 3.4 Female Participation rate and Status

	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%	%
< 20%	11	26	25	38	23
21-40%	15	18	14	8	14
41-60%	32	22	26	21	25
>60%	42	34	35	33	38
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N=	109	94	84	24	56

Table 3.4 above shows that amongst full time staff 32% of respondent organisations state female staff compose between 41-60% of the workforce. Significantly 42% of respondents state full time female staff account for more than 60% of total employees. Amongst part time staff, 26% of organisations state less than 20% of employees are female. However, 34% indicate over 60% of employees are women and 22% indicate between 41-60%. This result is significant whilst one third of respondents report a high rate of female parttimers, 44 % of respondents state females account for 40 % or less of their part time staff. Thus this research indicates that part time work is not dominated solely by women rather there is a slight bias in favour of women. This contrasts with research in the UK. which found 92% of part time workers to be female. McGregor and Sproull(1990:14). Equally, in the Irish context Drew (1990:30) found that the overwhelming majority of part time workers are female in the retail and banking sectors. Temporary employees display essentially a similar pattern, that is 35% of organisations indicate more than 60% of temporary employees are female, 26% stated 41-60% of temporary workers are female . Again this contrasts with research in the UK which found that 56% of temporary workers are female. McGregor and Sproull (1990:14) Fixed term employees display a marked deviation however, as 38% of respondents state that less than 20% of employees are female. Casual employees indicate a slight bias towards higher female participation as 38% responded over 60% of employees are female, 25% of respondents stated females accounted between 50-60% of casual workers. Breathnach (1992:23) however, argues that the general pattern of employment in the tourism sector replicates that of the hotel sector with women being disproportionately represented in the sectors workforce by comparison with other sectors outside tourism and this is particularly the case with part time and seasonal/temporary work.

3.4.2 Participation of married Females and Status

The next section examines married female participation rates and occupational status in organisations included in the survey. Table 3.5 shows that amongst full time employees, 54% of organisations state less than 25% of full time female employees are married. Only 10% of respondents state more than 70% of employees are married females.

Table 3.5 Participation of married females and occupational status

	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%	%
<25 %	54	45	63	74	53
26-50%	17	18	13	8	18
51-70%	19	15	6	8	16
> 70 %	10	23	12	20	13
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N=	128	96	78	25	56

Part time employees deviate from the other atypical groups in a number of important ways. Firstly, 45% of organisations state less than 25% of employees are married females. Secondly, 23% of establishments state that more than 70% of part time staff are married females. This is significant as it represents over double the stated figure for full time employees and is also the highest amongst the atypical group. McGregor and Sproull (1990:14) in their research based in the UK. found the majority (85%) of part time workers to be married females. Likewise the research by Drew(1990:31) largely supports the view that most part time workers are married females from research in the retail and banking sectors.

The present research indicates very low levels of married females amongst both temporary and fixed term employees, as 63% and 74% of organisations state less than 25% of employees are married females. This supports recent research which indicates the majority of temporary employees tend to be young, single and female. Wickham (1993:194) found similarities between fixed term workers in the UK. and Ireland. This present research supports this view. In the United Kingdom, fixed term workers are likely to have professional jobs and be located in the Public Sector. They are also more likely to be males. Finally, casual employees display a pattern essentially similar to full time employees, that is 53% of organisations state less than 25% of casual employees are female, only 13% of respondents state more than 70% of casual employees are married females.

For full time employees the hotel sector collectively report low rates of married females, for example 60% of five star hotels and 79% of three star hotels state less than 25% of full time employees are married females. Whereas, 52% of Public hospitals indicate that between 51-70% of full time employees are married females, 26% state that over 70% of full timers are married females. However, the pattern within the health sector is uneven, as

full time staff, 50% of respondents state that married females account for 26-50% of full time employees, a further 33% state that married females represent less than 25% of full time staff.

Similar to hotels 50% of visitor centres indicated that less than 25% of full time employees are married females. Private visitor centres display relatively low levels of married females amongst full time staff as 50% of establishments indicate less than 25% of full time employees are married females and a further 50% state married females accounted between 26-50% of full timers.

Within the hotel sector there is a relatively low occurrence of married females amongst part time employees. The majority of hotels (57,56 and 62%) indicate less than 25% of part time employees are married females.

The health sector differs significantly in this respect generally, reporting considerably higher rates of married females amongst part time staff than the hotel sector. For example, 48% of public hospitals indicate more than 70% of part time employees are married females. However, this figure is not repeated within private sector hospitals which displays a much more even dispersion throughout the categories

Public Visitor centres display a polarisation of figures with 40% of organisations stating less than 25% of part timers are married females and the remaining stating that married females account for more than 70% of employees. Private visitor centres, however, indicate considerably lower rates of married females amongst part time employees, 75% of establishments state married females account for less than 25% of part timers.

Collectively, the majority of establishments indicate that a very low proportion of temporary employees are married females. Within the hotel sector 100 % of five and four star hotels and 77% of three star hotels stated less than 25% of full time employees are married females. Equally, 100 % of Private hospitals and 45% of Public hospitals indicate less than 25% of temporary employees are married females. Likewise, 100% of Private Visitor Centres and 50% of Public Visitor Centres state low levels of married females amongst temporary workers.

In essence fixed term employees (collectively) display low concentrations of married females. Within the hotel sector 75% of five and four star hotels state less than 25% of fixed term employees are married females. Conversely, however 33% of three star hotels state less than 25% of fixed term employees are married females, a further 50% indicate more than 70% of fixed term employees are married females. Once again the hospital sector displays low levels of married females with 50% of public hospitals and 100% of private hospitals indicating less than 25% of fixed term employees are married females.

Finally, 100% of Visitor Centres (both Public and Private) state less than 25% of fixed term employees are married females.

A commonly held view by many is that casual employees are married females looking for occasional work as by its very nature it may be irregular and erratic. The present research however, indicates this in fact is not the case, and a closer look at the data reveals that there are relatively low levels of married females employed as casuals within the sectors surveyed. Within the hotel sector, 80% of five star hotels state less than 20% of casuals are married females 56% of four star and 50% of three star hotels however, state that less than 25% of casuals are married females. Similarly, the health sector reports relatively low levels of married females employed on a casual basis; 38% of Public hospitals and 50% of Private hospitals indicate less than 25% are married women. Furthermore, 37% of Public hospitals and 25% of Private hospitals indicate married females represent between 26-50% of casual employees. (See Table 4 in Appendix A)

One conclusion which could be drawn from the above findings is that atypical work defined as part time, temporary, fixed term and casual are not the domain of married female workers. This finding is supported by the work of Wickham (1993) in his research in which he argues that part time work in Ireland reflects the need of the employer as opposed to the employee. The present study argues that because of its erratic and irregular nature of the hotel and health sectors, this type of work is unsuitable for married women with domestic responsibilities and may account for the relatively low participation rate.

3.5 Age and employees status

To further assist in addressing the issues this chapter raises, it is proposed to establish an age profile of employees.

Table 3.6 Employee Status and Age

	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/term	Casual
	%	%	%	%	%
< 25 years	15	32	58	50	40
26-40 years	72	50	37	45	53
41-55 years	17	18	4	5	7
> 55 years	-	1	1	-	1
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N =	115	101	86	22	60

Table 3.6 shows that Full time employees are primarily concentrated in the 26-40 year age group with 72% of respondents indicating this is currently the situation. The data for atypical employees raises some interesting points. Firstly, 50% of respondents state that part time employees are typically in the 26-40 age group. A further 32% however, indicate that employees are concentrated in the less than 25 year age group.

Temporary and Fixed term employees essentially display similar age profiles; 58% and 50% are located in the less than 25 year age group. This is significant as it reinforces other available research (Drew 1990, Wickham 1993) which asserts that temporary (and Fixed term) employees are generally younger than their full time counterparts. However, 37% of temporary employees are located in the 26-40 age group, and 45% of fixed term employees. Casual employees typically fall into two categories: Forty percent of casuals are in the less than 25 year group and a further 53% are in the 26-40 year group.

The research indicates that on average atypical employees, in particular fixed term and temporary employees, are more likely to be younger than their full time colleagues. This is supported by recent data from the Labour Force Survey (1995:4) in Ireland which indicates about half of all atypical workers are aged between 24 and 44 years old.

3.6 Unionisation

Unionisation and peripheral labour are linked in a number of ways: Typically, a growth in peripheral labour use has implications for trade unions, particularly in recruiting and retaining atypical employees. Despite the fact that trade union densities are relatively high in Ireland in comparison to the rest of Europe and currently estimated at about 45% Wickham (1993:20), the service sector has traditionally experienced relatively low levels of unionisation. The significant exception to this however is within the Public sector where densities have remained high. The present research has reinforced this with rates as high as 96% within the Public Hospitals.

This section investigates levels of unionisation within the sectors, and considers the number of unions with negotiating rights, the impact of unionisation on future recruitment plans and also the relationship between organisation size and level of unionisation.

Table 3.7 Percentage of Unionised Employees

	Full Time	Part Time	Temporary	Fixed Term	Casual
	%	%	%	$\mathscr{N}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle O}$	%
Yes	48	35	25	11	16
No	48	60	64	82	71
Don't Know	4	5	11	7	13
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N =	105	102	102	84	87

Table 3.7 shows that levels of unionisation display a clear division between the core employees (48%) being unionised and their peripheral colleagues reporting figures as low as 11% for fixed term employees. Part time employees represent a mid-point between the core and the periphery as 35% report part time staff are unionised. This supports the findings of the ELUS (McGregor and Sproull 1990:18) as employees become increasingly "distanced" they also become increasingly less likely to be unionised.

A breakdown of organisation types is provided in table 3.8 on the next page which illustrates clearly the particularly high level of unionisation within the Public health sector, as rates as high as 96% for part time and 78 % for temporary employees. These figures are in stark contrast to the private visitor centres which do not report any trade union activity.

Table 3.8 Occupational status and percentage of unionised employees

	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	$% \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}=\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$	%
5* Hotel	63	38	-	-	13
4* Hotel	36	7	15	8	15
3* Hotel	23	11	7	2	12
Pb. Hosp.	96	92	78	33	29
Pr. Hosp.	71	71	29	17	33
Pb.V.C.	50	-	33	50	-
Pr.V.C.	-	_	-	-	-

As mentioned earlier, historically the service sector has boasted much lower unionisation than other sectors (with the exception of the Public Service). The present study supports this as 58% of establishments respond that no trade unions are recognised, eighteen percent state that one trade union is recognised and a further 17 % that two to five are recognised.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined a profile of atypical employees and manpower utilisation within the Irish services sector.

Overall the present research indicates intensive usage by respondent employers particularly of part time and temporary employees. By examining organisation size the present research data reveals that medium sized organisations use part time labour particularly intensively. Likewise, it was established that large organisations use temporary labour intensively.

Equally, both public and private sector hospitals indicate intensive usage of both part time and temporary labour.

Participation rates of married females in the present survey were found to be surprisingly low.

To further assist in forming a profile of atypical employees the occupational status and average age of periphery workers was examined. Overall the present research indicates full time employees tend to be older than their atypical colleagues. By contrast the majority of temporary and fixed term workers are under 25 years old. Whereas, the majority of part time and casual employees are in the 26-40 year old bracket.

It was equally argued in this chapter that there is a strong relationship between organisation size and levels of union density as the present research reveals large organisations are more likely to be unionised than small organisations.

This chapter has formed a profile of atypical employees according to their age, gender, marital status, occupational status and propensity to unionise. The next chapter further develops this theme by examining the personnel policies and terms and conditions of core and periphery employees in respondent organisations.

Chapter Four

Personnel Policies, Terms and Conditions of Atypical Employees

4. Introduction

The previous chapter outlined a profile of atypical employees in the Irish services sector within respondent organisations. This chapter attempts to further develop the theme and considers whether atypical workers enjoy equal status and conditions within small organisations.

This chapter analyses the terms, conditions and personnel policies applied to atypical employees, whenever possible drawing comparisons with full time employees. The first section examines the categories of atypical workers that give respondent employers in the present survey difficulties when recruiting. The next section considers if employers who experience recruitment problems, will deliberately recruit atypical workers in lieu of full time employees. The issue of whether atypical employees are likely to be successful in transferring to full time work is examined in the next section. Again, organisation type and size is used to supplement the analysis.

Female application rates amongst part time, temporary, fixed term and casual workers are examined. Consideration is given to the type and size of organisations. In addition recruitment plans in unionised and non unionised organisations are examined.

The benefits that are available to core and periphery workers according to the present research employee benefits such as overtime payments, shift bonuses, holiday pay, pension and discount on goods and services are all considered. A comparison is made between the benefits available to employees in unionised and non unionised organisations.

Finally, the criteria applied in determining remuneration is examined. Again, consideration is given organisation size, type and whether the organisation is unionised.

4.1 Recruitment Problems

Employers were asked to identify which category of employee they found the most problematic when recruiting. The responses clearly illustrate (as shown in Table 4.1) that most difficulties are experienced when recruiting part time employees (39%) and temporary employees (30%). Fixed term and Casual employees are not viewed as problematic with only 15% and 16% responding positively. In attempting to establish exactly why employers experience difficulties in recruiting part time and temporary employees as opposed to the other categories, table 4.1 illustrates an interesting point. Although employers' state difficulties in recruiting part time and temporary employees, they do not regard the Part time Workers Act (1991) as a barrier or impediment to recruiting, indicative perhaps that some other force is operative.

Table 4.1 Organisation size and difficulty in recruiting periphery employees

	Small	N =	Medium	N =	Large	N =
	%		%		%	
Part Time	35	21	59	10	31	5
Temporary	30	18	29	5	31	5
Fixed Term	17	10	6	1	19	4
Casual	18	11	6	1	19	5
Total	100	60	100	17	100	19

The recruitment of part time employees is clearly the most problematic within medium sized organisations as 60% of respondents encounter problems. Almost one third of all respondents experience difficulties in recruiting temporary employees. Overall, respondents do not experience any problems in the recruitment of casual or fixed term employees.

The present research data indicates that respondents from five star hotels typically encounter problems in the recruitment of part time and casual employees. Half the respondents from the present survey believe that part time workers are difficult to recruit. Equally, one quarter of respondents

experience problems in attracting and recruiting casual staff. Problems experienced in recruiting temporary and fixed term workers are only considered problematic by 12 and 13% of respondents respectively.

Respondents from four star hotels experience numerous problems recruiting atypical workers. Part time workers appear the most problematic category for this grade of establishment, as 36% of respondents indicate that they experience difficulties. However, fixed term and casual workers also could be difficult to recruit according to 28 and 29% of respondents.

The present research indicates respondents from three star hotels experience problems recruiting part time and temporary workers. Thirty-nine per cent of respondents indicate that part time and temporary workers are a problem to recruit whilst a further 33% experience problems with temporary workers. A relatively low level of respondents experienced problems recruiting fixed term and casual employees.

The present research data indicates that Public hospitals experience severe problems recruiting part time and temporary staff. Almost half of all respondents indicate that part time workers are a problem to recruit, whilst a further 42% indicate that temporary workers are problematic.

Respondents in Private hospitals appeared to experience more problems recruiting atypical employees than their public sector counterparts. Similar to Public Sector hospitals recruitment of part tome staff is a particular problem mentioned by one third of all respondents. A further third of respondents experience problems recruiting fixed term and casual workers. Sixteen and 17% of respondents indicate that fixed term and casual employees are difficult to recruit.

Fifty per cent of respondents in Public and Private Visitor Centres experience difficulty recruiting temporary employees. One quarter of respondents in both public and private visitor centres experience problems with part time staff. Finally, the recruiting of fixed term workers is problematic in the public sector and casual employees are considered a problem to recruit by 25% of respondents in the private sector.

The issue whether employers who experience difficulties in finding full time employees would recruit atypical workers is also explored. This raises the question, is the growth of periphery employment in part due to a perceived skills shortage or employees who are not prepared to work on a full time basis. This issue is explored in more detail in chapter five.

The majority of respondents do not appear to have made a strategic decision to recruit atypical employees in lieu of full time staff. However, one third of respondents believe that a policy does operate to recruit part time and casual staff in lieu of full time employees. Additionally, 34% of respondents stated temporary workers are deliberately recruited in lieu of full time staff. This is significant because temporary workers in many respects are the same as full time workers without the same rights of tenure. Geary (1992:257) argues that only temporary employees are deliberately recruited by management in lieu of full time employees. Many managers believe that there is an "innate conservatism" amongst senior management about hiring permanent employees. The present research appears to be consistent with the findings of Meagher (1986) who found that employers considered the advantages of being able to adjust manning levels quickly to workloads, without incurring major severance costs were more significant than any advantages due to the lower wage and non wage costs.

Overall the present research indicates that medium sized organisations are the most likely to recruit atypical employees in lieu of full time workers. Responses from small and large organisations are generally similar. Thirty-nine per cent of respondents in medium sized organisations state that part time and casual employees are deliberately recruited in lieu of full time staff. Significantly, 47% of respondents believe that a policy exists to deliberately recruit temporary staff in lieu of full time employees in medium sized organisations.

In terms of a personnel policy to deliberately recruit periphery employees the question yielded a mixed response: The data for the subcategories showed marked variations.

The majority of Five Star Hotels responded positively to the question, implying they do have a policy to recruit peripherals in lieu of full timers. The most negative response was for fixed term employees with only 33% responding positively.

Four star hotels overall display a less positive response to the question with only 18% responding part timers may be recruited in lieu of full timers. The attitude towards temporary and casual employees was marked with 43% and 42% responding positively.

Three star hotels were cautious in their responses and approximately one third stated part timers, temporaries and casuals may be recruited in lieu of full time workers and only 14% fixed termers.

Public and private hospitals and Visitor Centres all display essentially similar policy with responses ranging from 13-17%, however the most notable exception is for temporary employees in the public hospital sector with 27% responding positively.

From the responses collectively the question must be asked are organisations developing a personnel policy to recruit peripherals within a narrow set of criteria or are atypical employees recruited in an ad hoc manner with a lack of overall personnel policy? The preliminary indicators in the present study suggest—that in fact the latter is the case, however further investigation is necessary in order to establish whether skills shortages play an important role in this practice.

4.2 Type of Organisation and problems in recruiting suitably skilled staff

The next section analyses each type of organisation included in the survey and investigates the difficulties experienced in finding suitably qualified staff.

Table 4.2 Organisation type and problems in finding suitably qualified staff

	Yes	No	Total	N =
	%	%		
5*Hotels	70	30	100	10
4*Hotels	81	19	100	21
3*Hotels	75	25	100	49
Pb.Hosp	50	50	100	24
Pr.Hosp	57	43	100	7
Pb.V.C	44	56	100	9
Pr.V.C	80	20	100	5

Table 4.2 shows that respondents in the five star hotel category clearly experience difficulties in finding suitably qualified staff as 70% responded positively. Only 30% of respondents indicate they have not experienced any problems.

Respondents from the four star hotel category appear to have a particularly acute problem in finding staff with the appropriate skills as 81% responded positively whilst only 19% indicate they have not experienced any problems in finding suitably qualified staff.

Three star hotels display a similar pattern of response to that outlined for five star hotels, as 75% of respondents indicate that they have experienced difficulties in finding suitably qualified staff and a further 25% state they have not experienced difficulties in finding suitably skilled and qualified employees.

A significantly different situation emerges in the hospital sector to that previously described for the hotel sector. A substantially lower proportion of employers in Public sector hospitals report that they currently experienced difficulties in finding suitably qualified staff as 50% state difficulties have occurred whilst a further 50% state they have not experienced any problems.

A similar pattern emerges in Private Hospitals as outlined for Public Hospitals. Respondents in this category are split as 57% state they have experienced difficulties in finding suitably qualified staff whilst a further 43% have not experienced such problems.

Visitor Centres in the Public sector collectively, the majority have not experienced such problems in finding suitably qualified staff as 56% responded negatively to the question. A further 44% state that they have in the past experienced problems.

Finally in the case of Private Visitor Centres the situation outlined above for Public Visitor Centres is totally reversed as 80% of respondents state that difficulties have been experienced in finding suitably qualified staff. Only 20%

of respondents state that no difficulties have been experienced in recruiting suitably qualified staff.

4.3 Atypical Employees and success in transfer to full time

This section investigates the possibility for atypical employees to transfer to full time employment. The findings are set out in Table 4.3 below.

The most positive response in this case is for part time (67%) and temporary (73%) employees who are considered by respondents to have a strong or positive success rate in transferring to full time employment within their organisations. This is an interesting point as other research indicates that many organisations use temporary employment as a mechanism for distinguishing between suitable and unsuitable employees. Likewise, Geary (1992:253) argues that the recruitment of temporary labour possesses an inherent advantage as it provides management with an excellent opportunity to screen suitable employees for permanent jobs.

The position for fixed term and casual employees however, is much weaker as 51% and 53% of employers state they would not be successful in transferring to full time employment.

The present research reveals that part time and temporary staff in small organisations are the most likely to be successful in transferring to full time work. Sixty-six per cent of respondents from small organisations indicate that temporary employees are likely to be successful. Likewise, 62% of respondents indicate that part time staff are likely to be successful. The situation however, for fixed term and casual workers is reversed as the majority of respondents consider them unlikely to be successful in transferring to full time employment.

The majority of respondents from medium sized organisations state that atypical employees are highly likely to be able to transfer into full time employment. This is particularly apparent in the case of temporary and fixed term employees. The situation is slightly different for casual employees within this category as only 67% of respondents considered them likely to be successful in transferring to full time employment. The remaining 33 % believed that such employees would be unlikely to be successful in transferring to full time work.

Table 4.3 Size of organisation and success in transferring to full time employment

	Yes	No	Don't	Total	N =
			Know		
	%	%			
P/Time	62	3 6	2	100	50
Temp	66	31	3	100	48
F/ Term	25	65	10	100	20
Casual	27	63	10	100	30
P/Time	79	21	-	100	14
Temp	100	-	-	100	12
F/ Term	100	-	-	100	5
Casual	67	33	-	100	9
P/Time	63	37	-	100	16
Temp	75	25	-	100	16
F/Term	50	50	-	100	10
Casual	63	37	-	100	8
	Temp F/ Term Casual P/Time Temp F/ Term Casual P/Time Temp F/Term	## A P/Time	% % P/Time 62 36 Temp 66 31 F/ Term 25 65 Casual 27 63 P/Time 79 21 Temp 100 - F/ Term 100 - Casual 67 33 P/Time 63 37 Temp 75 25 F/Term 50 50	% % P/Time 62 36 2 Temp 66 31 3 F/ Term 25 65 10 Casual 27 63 10 P/Time 79 21 - Temp 100 - - F/ Term 100 - - Casual 67 33 - P/Time 63 37 - Temp 75 25 - F/Term 50 50 -	Know % % P/Time 62 36 2 100 Temp 66 31 3 100 F/ Term 25 65 10 100 Casual 27 63 10 100 P/Time 79 21 - 100 Temp 100 - - 100 F/ Term 100 - - 100 P/Time 63 37 - 100 Temp 75 25 - 100 F/Term 50 50 - 100

The majority of respondents from large organisations state that atypical employees are likely to be successful in transferring to full time employment within the organisation. Temporary employees are considered the most likely to be successful as 75% responded positively. However, fixed term employees are a notable exception within the category as 50% of employers believe they are likely to be successful whilst a further 50% state it is unlikely that such employees would be successful in transferring to full time positions within the organisation.

4.3.1 Organisation type and success in transfer to full time employment

All respondents from Five star hotels state that part time employees were likely to be successful in transferring to full time employment in their organisation. Employers in four and three star hotels however, are less positive in this respect as only 64% and 67% respectively consider success in transfer likely. Almost one third of respondents in each case state in fact that it is unlikely that part time employees would be successful.

Both public and private sector hospitals display essentially a similar pattern in their responses: Fifty-eight percent and 59% of respondents believed part time employees likely to be successful in transferring to full time employment. However, forty two percent and 50% of respondents consider it unlikely.

Visitor Centres both public and private are positive as to the relative success likely to be experienced by part time employees transferring to full time employment.

The response from Five Star hotels in the temporary category is similar to that previously outlined for part time employees. All Five star hotels consider temporary employees likely to be successful in transferring into full time employment in their organisation. Four Star Hotels also consider temporary employees likely to be successful in transferring as 80% responded positively. In the case of Three Star Hotels however, only 57% of respondents state that temporary workers would be likely to be successful whilst a further 39% indicate they would be unlikely to be successful in transferring to full time employment.

Public Hospitals are considerably more positive in this case than their private sector counterparts as 80% state temporary workers likely to be successful in transferring to full time employment. Within the public sector only 67% of respondents state success is likely whilst a further 33% consider temporary employees unlikely to be successful in transferring to full time work.

Finally, Visitor Centres also consider that temporary employees are likely to be successful in transferring to full time employment as 75 and 80% responded positively.

In the case of fixed term employees 100% of respondents from five star hotels state that fixed term employees are likely to be successful in transferring to full time employment. However, the response from other grades in the hotel sector are less positive. Firstly, in the case of four star hotels only 67% believe they are likely to be successful whilst 33 % of respondents consider successful transfer to full time employment unlikely. Secondly, the majority of hotels indicate that fixed term employees are

unlikely to be successful in transferring to full time employment within their organisation.

Within Visitor Centres a clear divergence of opinion appears between the public and private sector. The public sector in this instance is more positive than the private sector as 67% of respondents believe fixed term employees likely to be successful in transferring to full time employment. This figure however, is in stark contrast to the private sector where all respondents state fixed term employees unlikely to be successful in transferring to full time work.

Respondents from the hospital sector are unsure of the success possibilities for fixed term employees transferring to full time positions. This is particularly evident in the public sector as 50% responded positively whilst the remaining 50% responded negatively. Private hospitals however, are more positive in their attitude as two thirds of respondents consider that success is likely for fixed term workers to transfer to full time employment.

The next section considers whether female application rates for full time positions are higher than those of males within organisations included in the present research. Female application rates are typically higher than those for men, the highest being for fixed term positions. However, female application rates for full time positions are equally high at (75%). A more detailed analysis follows, to establish which type of organisations have high female application rates

The present research indicates that overall respondents from the hotel sector experience very high application rates from females as shown in table 4.4 on the next page. Eighty per cent of five star hotels report that more females than males apply for positions. Equally, 75% of four and three star hotels reported more females than males apply for jobs. Additionally, public hospitals (75%) indicate very high female application rates. This figure however, decreases to 60% in the private sector. Visitor centres display an interesting divergence between the public and private sectors. Firstly, within the public sector 55% of organisations in the survey indicate more females than males apply, however, within the private sector all respondents in the present survey believe more females than males apply.

Table 4.4 Female application rates and organisation type

	Yes	No	Total	N =
	%	%		
5* Hotels	80	20	100	10
4* Hotels	75	25	100	20
3* Hotels	75	25	100	49
Pb.Hosp	75	25	100	24
Pr.Hosp	60	40	100	5
Pb.V.C.	55	45	100	9
Pr.V.C.	100	-	100	5

4.4 Future recruitment plans

Employer attitudes towards future plans regarding recruitment were sought and varied according to the organisation type. For instance unionised organisations display a lower inclination to recruit than non unionised firms, perhaps indicative that unions are viewed as a barrier or impediment to employment. The present research found the relationship between recruitment plans and unionisation particularly strong amongst full and part time workers. Only 27% of unionised organisations plan to recruit full time employees. This contrasts with 54% of non unionised organisations. Similarly, part time employees are more likely to be recruited into non unionised organisations. Flood and Morley (1994:114) argue that evidence from the Price Waterhouse Cranfield Project in 1992 indicates that increases in part time employees have occurred to a much greater extent in unionised organisations. This contrasts with the present research which indicates the non unionised organisations are more likely to recruit part time employees.

Table 4.5 Plans to recruit staff in unionised and non unionised organisations

	Unionised Co.'s	Non Unionised Co.'s
	%	%
Full Time	27	54
Part Time	27	47
Temporary	13	16
Fixed Term	-	-
Casual	36	39

Table 4.5 above indicates that plans to recruit temporary employees are more likely to occur in non-unionised organisations although the differential is less marked than for part time employees. Likewise, Flood and Morley (1994:114) note that temporary employees are also more likely to increase in non unionised organisations. Finally, casual workers are more likely to be recruited into non unionised organisations.

Recruitment plans in organisations regarding core and periphery employees is examined, which may determine if employer strategies exist to increase the reliance on the periphery workforce within respondent organisations in the survey. The present research indicates that no strategy exists to increase the reliance on the periphery labour force as 39% of respondents stated they intend to recruit part time employees. This decreases to 28% for casual workers and to 14% for temporary workers.

A further aspect of worker behaviour pertinent to the issue of peripheral working forms is labour turnover. It may be anticipated that labour turnover may be higher amongst the peripheral group with consequently lower levels of commitment to the organisation. The present research findings point to significantly higher turnover amongst atypical workers. Part time workers display the lowest level of labour turnover with only 20% remaining less than one year and 42% between 1 and 3 years. Conversely, temporary, fixed term and casual workers display substantially higher turnover rates particularly in the less than one year category.

Table 4.6 Labour turnover rates of core and periphery employees

	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	$% \frac{\partial C}{\partial x}$	%	%
< One year	1	20	63	52	47
1-3 years	24	42	27	33	21
>3 years	75	38	10	14	32
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N=	106	89	83	21	52

Table 4.6 above shows that part timers represent a mid point between core and periphery employees in terms of conditions and employment patterns.

The previous section has analysed categories which management found difficulty in recruiting, and suggests that although turnover rates of fixed and casual employees is very high (52 % and 47%) overall management do not experience any difficulty recruiting these categories. This may suggest that high turnover may be a deliberate management strategy within this group.

The ELUS (1990:19) found that 52% of employers stated that the same level of labour turnovers as full time workers and Wickham (1992:107) states that 64% of employers rated "No difference " between part timers labour turnover and that of full timers . Drew (1990) conversely found that 58% of respondents in both banks and supermarkets stated labour turnover of part timers was higher than that for full timers. The evidence from the present study is supportive of Drew's (1990) findings.

It should be noted however, that while Wickham's (1993) research was a comparative study in a European context, Drews research was purely a comparison between supermarkets and banks in Ireland.

4.5 Formal induction courses

This section outlines the likelihood of full time (core) employees and their peripheral colleagues receiving formal induction courses.

Induction courses are significant in a variety of ways: It demonstrates clearly if there is a discriminatory attitude towards atypical employees and whether a progressive approach is taken towards integrating peripheral staff into the organisation.

Table 4.7 Induction courses available to core and periphery employees

	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%	%
Yes	71	49	53	27	32
No	29	51	47	73	68
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N =	116	107	109	63	85

Table 4.7 above indicates that full time employees are at a clear advantage in terms of induction courses than their atypical colleagues, over 70% of respondents state that induction courses are provided for full time staff. Over 50 and 49% of respondents indicate that induction is available to temporary and part time staff. Casual and fixed term workers fared particularly poorly, as only 27 and 32% of organisations in the present survey offered induction courses.

Table 4.8 Formal induction courses for core and periphery employees

	Full Time	Atypical
	%	%
5* Hotel	80	40
4* Hotel	76	36
3* Hotel	71	42
Pb.Hosp	58	31
Pr. Hosp	57	50
Pb.V. C.	100	49
Pr.V. C.	75	54

There is a striking imbalance between the core and peripheral staff illustrated in table 4.8 above. Clearly, core employees enjoy superior status. Almost 60% of all full timers receive induction. Within the hotel sector the figures range from 71-80%, the hospital sector is at 57-58% and finally Visitor Centres stood at 100 and 75% respectively. The corresponding figures for the atypical group are substantially lower. The hotel sector ranges between 36 and 42%, the hospital sector between 31-50%, and finally Visitors centres fare a little better at 49% and 54% respectively.

The primary function of induction courses is to familiarise the employee with the working organisation, welfare, safety matters and general conditions of employment according to Torrington and Hall (1987:344). Additionally, some companies also aim at transferring the organisations culture and thus ensuring loyalty and commitment in the future. It is argued that if peripheral employees are not included in this process it is likely that they will not identify with the organisations goals and objectives and may ultimately become alienated and leave.

Table 4.9 Induction courses and organisation size

	Small %	N =	Medium %	N =	Large %	N =
F/Time	71	75	88	17	57	23
P/Time	51	68	53	17	38	21
Temp	57	72	56	16	40	20
F/Term	28	39	10	10	36	14
Casual	32	59	45	11	20	15

A closer examination of the data available shows that organisation size does not necessarily have a positive impact on the availability of induction courses to employees as shown in Table 4.9 above. A typical assumption would be that an organisations size would have a positive impact and that induction would be a matter of course in large organisations with the benefits of specialisation. The present research however, indicates that this in fact is not the case, as large establishments display a slightly lower utilisation of induction courses than either small or medium size organisations. A closer examination in the next section reveals differentials between the organisational types included in the survey.

Table 4.10 Organisation type and formal induction courses

	F/Time %	N =	P/Time %	N =	Temp %	N =	F/Term %	N=	Casual %	N =
5* Hotel	80	10	29	7	86	8	-	4	43	7
4*Hotel	76	21	33	18	45	20	46	11	21	14
3*Hotel	71	45	57	42	53	42	17	24	40	40
Pb.Hosp	58	24	46	24	35	23	25	12	18	11
Pr.Hosp	57	7	50	6	60	5	50	4	40	5
Pb.V.C.	100	5	83	6	71	7	40	5	-	5
Pr.V.C.	75	4	50	4	100	4	33	3	33	3

A further breakdown is provided in table 4.10 above which illustrates the level of induction courses given in each organisation type. A number of interesting points emerge. Firstly there is a considerable differential between public and private sector hospitals. This differential only becomes apparent when considering atypical employees, as almost identical rates of induction are given in both the public and private sectors to full time employees. Part time employees in public hospitals are less likely to receive induction than part time workers in private hospitals. The divergence however is particularly apparent in the case of temporary and fixed term employees where private sector hospitals are almost twice as likely as their public sector counterparts to provide induction courses. Likewise casual workers are more than twice as likely to receive an induction course in Private hospitals. The pattern for Visitor centres was less polarised.

Secondly, within the hotel sector full time employees in five star hotels are more likely to receive induction than full time workers in either four or three star hotels. The situation however, is reversed in the case of part time workers as those employed in three star hotels are more frequently given induction than those in four or five star establishments.

4.6 Formal Training Courses

The next section outlines the levels of formal training given to core and peripheral employees as reported in the study. Once again it provides an interesting insight into employer attitudes and willingness to integrate and develop peripheral employees into the workforce. Equally, it leads to the evidence of investment in training to support the cultivation of the core workforce.

Table 4.11 Core and periphery employees receiving formal training courses

	Yes	No	Total	N =
	%	%		
Full Time	58	42	100	116
Part Time	38	62	100	107
Temporary	31	68	100	109
Fixed Term	23	77	100	63
Casual	21	79	100	83

The present research found that, atypical employees are at a clear disadvantage in terms of access to training. Table 4.11 above shows that overall, 58% of full time employees receive training. This figure is in stark contrast to part time employees where only 38% receive training. The least likely categories of employees to receive training are fixed term and casual employees at 23% and 21% respectively. According to research findings in the United Kingdom (Hunter, Dale, and Turner 1992:383) employees working full time are more likely to receive training than those employed on a part time basis, the present research supports this view indicating that atypical employees are clearly disadvantaged in terms of access to training.

Access to training is vital in order to enhance skills and provide promotion opportunities without this, peripheral employees will continue to be discriminated against.

The present research indicates—there is a significant relationship between organisation size and the likelihood of training. The present study reveals that only 44% of small organisations offer training to full time employees, whereas medium and large organisations are more inclined to offer training to full timer employees with 78% and 87% respectively. The relationship for atypical employees however is less marked with 77% of medium size organisations and 50% of large organisations reporting offering part timers training. Overall casual employees fare poorly as only 14% have access to training in small organisations and 12% in large organisations. However, the figure for medium sized organisations is 61%.

In summary, the following trends emerge: Within small organisations employees of all categories are less likely to receive training than in large or medium sized organisations. Large and medium sized organisations offer

more training to all employees in particular full time employees, however the occurrence amongst the atypical group are erratic.

Table 4.12 Formal training and organisation type

	F/Time %	N =	P/Time %	N =	Temp %	N =	F/Term %	N =	Casual %	N=
5*Hotel	70	10	50	8	63	8	33	6	50	8
4*Hotel	60	20	42	19	35	20	43	14	29	17
3*Hotel	37	46	21	39	13	38	0	23	17	35
Pb.Hosp	84	25	60	25	35	23	33	15	14	14
Pr.Hosp	57	7	33	6	25	4	25	4	20	5
Pb.V.C.	100	5	50	6	75	8	50	4	0	4
Pr.V.C.	50	4	25	4	25	4	0	3	0	3

A breakdown of organisation type is provided in table 4.12. Within the hotel sector there is a strong relationship between training provided and the grade of hotel. Five star hotels offer more training to all categories of employees than lower grade hotels. The implication here is that within higher grade hotels, skill requirements are greater and therefore more training is required. The Cert Manpower survey (1993:76) found that only 25% of hotels have training budgets. In this research an equally low level of training provision is also found.

Within the hospital sector, public hospitals are more likely to offer training to all categories of employees than the private hospitals. The only exception to this pattern is that of casual employees 14% of whom are provided with training in the public sector, this contrasts with a figure of 20 % in the private sector.

Finally the research considers the pattern of induction and training given by organisations in the survey. Full time employees are almost twice as likely to receive induction and training than peripheral employees.

Within atypical employees a clear distinction emerges between part time and casual employees and their access to induction and training. Only 27% of part timers and 14% of casuals are reported as receiving induction and training.

Conversely, 19% of full time employees receive neither induction nor training. This can be compared with figures such as 40% for part timers, 60% for fixed term employees and 56 % for casual employees. Clearly the atypical worker is marginalised in many facets of organisational life. A similar trend has been reported by Drew (1990) with regard to the retail trade.

4.7 Benefits available to employees and occupational status

The next section outlines benefits the respondents indicated are available to core and periphery employees with comparisons drawn between them. Drew(1990:18) argues that atypical employees are less likely than their full time counterparts to receive a number of fringe or non pay benefits. The present study supports Drews findings.

Table 4.13 Benefits available to employees and occupational status

		Overtime	Shift Bonus	Holiday Pay	Pension	Discount on goods
		%	%	%	%	%
F/Time	Yes	50	35	79	49	26
	No	50	65	21	51	74
Total		100	100	100	100	100
	N =	133	124	125	125	125
P/Time	Yes	35	20	53	10	19
	No	65	80	47	90	81
Total		100	100	100	100	100
	N =	127	125	125	125	123
Temp.	Yes	27	22	44	6	12
-	No	73	78	56	94	88
Total		100	100	100	100	100
	N =	127	125	124	125	126
F/ Term.	Yes	11	11	23	1	4
	No	89	89	7 7	99	96
Total		100	100	100	100	100
	N =	124	124	123	123	122
Casual	Yes	19	12	10	3	7
	No	81	88	90	97	93
Total		100	100	100	100	100
	N =	125	124	124	123	116

1. Overtime

The present research has shown that a very clear differential in terms of overtime payments between full time and atypical employees operates. Fifty percent of respondents indicate that they pay full time employees overtime, this figure however, steadily decreased within the atypical categories. For instance, only 35% of respondents state part time employees are paid overtime, 27% indicate temporary employees and a further 11% state fixed term employees are paid overtime. The present study clearly indicates atypical employees firstly, are less likely to receive overtime payments than their full time colleagues. Secondly, there is a clear "pecking order" within the peripheral groups as part time workers are more likely than temporary employees to receive overtime payments. Likewise, temporary employees are more likely to be paid overtime than casuals and so on. The present study argues that as employees are further distanced from the core their terms and conditions are more likely to steadily decrease. A similar trend has been reported in the UK. by Sproull and McGregor(1990:14)

2. Shift Bonus

The second variable to be examined is the presence of a shift bonus. Once again a similar pattern emerges, 35% of respondents from the present survey indicate that a shift bonus is paid to full timers. Atypical employees are less likely to receive a shift bonus than full timers. Only 20% of respondents state a shift bonus is paid to part timers, this decreases further to 11 and 12% respectively for fixed term and casual employees.

3. Holiday Pay

Despite the fact that under the Minimum notice and terms of employment Act (Holidays employees act) 1973 fifteen days holidays per annum is mandatory for all full time employees, 79% of respondents in the present survey state employees receive paid holidays. This figure however, decreases to 53% for part timers. Temporary and fixed term employees are in a worse position as 44 and 23% of respondents state paid holidays are available to these groups. Casual workers fare particularly poorly in this respect as only 10% of organisations in the present study state paid holidays are available. The results conform very much to the established pattern whereby core employees enjoy superior terms and conditions to atypical employees. Again these findings support those of Drew in relation to the retail sector.

4. Pension

A relatively low proportion of respondents from the present survey indicate that either full time employees receive a non contributory pension or that a contributory pension scheme is in operation in the workplace. The figures however, for atypical employees are considerably bleaker, as for example only 10% of part time employees receive an occupational pension. This is the highest percentage amongst the peripheral groups. In relation to temporary employees only 6% state pension schemes are available. Finally, fixed term and casual employees are the least likely to have access to occupational pension scheme as only 1 and 3% of employers indicate one is currently in operation. The issues of pension rights for part time workers is increasingly becoming the basis for industrial action in Ireland. Recent indications in the United Kingdom and Europe are that access to occupational pensions for part time employees will have to be granted for example in December 1994, part time workers in General Accident the Insurance company have been held to have the same pension rights as full time staff. More recently, in Ireland at a seminar organised by the association of Pension Funds, Brid Horan a consultant at KPMG said that although part time work was associated with low paid, poorly rewarded work we are now seeing part time work at the other end of the spectrum. Horan argues that part time work is likely to increase in sectors where pension schemes are most commonly provided.

Recent indications are however, according to Scott (1994:10) that there is a reluctance by all employees to spend their own money on pensions which is already leading to a fall off in membership by new workers. In the UK, the Burton group, where two thirds of the 40,000 strong workforce is now part time, opened a scheme last year to anyone working more than eight hours a week. However, the take up from part time staff has been exceptionally low. The low priority part time workers seem to attach too membership of the scheme seems to encourage a view held by the company that few staff are prepared to buy backdated membership.

5. Discount on Goods and Services

Whilst it would appear that discounts on goods or services should be available to all categories of staff regardless of their status, the present research indicates that this in fact is not the case. A similar pattern as outlined above has emerged. That is, full time core employees are more likely to receive discounts on goods or services from their employer than their atypical colleagues. The present research reveals that only 19% of part

timers receive any discount, this however decreases further as only 12% of temporary employees and 7% of casuals receive discounts on goods or services. Again, Drews research in the banking sector showed a similar trend in relation to low interest loans for atypical employees.

The present research indicates that atypical employees are both directly and indirectly discriminated against in the workplace, and that benefits which are available to the core workforce are not available to peripheral employees. This research asks the question whether this pattern of discrimination against peripheral workers is in keeping with the European Social Charter on Women's rights, which envisages equity in relation to terms and conditions for all classes of women.

Table 4.14 Benefits available to Unionised and non-unionised periphery employees

01116101000					
	Overtime	Shift Bonus	Holiday Pay	Pension	Disc. on goods
	%	%	%	%	%
Unionised					
P/Time	10	16	27	8	4
Temp.	8	16	20	2	1
F/Term.	5	4	10	0	0
Casual	6	8	6	1	1
Non					
Unionised					
P/Time	21	6	29	4	14
Temp.	15	6	21	2	8
F/ Term.	9	5	13	0	3
Casual	13	4	6	0	4

4.7.1 Benefits available to periphery employees in unionised and non unionised organisations

The next section examines the benefits available to atypical workers and considers the relationship between the availability of these benefits and unionisation within respondent organisations. Recent research in Ireland indicates that workers in large non unionised organisations are likely to receive a net hourly wage which is on average 7.3% higher than their colleagues in large unionised firms (Corcoran, Hughes and Sexton, ESRI 1995).

Overtime

Table 4.14 above shows that only 10% of part time workers in unionised organisations are likely to receive overtime. However, this increases to 21% in non unionised organisations Similarly, only 8% of temporary staff in unionised organisations receive overtime. This increases to 15% in non unionised organisations. Likewise, the present research indicates that fixed term and casual workers are almost twice as likely to receive overtime in non unionised organisations.

Shift bonus

The present research reveals only 16% of unionised organisations allow a shift bonus for full time staff. By contrast, only 6% of non unionised organisations allow a shift bonus for either part time or temporary staff. Eight percent of respondents in unionised organisations indicate a shift bonus is available to causal staff, this figure however, halved in non unionised organisations.

Overall the present research indicates that overtime is more likely to be available in non unionised organisations whereas a shift bonus is considerably more likely in a unionised organisation.

Holiday Pay

The present research data reveals very little difference regarding the availability of holiday pay between unionised and non unionised organisations.

Pension

The present research reveals that access to pension schemes for atypical workers is more likely in unionised organisations. Only 8% of respondents in unionised organisations provide access to a pension scheme for part time staff, however, in non union organisations this falls to only 4%.

Discount on Goods and services

In the case of access to discounts on goods and services, non unionised organisations fare considerably better than unionised organisations as 14% of non unionised organisations provide a discount on goods or services to part time staff. In unionised organisations this figure is only 4%.

Table 4.15 Determination of pay criteria for atypical employees

		As Full	PESP/PCW	Annual	Other
		Time		Increment	
		%	%	%	%
P/Time	Yes	29	31	14	7
	No	61	69	86	93
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	125	127	124	124
Temp.	Yes	24	29	13	6
	No	76	71	87	94
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	123	124	125	125
F/Term.	Yes	22	13	8	6
	No	88	87	92	94
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	122	122	122	125
Casual	Yes	17	15	7	3
	No	83	85	93	97
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	120	121	122	122

4.8 Determination of pay criteria for atypical employees

Table 4.15 above shows that the majority of respondents in the present study currently do not apply any real criteria when deciding pay increases for atypical employees thus suggesting indicating a lack of policy and apathy of a conception that peripheral employees are not entitled to pay increases in the same manner as full time workers. Dickens (1992a:17) argues that an important factor in lifetime earnings is progression up pay structures but atypical workers are disadvantaged in this respect. Temporary workers are rarely integrated into the internal labour market structures. The present research supports this view.

Full Time Employees

From the data presented in table 4.15 it can be clearly illustrated that only a minority of employers apply the same criteria as full timers to the peripheral workforce in the matter of awarding pay increases. However, an interesting pattern emerges. The present research indicates that 39% of part timers are awarded pay increases based on the same criteria as full timers. This figure however, decreased substantially within the other groups. For example, 24% of temporaries, 22% of fixed termers and only 17% of casuals pay increases are based on the same criteria as full time employees. Geary (1992:253) also found that pay parity with permanent employees was enjoyed by all temporary workers. However, he also found they were not allowed to join the companies share ownership scheme nor were they entitled to profit sharing.

PESP/ PCW

Once again relatively few employers reply that they use the PESP/PCW agreements as a criteria in determining pay increases. Part time employees are more likely to have increases based on the PESP/PCW as 31% of respondents from the survey replied positively. This decreases to 29% for temporary workers, 13% for fixed termers and 15% for casuals.

Annual Increment

Overall the question of awarding an annual increment to establish peripheral employees pay increases only operates in a very small minority of organisations. For example only 14% of employers state an annual increment is applied to part timers. This figure however, decreases to 13% for temporary workers, 8% for fixed termers and 7% for casuals. Drew (1990) has reported a similar pattern for retail and banking staff.

4.8.1 Criteria Applied in the determination of remuneration for atypical employees in unionised and non unionised organisations

The next section examines the relationship between unionised and non unionised organisations and the practices in operation when determining pay criteria for atypical employees.

Table 4.16 Criteria applied in the determination of remuneration for atypical employees in unionised and non unionised organisations

		As Full Time	PESP	Annual Increment	Other
		%	%	%	%
Unionised	P/Time	15	19	4	3
	Temp.	9	17	3	0
	F/Term.	4	6	0	1
	Casual	4	8	1	0
Non	P/Time	19	15	12	4
Unionised					
	Temp.	14	15	8	4
	F/ Term.	10	9	5	6
	Casual	17	11	4	5

1. Full Time Employees

The above Table (4.16) indicates that atypical employees in unionised organisations are less likely than employees in non unionised organisations to have remuneration based on the same criteria as full time employees. The differential is particularly apparent in the case of temporary and casual employees.

2. PESP/PCW

Part time and temporary employees in unionised organisations are more likely to have remuneration based on the PESP/PCW than non unionised organisations. This represents a reversal of the situation outlined above where remuneration is based on that of full time employees. The previous chapter outlined union densities amongst core and periphery workers in the service sector in Ireland. The levels of unionisation are particularly high within the public sector, which may explain the higher utilisation of the PESP/PCW in determining remuneration.

3. Annual Increment

From the data provided in the present research, remuneration based on annual increments appears more common in non unionised organisations. Thus, the research presents an emerging picture of atypical employees who are substantially isolated from the perks and benefits enjoyed by full time employees. Walsh (1991:112) argues that the employment of temporary and casual workers far from being peripheral to productivity is central to it. He later argues that it is a naive and erroneous simplification that only core workers are indispensable to a companies operations. This research supports this view. The next chapter will further evaluate atypical workers on the basis of skill level and assess the organisations reliance on their contribution for the overall success of the business.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has explored further a central theme of this research which addresses the issue of terms and conditions of employment for atypical employees. The first section examined the problems commonly experienced by employers when recruiting periphery workers. The present research indicates that part time employees are problematic in this respect yet employers paradoxically clearly state that the Part time workers Act (1991) is not an impediment to recruitment. Recruitment problems within small, medium and large organisations are examined. The present research indicates that medium sized organisations are the most likely to encounter problems when recruiting part time and temporary employees.

The next section examined the assertion that respondent employers may deliberately recruit atypical employees in lieu of full time workers. Overall the majority of respondents did not appear to have made a strategic decision to recruit atypical staff in lieu of full time employees. The following section examines the issue of skill shortages with regard to recruitment within respondent organisations. The majority of organisations in the present study indicate they experience problems in finding suitably qualified staff. All organisations regardless of size appear to suffer from this dilemma however, small organisations appear to experience severe problems in this respect. The next section examines the possibility for atypical employees to transfer to

full time employment within respondent organisations. Overall, respondents are positive particularly for part time and temporary staff. Respondents from medium sized organisations also indicate that atypical workers are likely to be successful should they wish to transfer to full time employment.

Female application rates were also considered and overall, respondents indicate that they are generally high for all categories of core and periphery employees.

Employers were also required to detail future recruitment plans and most organisations indicate they plan to recruit full and part time employees over the next twelve months.

Labour turnover is examined in the next section and a pattern quickly became apparent. Turnover rates for full time staff are typically very low. By contrast, the turnover rates increase progressively for part time, fixed term, casual and temporary employees who have the highest turnover rates within respondent organisations.

The usage of induction and training courses is examined in the chapter and again it quickly becomes apparent that full time employees enjoy superior terms and conditions to atypical staff within respondent organisations in the survey.

The next section examined the likely benefits available to full time, part time, temporary, fixed term and casual employees within respondent organisations.

Benefits such as overtime payments, shift bonuses, holiday pay, pension contributions and discount on goods and services were all examined. Overall full time employees fare considerably better than their atypical colleagues.

The relationship between unionisation and available benefits within respondent organisations was examined and established that overtime payments are more likely in non unionised organisations whereas a shift bonus and pension is more common in a unionised organisation.

Finally the criteria applied in determining remuneration for atypical employees was examined. The present research indicates a lack of any clear policy with regard to the criteria to be applied when negotiating pay for atypical workers. The PESP/PCW appeared the most popular criteria applied particularly in medium sized organisations.

The impact of unionisation was also examined and revealed that part time and temporary workers are likely to have remuneration based around the PESP/PCW.

The next chapter examines functional flexibility and its associated usage in the Irish services sector.

Chapter Five Functional Flexibility

5. Introduction

This chapter examines a central theme of the present research, namely functional flexibility and its occurrence within the Irish services sector with particular reference to gender.

The first section examines skill flexibility of three categories of employees (unskilled, skilled and professional).

The next section examines the incidence of flexibility agreements within respondent organisations. Organisation size and type are also examined in relation to the occurrence of flexibility agreements.

The following section considers whether atypical employees within respondent organisations are interchangeable with full time staff.

The next section examines levels of functional flexibility across skill levels within respondent organisations. The final section in this chapter deals with the incidence of work sharing within respondent organisations with particular reference to gender and marital status.

5.1 Skill Flexibility and Occupational Status

This section seeks to establish if employers consider employees of differential skill levels suitable to be employed on different work contracts. It is frequently cited when utilising Atkinsons core/periphery model that all core employees are highly skilled and flexible, and periphery employees whilst numerically flexible are not functionally flexible. The present study seeks to examine this thesis in the context of the hotel, tourism and hospital sector in Ireland.

Table 5. provides data emerging on employee responses to the suitability of atypical employees for skilled and unskilled work. The majority of employers consider employees of all skill levels suitable or appropriate for work as part time, temporary, fixed term and casual employees.

Table 5. Employer attitudes towards atypical employees suitability for skilled or unskilled work

	P/time	N =	Temp	N =	F/Term	N=	Casual	N =
	%		%		%		%	
Unskilled	80	95	7 9	93	67	52	77	72
Skilled	87	97	83	89	76	53	67	61
Professional	73	93	64	84	78	5 9	56	64

Table 5. above shows that the skilled category fares the highest in terms of suitability for part time employees with 87% of employers responding positively. Unskilled workers are also considered highly suitable as 80% responded positively. The pattern of responses for temporary employees is similar to that for part time workers. The situation for fixed term contracts is somewhat reversed as only 67% of employers consider unskilled work suitable to be carried out by fixed term employees. Skilled and professional employees are viewed more positively with 76% and 78 % responding positively.

A distinct pattern emerges for casual employees similar to that for part time and temporary work. Overall, casual staff are considered most suitable for unskilled work with 77% responding positively. Finally, the present research has found that only 56% of respondents consider it suitable to have professional workers employed on a casual basis.

The majority of employers stated that part time work is suitable for unskilled, skilled and professional employment. But it should be noted that while the majority of respondents replied positively some interesting deviations emerge within the research findings.

Collectively the hotel sector considers part time work suitable for unskilled employees.

For the hospital and Visitor Centres an interesting pattern emerges between the public and private sectors. Managerial attitudes clearly diverge in this sector. Amongst the public sector the indications are that 100% of Private Visitor Centres and 91% of Private Hospitals consider part time work suitable for unskilled employees. This contrasts with the Public Sector as only 60% of Public Hospitals and Visitor Centres responded positively to this.

Employer responses regarding the suitability of professional employees working on a part time basis differ between the hotel sector and the hospital sector. Public Visitor Centres and 75% of Private Visitor Centres considered part time work suitable for professional employees. The hotel sector was less positive towards the idea of using professionals on a part time basis than the hospital sector.

Employers reported they consider temporary employment suited for unskilled, skilled and professional employees. Once again, deviations arise between the public and private sector.

Within the hotel sector the responses are mixed (see Table 5 in Appendix A). Three Star hotels consider temporary work highly suitable as 83% responded positively. The hospital sector responded similarly with 77% of Public Hospitals and 60% of Private hospitals stating temporary work is suitable for unskilled employees. Interestingly, Visitor Centres responded very positively to this question as 100% of Public and Private Visitor Centres state temporary work is suitable for unskilled employees. This may be due to the heavy reliance during the summer months on temporary staff.

Overall, employer attitudes towards skilled temporary workers is slightly less enthusiastic within the hotel sector than either the hospital or Visitor Centres. However, the hospital sector clearly believes temporary work is suited for skilled employees as 95% of Public Hospitals and 100% of Private Hospitals responded positively. Equally, Visitor Centres consider temporary work highly suitable for skilled employment as 100% of Public Visitor Centres and 75% of Private Visitor Centres responded positively.

The hotel sector was found to be less receptive to the idea of employing professional workers on a temporary basis between 50% and 53% of hotels responded positively.

Both Public and private hospitals consider temporary work highly suitable for professionals with 85 and 75% responding positively.

Visitor Centres also considered temporary work suitable with 80% and 67% responding positively.

5.2 Flexibility Agreements

The next section considers the occurrence of flexibility agreements amongst respondents with reference to establishment type, organisation size and age

Table 5.1 Flexibility Agreements

	%
Yes	46
No	54
Total	100
N =	121

Table 5.6 above shows that forty-six per cent of organisations surveyed state they have a flexibility agreement in operation.

Public hospitals were found to be less inclined than hotels or private hospitals to have flexibility agreements. Thirty percent of Public hospital respondents operate a flexibility agreement. Forty three per cent of Private hospitals operate a flexibility agreement. Visitor centres display a wide disparity between the private and public sector. The Public sector is less inclined to flexibility agreements than the Private sector, 33 % of Public Visitor Centres state they have a flexibility agreement currently in operation as compared to 80% in the Private Sector.

Organisation size emerged as an important variable when considering flexibility agreements. The present research indicates that there is a clear relationship between the size of the organisation and the occurrence of formal flexibility agreements. Table 5.2 on the next page shows that large organisations are less likely to have a flexibility agreement in place than smaller organisations: Sixty-one per cent of small organisations stated a flexibility agreement was in operation against 32% of large organisations. This may be due to the fact that smaller organisations do not have the benefits of labour specialisation available and management must therefore take steps to improve flexibility within the organisation.

Table 5.2 Organisation size and flexibility agreements

	Small	Medium	Large	
	%	%	%	
Yes	61	50	32	
No	39	50	68	
Total	100	100	100	
N =	80	18	22	

5.3 Atypical Employees Interchangeable with Full Time Employees

Table 5.3 below considers whether periphery employees are interchangeable with core employees. The present research findings indicate that Part time and temporary staff are the most interchangeable. Seventy four percent of respondents state that part time workers are interchangeable and seventy three percent state temporary employees are interchangeable with full time employees. Only 66% of respondents state casual employees are interchangeable with full time employees. Fixed term employees according to respondents are the least likely to carry out jobs normally assigned to full time staff members.

Table 5.3 Atypical employees interchangeable with full time employees

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
Yes	74	73	58	66
No	26	27	42	44
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	101	99	38	24

Organisation size and whether employers believe atypical employees to be interchangeable with full time staff within the organisation was also examined.

Small organisations (defined as employing less than 100 people) have been found to indicate a clear pattern of greater interchangeability amongst part time staff than temporary employees who in turn, are considered to be more likely to be interchangeable than casual employees. Within small organisations fixed term employees are considered the least likely to be requested to carry out tasks normally assigned to full time employees.

The research had found quite different practices in medium sized organisations from that in small organisations. Respondents stated that part time temporary and fixed term employees are interchangeable with full time staff.

Large organisations differ from small and medium sized organisations in a number of ways. Employers consider atypical employees to be interchangeable with full time staff. Ninety five percent of respondents indicate that temporary employees are interchangeable with full time employees and 85% of respondents indicate that part time employees are interchangeable with full time employees. Finally, 83% of respondents in large organisations stated fixed term and casual employees are considered interchangeable with full time employees.

The present research indicates that the majority of employers state part time employees are interchangeable with their full time counterparts. Within the hotel sector 71% of both four and three star hotels state part timers are interchangeable with full timers. Five star hotels however are slightly less likely to believe they were fully interchangeable with 57% responding positively.

The hospital sector is very receptive to the notion of part timers interchangeability with full time employees, the private sector in this case is a little more positive than the public sector with 83 and 79% respectively. Finally Visitor centres are equally positive in relation to part timers as 100 and 75% responded positively.

The majority of employers were found to be fairly receptive to the notion of interchangeability of temporary workers with full time staff.

Employer attitudes clearly vary amongst respondents in the survey regarding fixed term employees. For example, 100% of five star hotels indicate fixed termers are able to carry out the same tasks (i.e. interchangeable) with full time employees. This figure however decreases to 43 and 55 % in four and three star hotels.

In the hospital sector opinions clearly diverge as 55 % of public and 100% of private hospitals stating fixed term workers are interchangeable. Finally, in the case of Visitor Centres a mix of opinion emerges as 60% of public visitor centres responded positively however, none of the private visitor centres included in the survey responded positively to this issue.

The next section in this chapter explores one of the central themes of the research namely, the incidence of functionally flexible staff of atypical employees.

Functional flexibility is analysed according to the skill levels of employees, which are subdivided into three types: unskilled, skilled and professional. This analysis is then supplemented by considering the type and size of organisation concerned. (see Tables 6 and 7 in Appendix A)

Table 5.4 Functional flexibility and skill levels within organisations (unskilled employees)

	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual		
	%	%	% -	%	%		
Yes	55	55	49	35	37		
No	37	36	40	40	46		
D.K	8	9	10	25	18		
Total	100	100	100	100	100		
N =	108	99	89	40	68		
(Skilled employees)							

	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%	%
Yes	59	47	44	25	30
No	36	42	39	44	46
D.K	5	11	18	31	25
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N =	111	91	78	45	57

(Professional employees)

	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%	%
Yes	68	51	45	33	33
No	29	36	39	36	39
D.K	3	13	16	31	28
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N =	107	84	74	45	54

The present research findings indicates that full time unskilled employees are less likely to be multiskilled or functionally flexible than skilled or professional employees. Within the full time employees category professional workers are the most likely to be multiskilled as 68% of respondents indicate this is currently the case. Waering (1992) argues that full time permanent employees are not necessarily inflexible, evidence from the present research does support this however. The present research findings indicates that in the case of full time employees, the skill level is inherently linked to the degree of functional flexibility.

The situation with regard to multiskilling levels amongst part time employees differs substantially from that outlined for full time employees. The skill level does not appear to be an important factor in determining functional flexibility. Data from the present research indicates that unskilled part time employees are as likely as professional part time workers to be multiskilled. There is however, a marked decline in overall positive responses that is, that part time employees are considered by employers to be less functionally flexible than their full time colleagues.

Temporary workers emerge as more likely to be multiskilled in the lower skill grades. Forty nine per cent of respondents state that unskilled temporary workers are multiskilled however, this figure declines to 45% in the case of professional employees.

It is particularly interesting however, that fewer employers consider temporary employees to be as functionally flexible as their full and part time counterparts.

The present research findings clearly indicate that fixed term employees are considerably less likely than any other category of employee to be

functionally flexible. Only 35% of employers indicate that unskilled fixed term employees are multiskilled. This figure however, decreases further in the case of professional employees to 33% and 25% for skilled workers.

Finally, in the case of casual employees, unskilled workers are the most likely to be multiskilled according to the present research findings, 37% of respondents indicate that unskilled casual employees are multiskilled, whilst 33% state this to be the case for professional employees. Finally, only 30% of employers indicate skilled workers are functionally flexible.

The research findings show a clear distinction between core full time employees who are generally considered highly functionally flexible, which is particularly visible within the higher skill brackets and peripheral employees who are less likely to have the same degree of functional flexibility. However, even within atypical employees a distinct pattern emerges between part time employees, who whilst less functionally flexible than full time employees, are considered more flexible than either temporary or fixed term workers. Clearly, the research findings show it is not the skill level that is significant in this instance but rather the employees status in determining the level of multiskilling likely as those in less stable forms of employment are more likely to be mono skilled.

The relationship between the size of the organisation and the occurrence of functional flexibility amongst core and peripheral staff was also explored in the present study. (see Table 7 in Appendix A)

Overall, respondents from small organisations display a high level of functional flexibility amongst all categories of employees. This perhaps is hardly surprising considering small organisations may require staff to do more than one task where clear craft demarcation are lines common in larger organisations. However, as previously outlined full time employees are considered to be more functionally flexible than their atypical counterparts. This is particularly apparent in the case of professional employees as 73% of employers state full time workers are functionally flexible, this figure however, decreases to 63% for part time employees. A further substantial decline is seen for temporary employees as only 49% of respondents consider them to be functionally flexible. This figure decreases further to 47% for both fixed term and casual employees.

The pattern outlined for professional employees is largely mirrored for skilled and unskilled employees. Once again, full time workers are more likely to be multiskilled than atypical employees.

For medium sized organisations, Full time employees of all skill levels are considered to be functionally flexible as 66 and 67 % of respondents reply that unskilled and professional employees are functionally flexible. However, in the case of part time workers there is a substantial decline in the level of multiskilling. Forty three and 47% of respondents indicate that skilled and professional part time employees are functionally flexible. Levels of multiskilling decline further in the case of temporary workers as 33 and 36% of unskilled and skilled temporary workers are multiskilled, however, this increases to 46 % in the case of professional temporary workers. Within medium sized organisations fixed term employees display the lowest levels of functional flexibility, as only 13 and 17% of skilled and unskilled fixed term employees are multiskilled. Once again, professional employees are believed to be more functionally flexible as 22% of employers consider them to be multiskilled.

Finally, for casual employees in medium sized organisations it was found unskilled workers are the most functionally flexible. Thirty nine percent of respondents consider this to be the case. However, only 22 % of respondents state skilled and professional employees are multiskilled.

For large organisations there is a direct contrast between small and medium sized organisations. Full time employees are only considered more functionally flexible than atypical employees in the "skilled" group. Interestingly, a significant differential emerges for professional full time employees as 52 % of respondents state they are functionally flexible. However, within the atypical groups there is a substantial decline in multiskilling levels particularly amongst part time, temporary and casual employees. Large organisations in the present study are primarily composed of hospitals both public and private and five star hotels. However, evidence from the Cert Manpower survey (1993:53) indicates that only 25% of staff in five star hotels are functionally flexible.

5.4 Functional Flexibility and Gender

5.4 Functional Flexibility and Gender

The next section considers further a central theme of the present research and seeks to answer the following question: Is functional flexibility gender based and are less females likely to be multiskilled than males?

Table 5.5 Functional Flexibility and Gender (Full Time Employees)

	Yes	No	D.K	Total	N =
Unskilled	%	%	%		
Low	91	9	-	100	11
Medium	51	47	2	100	45
High	52	39	9	100	44
Skilled					
Low	64	27	9	100	11
Medium	50	50	-	100	46
High	71	24	5	100	45
Professional					
Low	73	18	9	100	11
Medium	72	28	-	100	46
High	67	28	5	100	43

In organisations where there are low levels of female participation rates the research findings clearly illustrate that the majority of respondents believe full time employees of all skill levels are highly functionally flexible. Table 5.5 above shows that ninety-one per cent of respondents consider unskilled full time employees to be functionally flexible. This decreases however, to 73% for professional employees and 64% for skilled employees. In organisations where female participation rates are classed as "medium" the majority of employers are less positive regarding functional flexibility. On the whole employers are clearly divided regarding multiskilling levels amongst full time staff as only 51 and 50% of respondents indicate that functional flexibility is apparent amongst unskilled and skilled employees. Professional employees in this case are considered more positively as 72% of respondents indicate that they are multiskilled.

Finally, in organisations with high levels of full time female staff unskilled employees are considered the least likely to be multiskilled. This however, increases to 67% in the case of professional employees and 71% for skilled

The next section considers further a central theme of the present research and seeks to answer the following question: Is functional flexibility gender based and are less females likely to be multiskilled than males?

Table 5.5 Functional Flexibility and Gender (Full Time Employees)

	Yes	No	D.K	Total	N =
Unskilled	%	%	%		
Low	91	9	-	100	11
Medium	51	47	2	100	45
High	52	39	9	100	44
Skilled					
Low	64	27	9	100	11
Medium	50	50	-	100	46
High	71	24	5	100	45
Professional					
Low	73	18	9	100	11
Medium	72	28	-	100	46
High	67	28	5	100	43

In organisations where there are low levels of female participation rates the research findings clearly illustrate that the majority of respondents believe full time employees of all skill levels are highly functionally flexible. Table 5.5 above shows that ninety-one per cent of respondents consider unskilled full time employees to be functionally flexible. This decreases however, to 73% for professional employees and 64% for skilled employees. In organisations where female participation rates are classed as "medium" the majority of employers are less positive regarding functional flexibility. On the whole employers are clearly divided regarding multiskilling levels amongst full time staff as only 51 and 50% of respondents indicate that functional flexibility is apparent amongst unskilled and skilled employees. Professional employees in this case are considered more positively as 72% of respondents indicate that they are multiskilled.

Finally, in organisations with high levels of full time female staff unskilled employees are considered the least likely to be multiskilled. This however, increases to 67% in the case of professional employees and 71% for skilled employees. It is interesting to note at this stage that organisations which have high rates of female participation have lower levels of multiskilling.

Table 5.6 Functional Flexibility and Gender (Part Time Employees)

	Yes	No	D.K	Total	N =
Unskilled	%	%	%		
Low	52	43	5	100	21
Medium	64	30	6	100	33
High	55	35	10	100	29
Skilled					
Low	55	40	5	100	20
Medium	43	57	-	100	30
High	52	26	22	100	23
Professional					
Low	50	40	10	100	20
Medium	52	41	7	100	29
High	59	23	18	100	22

Table 5.6 provides a breakdown of functional flexibility and gender.

In organisations where there are low levels of female participation amongst part time employees the majority of respondents consider such workers to be multiskilled across the skill grades identified. It be noted that overall the positive responses are considerably lower for part time employees than for full time staff members.

In organisations in which female participation rates are classified as "medium" unskilled part time employees appear to be the most functionally flexible. The majority of respondents(52%) also state professional employees are functionally flexible.

Within organisations which state more than 60% of part time employees are female the majority of respondents state that part time employees of all skill levels are functionally flexible. The highest response is within professional employees as 59% state part time professional employees are functionally flexible.

Table 5.7 Functional Flexibility and Gender (Temporary Employees)

	Yes	No	D.K	Total	N =
Unskilled	%	%	%		
Low	67	33	-	100	18
Medium	50	43	7	100	28
High	43	48	9	100	21
Skilled					
Low	50	50	-	100	16
Medium	42	39	19	100	26
High	50	35	15	100	20
Professional					
Low	44	56	-	100	18
Medium	41	36	23	100	22
High	56	33	11	100	18

Table 5.7 shows that in organisations classed as having low levels of female participation rates, 67% of respondents believe that unskilled temporary workers are functionally flexible. This decreases to 50% for skilled employees and decreases further to 44% for professional employees. In organisations classed as having medium female participation rates functional flexibility at a glance appears less common than where female participation rates are lower. Functional flexibility appears highest amongst unskilled employees and decreases as the skill level increases. The situation however, reverses in organisations with high rates of female participation, as 43% of respondents consider unskilled employees are functionally flexible, this increases to 50% and 56% in the case of skilled and professional employees.

Table 5.8 Functional Flexibility and Gender (Fixed term Employees)

	Yes	No	D.K	Total	N =
Unskilled	%	%	%		
Low	47	57	-	100	7
Medium	75	25	-	100	7
High	17	50	33	100	6
Skilled					
Low	29	71	-	100	7
Medium	50	50	-	100	2
High	33	33	33	100	6
Professional					
Low	25	75	**	100	8
Medium	100	-	-	100	2
High	57	29	14	100	7

Table 5.8 shows that within organisations regarded as having low levels of female participation, forty three percent of respondents state that unskilled employees are functionally flexible, this decreases however, to 29% for skilled employees and 25% for professional employees.

Overall organisations which have medium levels of female participation consider female employees to be highly functionally flexible as 75% of respondents indicate this is currently the situation. Finally, all respondent employers from the present research state that professional fixed term workers are functionally flexible.

In organisations classed as having high female participation rates the present research reveals an interesting pattern. Only 17% of respondent employers state that unskilled fixed term employees are likely to undertake more than one task. However, 33% of respondents state that skilled workers are functionally flexible. This increases further to 57% in the case of professional fixed term workers within respondent organisations.

Table 5.9 Functional Flexibility and Gender (Casual Employees)

	Yes	No	D.K	Total	N =
Unskilled	%	%	%		
Low	50	50	-	100	10
Medium	16	74	10	100	19
High	55	28	17	100	18
Skilled					
Low	37	63	-	100	8
Medium	29	64	7	100	14
High	42	25	33	100	12
Professional					
Low	33	67	-	100	9
Medium	15	61	23	100	13
High	60	13	27	100	15

Table 5.9 above shows that for casual employees in respondent organisations, where there are low levels of female participation, are generally not considered to be functionally flexible. Only thirty-three percent and 37% of respondents state skilled and professional casual employees are functionally flexible. Employer responses in medium sized organisations are fairly negative with regard to functional flexibility amongst casual staff. Only 16% and 15% of respondents state that unskilled and professional employees are functionally flexible.

In respondent organisations where female participation rates are classed as high functional flexibility is more positively viewed. Fifty-five and sixty percent of respondents consider unskilled and professional workers are functionally flexible.

5.5 Worksharing

Respondents were requested to indicate the characteristics of work sharers. Table 5.10 below shows that fifty one percent of respondents stated work sharing was currently available or practised in their organisation. Only 2% of respondents did not know if work sharing was currently available and a further 47% replied that work sharing is not currently available in their organisation.

Table 5.10 Incidence of Work sharing

	% Respondents
Work Sharing	51
No work sharing	47
Don't know	2
Total	100
N =	121

Table 5.11 Organisation type and incidence of work sharing

	Yes	No	D.K.	Total	N =
	%	%	%		
5 * Hotel	22	78	-	100	9
4 * Hotel	35	65	-	100	20
3 * Hotel	44	54	-	100	46
Pr. Hosp	88	12	_	100	25
Pb. Hosp	43	57	-	100	7
Pb.V C.	5 6	33	11	100	9
Pr.V C.	60	40	-	100	5

The next section analyses the type of organisation and the incidence of work sharing. Table 5.11 shows that Five star hotels display a low occurrence of work sharing as only 22% of respondents indicate that it is current practice. Equally, within Four Star hotels only 35% of respondents indicate that work sharing currently exists.

Forty-four percent of Three star hotels indicate that work sharing is practised within their organisations. The interesting feature in this instance is that a clear trend emerges as work sharing becomes more common in lower grades of hotels.

Private hospitals display a very high incidence of work sharing as 88% of respondents state work sharing is currently practised within their organisation. Public hospitals however, display a much lower occurrence of work sharing than their private sector counterparts as only 43% state that work sharing is currently practised within their organisation.

Finally, Visitor Centres in common with the hospital sector display a higher occurrence of work sharing in the private sector. However, in this case the differential between the public and private sector is less marked than for the

hospital sector. Sixty per cent of private visitor centres responded positively, indicating that work sharing is practised. This compares to 56% of public visitor centres who responded positively.

The research shows that large organisations are more likely to have a practice of work sharing than small or medium sized organisations. Only one third of medium sized organisations indicate that work sharing is currently practised whilst 45% of small organisations state this is the case.

The present findings suggest that work sharing is a distinctly female practise as the vast majority of respondents indicate that most work sharers are female. This is shown in table 5.12 below. Only 13% of respondents found that most work sharers are male whilst 87% indicate that the majority of work sharers are female. This is particularly interesting in light of the research findings in chapter three in relation to gender and atypical employees which has found that the gender imbalance between core and periphery employees is less extreme than commonly stated in much of the literature.

Table 5.12 Gender of work sharers

	% Respondents
Male	13
Female	87
Total	100
N =	61

Table 5.13 Marital Status of Work Sharers

	% Respondents
Married	65
Single	35
Total	100
N =	62

5.51 Marital status of work sharers

Table 5.3 above table shows that the majority (65%) of respondents indicate that most work sharers are married. However, 35% of respondents indicate the majority to be single. Thus, the picture emerging of work sharers is one mostly of married females.

5.52 Age and Work Sharing

Finally with regard to the average age of most work sharers. Seventy seven percent of respondents state that the majority of work sharers are between 26-49 years of age with only 22% stating the typical age of a work sharer is less than 25 years of age.

5.6 Conclusions

This chapter examined a number of key issues central to the present research.

- Firstly, employer attitudes regarding the suitability of employing atypical workers in an unskilled, skilled and professional capacity were examined. In relation to fixed term employees, respondents from the hotel sector clearly indicated that this form of employment was not suited to both unskilled and skilled employees.
- 2. The existence of flexibility agreements in respondent organisations was examined and revealed that 60% of five and four star hotels operated with a formal agreement.
- Multiskilling within respondent organisations was examined. Functional flexibility and gender was also explored in the next section. The present research revealed that amongst full time staff, in organisations which have low rates of female participation there are high levels of functional flexibility.

4. The final section in the chapter analysed work sharing in respondent organisations. Overall, 47% of all organisations in the present survey offer work sharing. The existence of work sharing was particularly apparent in large organisations.

Chapter Six

Why Employ Atypical Workers?

6. Introduction

The next chapter explores the reasons why employer opt to use atypical employees.

The first section considers the productivity levels of part time, temporary, fixed term and casual employees in comparison to full time employees within respondent organisations. The relationship between levels of unionisation and productivity within organisations in the present survey is briefly explored to establish whether atypical employees in unionised and non unionised organisations are believed to be more productive.

The motivation levels amongst atypical employees in respondent organisations relative to full time staff is also considered.

The next section considers absenteeism levels within respondent organisations in the present study.

Employers' attitudes to employee loyalty amongst part time, temporary, fixed term and casual employees relative to full time staff is also examined.

The question of managerial supervision required for part time, temporary, fixed term and casual employees in comparison to full time staff within respondent organisations is considered.

The final section in this chapter briefly examines the emergence and usage of contracting out within respondent organisations. Firstly, the relationship between organisation size and contracting out is examined. Secondly, contracting out within the various types of organisations included in the survey is analysed.

6.1 Productivity and Atypical Employees

Table 6. (on the next page) shows that the majority of respondents state that atypical employees are as productive as full timers. Part time employees receive the most positive response as 70% of respondents indicate they are as productive and a further 14% state they are more productive than full time staff. Equally temporary employees are considered very positively in terms of productivity as 65% of respondents state they are as productive and a further

10% state they are more productive than full time employees. In relation to fixed term employees, 59% of respondents consider them as productive than full time staff and 26% state they are more productive as full time employees by 46% of respondents in the survey, a further 14% indicating they are more productive.

Table 6. Productivity and Atypical Workers

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More Productive	14	10	26	13
As Productive	70	65	59	46
Less Productive	16	25	15	41
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	103	100	39	70

Within small organisations' 67% of employer's state part time workers are as productive as full time staff. It is important to mention that a further 21% of employers indicate that they are less productive which is the highest percentage amongst part time employees within respondent organisations.

Temporary workers are considered extremely positively, as 64% of employers in the survey rate them as productive as full timers, only 3% consider temporary workers to be more productive. As with part timers, a relatively high percentage (32%) state they are less productive than full time staff. Once again, this is the highest percentage for temporary employees amongst organisations of all sizes within the survey.

Equally, fixed term employees are considered positively in terms of productivity as 63% state they are as productive and a further 16% indicate they are more productive than full timers. Relatively speaking, casual employees rate the poorest of all the groups in small organisations. Only 41% of employers believe they are as productive as full time staff. Significantly 48% of respondents in small organisations consider casual employees are less productive. However, a further 11% state casuals are more productive than full time employees.

Collectively, respondents from medium sized organisations consider atypical employees very positively in relation to productivity.(see Table 8 in Appendix

A) Over 70% of employers state part time, temporary and casual workers are as productive as full time staff. A further 29% of respondents state temporary workers are more productive and 50% rate fixed term workers as more productive than full timers

Finally, large organisations in common to the other categories regard atypical workers very positively. The highest rating in the 'as productive' group is for part timers as 75% responded positively. Temporary workers are next as 63% consider them as productive and 58% fixed term workers believe fixed term employees are as productive as full timers. Casual workers are also believed to be as productive as 43% of employers responded positively, although 28% of respondents consider them less productive than full time workers. A further 29% however state casuals are more productive than full timers.

Respondents from five star hotels rate atypical employees very positively, the majority stating they are as or more productive than fill time employees.

Fixed term employees are considered highly productive within the present research as 68% of respondents state they are more productive and a further 33% consider they are as productive as full time staff. Part time employees in five star hotels are also rated very highly as 43% state they are as productive as full time staff and a further 43% state they are more productive. The situation with temporary employees however is slightly different as one third of respondents state they are less productive than full timers.

Over 80% of respondents from four star hotels state part time, temporary and fixed term employees are as productive as their full time counterparts. Responses in relation to casual employees vary slightly in this respect as only 62% consider them as productive and 23% regard casuals as less productive than full timers.

Once again, the majority of respondents rate atypical employees very positively. The first point of interest is that over 60% of employers in the hotel sector rate part time staff as productive as full timers. Equally, over 50% of respondents regard temporary and fixed term employees as productive as their full time counterparts.

Similarly, the majority of public hospitals indicate atypical employees are very productive. Seventy per cent of respondents state part time, temporary and casual workers are as productive as full timers. Sixty per cent of respondents from public hospitals state fixed term employees are as productive and a further 30% state they are more productive than full time employees. (see Table 9 in Appendix A)

Essentially, private hospitals responded in similar pattern to public hospitals. Most respondents are very positive in relation to productivity of atypical staff. Notably, 100% of respondents from private hospitals state part time workers are as productive as full timers.

Public visitor centres conformed very much to the established pattern previously discussed. Notably, 100% of employers in this sector rated part timer staff as productive as full timers. Within this sector, casual workers are the primary exception, as 100% of respondents state they are less productive than full timers.

Private visitors centres deviate slightly from public visitor centres as 50% of respondents indicate part and fixed term employees are less productive than full time staff. However 67% of respondents rate temporary employees more productive than core workers.

Table 6.1 shows the relationship between productivity and unionisation and considers the possible reasons why employers with unionised employees believe they are more productive than non-unionised organisations.

Table 6.1 Productivity of atypical workers and unionisation

Unionised	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	% -	%	%
More Productive	14	20	13	-
As Productive	71	72	87	-
Less Productive	31	8	-	-
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	35	25	8	-
Non Unionised	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	% -	%	%
More Productive	15	8	30	-
As Productive	63	63	50	-
Less Productive	23	29	20	-
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	48	51	20	-

The present research suggests that employers in unionised organisations are more likely to consider atypical employees as productive as full time staff. Table 6.1 above shows that over 70% of respondents in the survey state part time and temporary workers and a further 87% fixed term employees are as productive as full timers within unionised organisations.

6.2 Motivation and Atypical Employees

The majority of respondents in the survey stated that atypical employees are as motivated as full time workers as shown in table 6.2 below. Part time employees receive the most positive response as 63% of respondents indicate they are as motivated and a further 13% to be more motivated than full timers. Equally, in the case of temporary and fixed term workers, over 55% of respondents state they are as productive as full timers. Casual employees receive the most negative response in relation to motivation as only 39% of respondents state they are as motivated, and a further 45% state casual workers are less motivated than full time employees.

Table 6.2 Motivation and Atypical Employees

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
More motivated	13	11	19	15
As motivated	63	56	55	39
Less motivated	24	33	26	45
Total	100	100	100	100
N=	104	97	47	71

Within five-star hotels, opinions clearly diverge in relation to motivation levels of atypical employees (see Table 10 in Appendix A). The present research indicates that 50% of respondents state part time staff are as motivated as full timers, a further 38% state part time workers are more motivated than their full time colleagues. The situation for temporary workers is broadly similar as 43% state they are as motivated and the same percentage of respondents state they are more motivated. Significantly, in five-star hotels, management attitudes towards casual employees are less positive than for the other groups. Briefly, 37% of respondents indicate that casual staff are

less motivated than full timer employees. A further 25% of respondents state casuals are as motivated as full time workers.

Respondents from four-star hotels are fairly positive in relation to motivation levels of atypical workers. The present research reveals a number of interesting points. Firstly, over 40% of respondents consider part time employees are less motivated than full timers. This is the largest negative response from four-star hotels. Secondly, only 41% of respondents regard part timers to be as motivated as full timers. Casual employees fare slightly better than in five-star hotels, as 58% of respondents reckoned they are as motivated and a further 25% state they are more motivated than full time workers.

The present research indicates that three star hotels differ significantly from higher grade establishments in terms of managerial attitudes towards periphery workers. Responses on the whole, are more negative than previously witnessed. The main exception in this case however is part time workers, as 63% of respondents state they are as motivated and a further 10% reckon they are more motivated than full time workers.

On a less positive note, over 50% of respondents in the survey regard temporary and fixed term workers are less motivated than full timers. Significantly casual employees are considered by 62% of respondents to be less motivated than full timers.

Overall, respondents from public hospitals are extremely positive in terms of the motivation levels of atypical employees, as the majority of respondents state that peripheral employees are as motivated as their full time counterparts. Fixed term workers in this case are regarded very positively as 83% of respondents state they are as motivated and a further 8% state they are more motivated than full timers. Notably, 30% of employers in the survey believe casual workers are less motivated than full timers. Equally, 24% of respondents indicate they believe temporary workers are less motivated than core workers.

The majority of respondents from private hospitals regard all categories of atypical employees are as motivated as their full time counterparts. From the present survey, all respondents state part time and temporary employees are as motivated as full timers. Seventy-five per cent of respondents state casual employees are as motivated as full timers, this figure however falls to 60% in the case of fixed term employees.

In the case of private visitor centres employer opinions clearly differ. The first point of interest is that 79% of respondents state temporary workers are as motivated as full timers. However, a further 29% state they are less motivated than core employees. Notably, 50% of respondents state part time staff are less motivated than full time employees. However, fixed term employees in this sector are viewed extremely positively as 50% of respondents state they are as motivated and a further 50% consider them more motivated than full time employees.

Management opinions clearly vary within this sector in relation to motivation levels amongst peripheral employees. Firstly, all respondents in the survey state fixed term employees are less motivated than full time staff. Secondly, all respondents in this sector regard casual employees to be more motivated than full time employees. Notably, 50% of respondents state part time employees are less motivated than full time staff.

Table 6.3 gives details of motivation levels and organisational size. The present research shows that a substantial proportion of respondents from small organisations state that atypical workers are less motivated than full time employees. For example, over 40% of respondents consider temporary and fixed term contract workers are less motivated than full timers. This figure increases to 55% for casual employees. Part time employees are considered more positively in small organisations as 62% of respondents state they are as motivated with a further 29% indicating part time staff are less motivated than full timers.

Respondents from medium sized organisations are more positive than small organisations with regard to levels of motivation. Over 50% of respondents regard all groups of peripheral workers are as motivated as full time staff. Equally, over 40% of employers in medium organisations consider fixed term and casual employees are more motivated than full time workers

Table 6.3 Atypical workers and motivation Small Organisations

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
More Motivated	9	6	16	11
As Motivated	62	53	44	34
Less Motivated	29	41	40	55
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	66	66	25	47

Medium Organisations

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
More Motivated	24	36	43	40
As Motivated	53	57	57	50
Less Motivated	23	7	-	10
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	17	14	7	10

Large Organisations

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
More Motivated	15	12	13	14
As Motivated	75	69	73	50
Less Motivated	10	19	13	36
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	20	16	15	14

The data from large organisations in the survey is broadly similar to that for medium sized organisations. The majority of employers in large organisations state periphery workers are as motivated as full time employees. Over 60% of respondents state part time and fixed term workers are as motivated as full time staff. Only 50% of employers regard casuals are as motivated and a further 36% state casual workers are less motivated than full timers.

Table 6.4 below gives a breakdown of the relationship between motivation and unionisation and considers why employers with unionised employees believe they are more motivated than non unionised organisations

Table 6.4 Motivation and levels of Unionisation (Unionised Organisations)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More Motivated	14	22	13	17
As Motivated	69	65	87	67
Less Motivated	17	13	-	17
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	35	23	12	

(Non - Unionised Organisations)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More Motivated	10	12	21	16
As Motivated	60	45	41	33
Less Motivated	29	43	38	51
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	48	49	43	43

Collectively, the present research appears to indicate that unionised employees are considered to be more motivated than non unionised. For example, over 65% of respondents from unionised organisations state part time, temporary and casual workers are more motivated than full timers. Significantly over 87% of respondents from unionised organisations state fixed term workers are as motivated as full time employees.

Employers attitudes' in non unionised organisations clearly waned as a substantial proportion state atypical staff are less motivated than full timer staff. For example, casual workers in particular are poorly regarded in this respect as 51% of employers state they are less motivated than full timers. Equally 43% of respondents state temporary workers are less motivated and 38% of respondents consider fixed term workers less motivated than full timers.

6.3 Absenteeism and Atypical Workers

The next section examines levels of absenteeism amongst peripheral employees. The majority of respondents state that atypical employees are very positively viewed with regard to absenteeism and consider that it is not a problem. Table 6.5 below shows that part time employees are considered very positively as 55% state they have the same level of absenteeism as full timers. A further 32% indicate part time workers have a lower level of absenteeism than full time staff. Equally, in the case of fixed term workers 55% of respondents in the survey state they have the same level of absenteeism as full time employees, a further 40% believe that absenteeism is lower than for core workers.

Table 6.5 Absenteeism and atypical employees

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
Lower Absenteeism	32	42	40	41
Same Level absenteeism	58	46	55	59
Higher Level absenteeism.	10	12	5	20
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	101	99	42	70

Within this section, casual employees fare the least favourably as 20% of respondents state they have a higher level of absenteeism than full time employees. It is important to mention also that 41% of respondents state that casual staff have lower levels of absenteeism than full time staff. This finding is supported by the work of Blennerhassett (1987) whose research on absenteeism in the Irish public service showed that casual workers had the highest level of absenteeism and work of a low grade and low status.

When organisation type is considered, the research findings show (see Table 11 in Appendix A) within five star hotels, 63% of respondents state part time workers have the same level of absenteeism as full time employees, 25% of respondents however state part time workers have a lower level of absenteeism than full timers. Likewise, management opinion within five star hotels is very similar for temporary workers, as 50% believe absenteeism rates are the same and one third state they are lower than full timers. The majority of respondents consider absenteeism levels lower than full time employees for fixed term and casual employees. Approximately one third of

respondents state that casual and fixed term workers have the same level of absenteeism as full time employees.

Within four star hotels the vast majority of respondents consider atypical workers have the same level of absenteeism as full time workers. Eighty-eight per cent of respondents state part time and temporary workers have the same level of absenteeism as full time staff. Notably, 12% of four star hotels state part time staff have a higher level of absenteeism than their full time colleagues. Fixed term employees are viewed extremely positively in this instance as 90% of respondents state absenteeism is the same as full timers. Equally, in the case of casual workers, 77% of respondents state absenteeism is the same as full timers. Only 8% of respondents state casuals have a higher level of absenteeism than full time employees.

Three star hotels essentially display a similar pattern to that outlined for four and five star hotels above. In particular, both temporary and fixed term employees are considered very positively in relation to levels of absenteeism, as 45% and 58% of respondents state absenteeism amongst these groups is lower than that for full time employees. Over 50% of respondents state part time workers have the same level of absenteeism as full timers, over one third of respondents however state that absenteeism is lower in this group than amongst full timers. Casual workers fare the poorest in this instance as 27% of respondents state that absenteeism is higher than with full time employees.

Absenteeism amongst atypical employees is not considered to be a problem by the public hospitals in the present survey, as for example, over 70% of respondents state that temporary and casual employees have lower levels of absenteeism than full time workers. Equally in the case of part time and fixed term employees over 50% consider that absenteeism is lower for full time staff.

Private hospitals in the survey are also positive in relation to absenteeism within the periphery workforce. Over 60% of respondents state casual and temporary workers have lower absenteeism levels than full time employees. However, it should be mentioned in this case that 40% of respondents believe casual workers have a higher level of absenteeism than full time workers.

Visitor centres in the private sector largely reflect the pattern already established. Overall respondents do not consider absenteeism to be a problem amongst atypical employees. However, 17% of respondents state

that temporary workers have higher levels of absenteeism than full time workers.

Finally in the case of private visitor centres, the majority of respondents in the survey state that atypical workers have a similar absenteeism rate as full time employees

Table 6.6 Atypical workers and absenteeism in small organisations

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
Higher Absenteeism	27	35	32	40
Same Absenteeism	64	52	64	40
Lower Absenteeism	9	12	4	20
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	63	65	22	45

Atypical Workers and Absenteeism in medium organisations

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
Higher Absenteeism	23	57	63	36
Same Absenteeism	65	36	37	55
Lower Absenteeism	12	7	-	9
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	17	14	8	11

Atypical Workers and Absenteeism in Large organisations

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
Higher Absenteeism	5 0	52	50	50
Same Absenteeism	40	32	25	21
Lower Absenteeism	10	26	25	29
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	20	19	12	14

Table 6.6 (on the previous page) provides a breakdown of absenteeism and the size of the organisation.

Respondents from small organisations state that most atypical workers have the same level of absenteeism as full time employees. However, 40% of respondents state casual workers have higher levels of absenteeism than full time employees, equally one third of respondents state this is also the case for temporary and fixed term workers.

Within the medium sized organisations surveyed, opinions clearly diverge. The majority of respondents (57% and 63%) state that temporary and fixed term workers have greater levels of absenteeism than full time employees One third of respondents state that absenteeism is the same as full time workers. The situation for part time employees however is slightly different as 65% of respondents state absenteeism is the same and only 23% believe it to be higher than full time workers.

Absenteeism amongst the peripheral workforce is clearly more problematic in large organisations in the survey, as over half of the respondents state absenteeism is higher amongst atypical workers than full time employees. Casual workers in this case fare particularly poorly as only 21% of companies state they have the same level of absenteeism as full timers.

6.4 Loyalty and Atypical Employees

Table 6.7 Loyalty and Atypical Employees

	P/Time	Temp	F/ Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More loyal	3	3	8	5
Same level loyalty	69	63	74	49
Less loyal	28	34	18	47
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	105	100	38	66

Table 6.7 above shows employer opinions in relation to the levels of loyalty towards the organisation that periphery workers display. This section also attempts to answer the question raised in the chapter as to why organisations employ atypical employees?

Overall the majority of respondents clearly indicate that they believe periphery workers are as loyal as full timers. Over 60% of respondents state part time and temporary workers are as loyal as full timers. Equally, 74% of

respondents state fixed term employees are as loyal as their full time counterparts. Casual employees fare least favourably in this respect as 49% of respondents state they are as loyal as full timers. However, a further 47% of respondents believe they are less loyal than full timers. Interestingly, only 5% of respondents consider casual workers are more loyal than full time employees.

The majority of respondents from five star hotels state that atypical workers have the same degree of loyalty as full time employees. Notably, 100% of respondents indicate in the present survey that fixed term and temporary workers are as loyal as full timers. However, in the case of casual workers, only 40% of respondents state they are as loyal whilst the remaining 60% indicate that they are less loyal than full timers. Equally in the case of part time employees in five star hotels 37% of respondents consider they are less loyal than their full time counterparts.

For respondents from four star hotels indicate that loyalty amongst atypical workers is not problematic. For example 100% of respondents state fixed term employees are as loyal as full time workers. Likewise, 63% and 77% of respondents state that part time and temporary workers display the same degree of loyalty towards the organisation as full time staff. Attitudes towards casual employees however is slightly different as 54% consider them as loyal as full timers and a further 38% believe they are less loyal than full time employees.

Similarly respondents from three star hotels generally consider periphery workers have the same degree of loyalty as full timers. Over 60% of respondents consider fixed term and part time workers to have the same degree of loyalty as full timers. Notably, casual and temporary employees are not viewed as positively in this case as 49% and 50% of respondents state they have lower levels of loyalty than full time employees.

Within public hospitals employer attitudes towards levels of loyalty of peripheral employees is interesting, 86% of employers consider part time employees to have the same level of loyalty as full time employees. This figure decreases slightly in the case of temporary and fixed term employees. Notably, casual employees are believed to be considerably less loyal than

other categories of workers as 29% of respondents state casual employees are less loyal.

Private hospitals yield a similar response as public hospitals however, within public hospitals, all employers state part time employees are as loyal as full time workers. Equally, 75% consider temporary employees as loyal and the remaining 25% state they are less loyal than full time staff. Attitudes for fixed term and casual employees however, vary with a higher proportion of respondents stating they are less loyal. In the case of fixed term workers 33% of employers state they are less loyal than full timers. Equally, with regard to casual employees 50% of respondents consider they are less loyal than their full time counterparts.

Overall Private Visitor Centres were found to be less positive. All of the respondents consider fixed term and casual employees are less loyal than full time employees. Equally, only 25% and 33% of respondents state part time and temporary employees have the same level of loyalty as full time employees

Table 6.8 Atypical Employees, organisation size and levels of loyalty (Small Organisations)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More loyal	4	3	15	7
Same	70	59	65	43
Less loyal	25	38	20	50
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	69	68	20	46

(Medium Organisations)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More loyal	-	-	-	-
Same	59	93	100	88
Less loyal	41	7	-	12
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	17	14	7	8

Table 6.8 (continued) Atypical Employees, organisation size and levels of loyalty (Large Organisations)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More loyal	-	6	-	-
Same	72	53	73	42
Less loyal	28	41	27	58
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	18	17	11	12

When organisation size is considered the research has found that respondents from small organisations report similar levels of loyalty amongst the atypical group to that witnessed by full time employees. Responses are the highest for part time workers as 70% of employers state they are as loyal as their full time counterparts. Fixed term and temporary workers are also positively considered as 65% and 59% respectively replied that they display similar levels of loyalty as full timers. However, it is also interesting in this particular instance to mention that 38% of respondents consider temporary workers are less loyal than full time employees.

Finally, casual employees are clearly less favourably viewed than full time employees as 50% of respondents state they are less loyal than their full counterparts.

Collectively, none of the medium sized organisations identified in the survey state atypical workers are more loyal than full time employees. The vast majority of respondents consider all groups of atypical employees to be as loyal as full time workers. The notable exception within this group was part time employees whom 41% of respondents stated they are less loyal than full timers.

Overall, the general opinion from large organisations is less positive than has previously been stated in smaller organisations. In the case of part time, temporary and fixed term employees the majority of respondents state they are as loyal as full time workers. However, the situation for casual employees is less positive as 58% of respondents consider casual workers less loyal

than full time workers. This is in marked contrast to the view expressed by employers in medium sized organisations.

Table 6.9 Atypical employees and level of supervision required

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More supervision	36	54	13	54
Same supervision	62	45	79	43
Less supervision	1	1	5	3
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	107	101	38	72

6.5 Atypical Employees and supervision

Table 6.9 above shows the level of supervision management consider necessary for atypical employees relates directly to the notion of managerial control exercised over the peripheral workforce. In the case of fixed term employees the majority of respondents (79%) state that the same level of supervision is required for fixed term employees as full time workers, only 13% of respondents in this category consider higher levels of supervision necessary.

The attitudes towards part time workers is less enthusiastic in relation to levels of supervision as almost two thirds of respondents state the same level of supervision is required, whilst over one third (36%) consider greater supervision is necessary.

Finally, employer attitudes towards temporary and casual employees is essentially similar as in both cases the majority (54%) of respondents consider more supervision is necessary.

Equally, 43% and 45% of casual and temporary employees require the same level of supervision as full time employees.

When the survey respondents are analysed in more detail by organisation type (see Table 12 in Appendix A) the majority of respondents from five star hotels state that atypical employees require the same level of supervision as full time employees.

Interestingly, 33% of respondents state temporary workers require greater supervision. Additionally, in the case of casual employees 38% of

respondents consider greater supervision necessary. Amongst all of the categories none of the respondents consider greater supervision necessary. Equally, amongst all of the categories none of the respondents consider atypical employees require less supervision than full time employees.

Responses from employers in Four Star hotels differ slightly from the pattern established for Five Star Hotels. Primarily, a large proportion of employers in this category consider atypical workers require greater supervision than their full time counterparts. This is particularly evident in the case of temporary and casual employees as 53 and 54% consider greater supervision necessary. In the case of Part time and fixed term employees the majority of respondents consider the same level of supervision necessary to apply.

Overall, employers within this category consider more supervision necessary for all atypical workers. This opinion is particularly evident for temporary and casual workers as 68 and 67% respond that they believe more supervision necessary to those groups. Only 48% of respondents consider part time workers require the same degree of supervision as full timer employees and a further 50% indicate that higher levels of supervision are required. Amongst all the atypical groups in this category, fixed term employees are considered most favourably as only 33% of employers believed more supervision necessary and a further 58% state that they require the same degree of supervision as full time employees.

Respondents within this category consider atypical employees require the same amount of supervision as full time employees. This is particularly evident in the case of part time (74%) and casual (75%) employees. One notable exception within this category and, in marked contrast to the situation outlined for Three star hotels, 89% of respondents consider fixed term employees require more supervision than full time employees. Equally, a large proportion (44%) of respondents state temporary employees require more supervision than full time employees.

Respondents from Private hospitals are consistent in their attitude to atypical employees. In the case of part time, temporary and fixed term employees 100% of respondents consider they require the same level of supervision as full time employees. Casual employees represent the only exception in this

category as 50% of respondents state more supervision is necessary whilst the remaining 50% believe the same level of supervision is appropriate.

Overall, respondents from public visitor centres state the same level of supervision as full time employees is necessary. The only notable deviation within this category is temporary workers as 43% of respondents state more supervision to be necessary.

Collectively the majority of respondents from Private Visitor Centres consider atypical employees require greater levels of supervision than full time employees. However, only 50% of respondents consider this is the case and a further 50% reply that less supervision is required than for full time employees.

Table 6.10 Atypical employees and levels of supervision required

		P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
		%	%	%	%
Small	More supervision	39	60	24	59
	Same supervision	60	40	67	39
	Less supervision	1	-	9	2
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	70	68	21	49
Medium		P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	More supervision	35	36	-	36
	Same supervision	65	65	100	64
	Less supervision	w	-	-	-
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	17	14	7	11
Large		P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	More supervision	32	44	-	50
	Same	63	50	90	42
	Less supervision	5	6	10	8
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	19	18	10	12

Table 6.10 above shows the level of supervision and the size of the organisation.

Within small organisation two distinct opinions emerge from respondent employers. Firstly, in the case of temporary and casual employees, 59 and 60% of respondents consider more supervision is necessary. A further 40 and 39% of respondents state the same level of supervision is required for part time and fixed term employees as full time employees.

Respondents from medium sized organisations overall believe the same level of supervision is required for atypical workers as full time employees. In the case of part time, temporary and casual employees 65 and 64% of respondents state the same level of supervision as full time employees is appropriate. A further 35 and 36% state more supervision is necessary amongst atypical employees. Finally, fixed term employees are considered by 100% of respondents to require the same level of supervision as full time employees.

The majority of respondents from large organisations confirmed the pattern established in medium sized organisations. Once again, the majority of respondents state atypical workers require the same level of supervision as full time employees. The notable exception in this category is casual employees as 50% of respondents state they require greater levels of supervision than their full time counterparts. It is also significant to note that 32 and 44% of respondents from large organisations indicate that part time and temporary employees require greater supervision than full time employees.

6.6 Contracting Out

The next section of this chapter addresses the issue of contracting out and the extent to which a sample of Irish organisations in the service sector engage in this practice, which is frequently believed to be the 'way forward' by many organisations in the 1990s. Table 6.11 illustrates that 63% of respondents contract out a service in their organisation. Thirty-seven per cent of organisations in the present study responded that at present no service is contracted out. A further breakdown of the organisation type is provided in table 6.23. Within the hotel sector, five star hotels have the highest

occurrence as 80% of respondents in the survey currently contract out a service. Sixty-three per cent of three star hotels and 57% of four star hotels state that a service that is currently contracted out. Private hospitals appear more likely to contract out services than their public sector counterparts as 86% of private hospitals against 64% of public hospitals which currently contract out a service. Again, visitor centres follow the trend established by the hospitals as a higher proportion of private sector visitor centres (60%) contract out a service than within the public sector (44%).

Table 6.11 Contracting Out and type of organisation (Hotel sector)

		Laundry	Cleaning	Security	Transport
		%	%	%	%
5* Hotel	Yes	67	-	33	44
	No	33	100	67	56
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	9	9	9	9
4* Hotel	Yes	48	-	14	14
	No	52	100	86	86
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	21	21	21	21
3* Hotel	Yes	60	7	18	7
	No	40	93	82	93
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	45	45	45	43

The present research indicates that laundry is the most common service to be contracted out, as 53% of respondents from the survey state this is currently the situation. Secondly, security was mentioned as 26% of respondents stated it is contracted out. Transport is a contracted out by only 17% of respondents, a closer examination in the next section will reveal which sector in fact used transport services of outside contractors. Finally, only 87% of respondents contract out cleaning.

Table 6.12 Contracting Out and type of organisation (Health sector)

		Laundry	Cleaning	Security	Transport
		%	%	%	%
Public	Yes	56	13	35	29
Hospitals					
	No	44	87	65	71
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	16	16	17	14
Private	Yes	33	13.1	43	40
Hospitals					
	No	67	100	57	60
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	6	6	7	5

1. Laundry

Table 6.12 above shows that contracting out laundry is very popular in five star hotels as 67% of respondents indicate this is currently the situation. Equally 60% of three star hotels also contract out laundry. The present research indicates that four star hotels currently use contract laundry services the least amongst the hotel sector as only 48% responded positively. In the case of contracting out laundry services in the health sector, the public sector display a much higher usage than the private sectors, as 56% of public hospitals and only 33% of private hospitals reported contracting out laundry. Private Visitor centres responded that 50% of establishments currently contract out laundry services. There are no positive responses in this sector to public visitor centres contracting out laundry

2. Security:

Responses vary in relation to the contracting out of security within organisations as shown in Table 6.12 above. Overall, contracting out of security is the least common in the hotel sector and most common in visitor centres.

Public and private visitor centres both display a relatively high usage of contracted security services as 60% to 80% responded positively.

3. Cleaning

Overall, cleaning is not a particularly common service to contract out amongst respondent organisations in the present research. Hotels report a very low usage of contract cleaners. Only 7% of three star hotels indicate that cleaning is contracted out. Neither five nor four star hotels report any cleaning services contracted out.

Public hospitals display a higher usage of contract cleaning than the private sector as 13% of public hospitals state that cleaning is currently contracted out. By contrast, there are no private sector hospitals which state that cleaning is contracted out. The situation for Visitor Centres is similar to that previously outlined for the hospital sector however, the differential is more marked as 60% of Public Visitor Centres indicated that cleaning is contracted out.

4. Transport

The final service to be considered in this section is transport .Overall five star hotels report the highest level of contracting out as 44 % of respondents indicate that transport is contracted out. Only 14% of four star hotels indicate that transport is contracted out. Apparently within three star hotels transport is rarely contracted out as only 14 % of respondents replied positively.

Within the health sector a considerably higher incidence is recorded from the survey as 40% of Private Hospitals and 29% of Public Hospitals state that transport is contracted out. An interesting point to note at this stage is the higher utilisation within the Private Sector.

Finally, Visitor Centres report a divergence between the Public and the Private sector. The private sector once again displays a higher reliance on the use of contract services than the public sector.

Table 6.13 Contracting Out and Type of Organisation (Visitor Centres)

		Laundry	Cleaning	Security	Transport
		%	%	%	%
Public	Yes	0.0	60	60	+
Visitor					
Centre					
	No	100	40	40	100
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	5	5	5	5
Private	Yes	50	2.1	50	33
Visitor					
Centre					
	No	50	100	50	67
	Total	100	100	100	100
	N =	4	3	4	3

The present survey reveals that large organisations are less likely to contract out laundry than small or medium sized organisations. Only 32% of large organisations state that laundry is contracted out. This figure contrasts with 57 and 59% for small and medium organisations.

A large majority (96%) of small organisations state that catering is currently contracted out. However, a very small proportion of medium sized organisations (6%) indicate that catering is contracted out. Equally, large organisations in the survey report a relatively low occurrence of contracting out catering at 21%.

The present research indicates that medium sized organisations report the highest level of contracting out security services as 53% responded positively. Almost one third of large organisations report that security is contracted out. The lowest occurrence is in small organisations, only 17% of respondents state that security is contracted out.

Collectively a relatively low proportion of respondents state that cleaning is contracted out however, small organisations appear less likely than large organisations to contract out this particular service as only 26% of small

organisations contract out against 35% of large and medium sized organisations.

Once again a fairly low percentage of organisations state that transport is contracted out. Similarly, small organisations are less likely than larger organisations to contract out transport. Only 12 % of small organisations state that transport is currently contracted out. However, 24 and 29% of large and medium sized organisations currently contract out transport.

6.7 Conclusions

The present chapter has evaluated and explored why respondent employers use atypical workers, and included the following issues; The first section considered productivity levels of atypical staff in relation to full time workers. On the whole, respondents were very positive, the majority stating that atypical workers are as productive as full time employees. Next the levels of motivation amongst atypical workers in relation to full time staff was considered. Again the majority of respondents indicated that atypical workers are as motivated as full time staff. However, casual employees represented an exception in this case as 45% of respondent employers state they are less motivated than full time employees. Organisation size and type were also evaluated and revealed some interesting points. A significant proportion of respondents from five star hotels stated that they find part time, temporary and fixed term employees more motivated than full time staff. Respondents from four and three star hotels were less positive in this respect. Small organisations represented the most negative group of responses in relation to motivation levels of atypical staff. The present research found that atypical employees from unionised organisations are considered (by their employers) to be more motivated than full time staff.

The issue of absenteeism was also considered. Overall the present study found absenteeism levels were generally the same or lower than full time staff within respondent organisations. Respondents in the hotel sector did not appear to have any particular problems in relation to absenteeism.

This pattern was repeated in the hospital and tourism sectors. The majority of respondents form medium sized organisations indicated that absenteeism. is higher for temporary and fixed term workers than for full time staff. Large organisations in the present research appear to encounter the most problems in relation to absenteeism of atypical staff.

The question of loyalty levels of atypical staff in relation to full time employees was evaluated. The majority of respondents in the present research stated that atypical workers are as loyal as full time employees. The main exception in this case was casual workers as the majority of respondents from medium sized organisations state that atypical employees are more loyal than full time staff.

Levels of required supervision were also examined which revealed that the majority of employers found that part time and fixed term workers require the same level of supervision as full time staff whereas, temporary and casual workers require more supervision.

Contracting out was covered in the final section of the chapter. Sixty three per cent of organisations in the present survey contract out a service . Small and medium sized organisations were found to be more likely to contract out a service than large organisations.

Chapter Seven

Results, Conclusions and Recommendations

7. Introduction

The objective of the present study was to assess the usage and the impact of atypical employment in hotels, hospitals and tourism outlets in Ireland and to test the following hypothesis:

- 1. Has the emergence of atypical employment reinforced rather than eroded traditional gender roles and working patterns?
- 2. Are men more likely than women to be functionally flexible in the Irish hospitality and health sectors?

7.1 Summary

In chapter one the development and main issues surrounding atypical employment were outlined and evaluated. This chapter sought to establish rationales for employer strategies to employ atypical workers in the 1990's and attempted to assess if these are purely cost driven strategies or are they part of the organisations long term strategic plan. In attempting to establish the characteristics of atypical work the legislative framework regarding new forms of work is outlined at both a European and National level. A recurring theme within the literature is that protection for atypical workers in particular temporary workers is derisory and encourages their marginalisation in the workplace. This issue is further explored in the chapter as female employment patterns and current employment trends in the hotel, hospital and tourism sectors are evaluated.

The chapter evaluated numerical flexibility and concentrated primarily on the following categories: part-time, temporary, fixed term and casual work. These categories were particularly pertinent to the primary research. The gender issue surrounding numerical flexibility is well researched, however for the

purposes of the present study, it provided a useful backdrop to form a basis for the hypothesis. The introduction of functional flexibility or multiskilling in organisations was assessed and the training implications arising from it. Functional flexibility involves horizontal enlargement of competence level or vertical enlargement which may be either upward or downward. It is the core workforce that functional flexibility is most likely to develop and its realisation is seen as being dependent on a considerable degree of job security. The chapter also evaluated the relationship between flexibility and size as much of the literature on the flexible firm concentrates solely on the dynamics of the large firm. Yet as a result of corporate restructuring in recent years the development of the small firm has been conspicuous. The gender issue surrounding functional flexibility proposed by Baggueley (1991:743) was examined and demonstrates to some extent the possible gender biases emerging which further discriminate against peripheral workers. Further disadvantages suffered by atypical workers such as; lower earnings and earning potential, lack of progression in the established pay structures and lack of access to training were evaluated which demonstrate the further marginalisation and isolation suffered by the atypical worker.

The trade union position and response in relation to atypical employment is a further important theme evaluated in the chapter. Roche (1992) has attributed three sets of factors to trade union growth or decline which are cyclical influences, structural influences and institutional influences. latter is the most significant in the present study. Probably one of the most important problems for the trade union has been recruiting and organising atypical workers due to the tenuous nature of peripheral workers and their The isolation of atypical workers and unorthodox modes of employer. attendance, the modest legal protection afforded to atypical workers and the limited bargaining strength of atypical workers may be undercut due to the relative over supply of such workers. Clearly the union objective must be to produce a bargaining response which furnishes some real benefits from flexible working arrangements without sacrificing union strength. The strategies adopted by the unions must be perceived to be relevant and appropriate for all the workforce within their operational influence.

Fieldwork was carried out to establish the utilisation of flexibility strategies in Irish organisations in the service sector. It consisted of an in depth mail questionnaire to a comprehensive number of five, four, three star hotels,

Public and Private hospitals and Public and Private Visitor Centres in the Republic of Ireland. Chapter two outlined the research Methodology used in this research. Chapters three - six inclusive outlined the research findings.

7.2 Overall Research Results

In chapter three of this research evidence of the characteristics of atypical Irish workers in the service sector is identified and discussed. In particular, the extent of respondent employers reliance on the periphery labour market is The research findings have shown a pattern of intensive utilisation of atypical employment- in particular of part-time and temporary employment. One striking feature which emerged is the exceptionally high female participation rates in the hospital sector. This, combined with intensive usage of numerical flexibility pointed to a feminized and numerically flexible workforce. The chapter also evaluated participation rates of married females and revealed a bi-polar pattern particularly evident in the case of part time and fixed term workers. Respondent employers tend to identify very low or very high rates of married females within their organisations. The age profile of atypical workers was also established and this research supports other available research which asserts that atypical workers tend to be younger than their full time counterparts. Furthermore, another interesting finding revealed in the research findings are that levels of unionisation amongst atypical employees are typically very low. Additionally, the research findings show a clear relationship between the size of the organisation and union activity. Large organisations have greater levels of unionisation than medium sized organisations which in turn display higher rates of unionisation than small organisations.

In chapter four of this research the personnel policies, terms and conditions applied to atypical and core workers is outlined and discussed. The research findings show paradoxically that employers experience problems when recruiting part time and temporary workers yet they explicitly state that the Part time workers Act (1991) is not a barrier or impediment when recruiting. These findings pose a dilemma which could be answered in part by the relatively high Social Welfare provision set against relatively low remuneration and unfavourable terms and conditions offered by employers to atypical workers. Another interesting finding revealed in this chapter and which challenges a widely held view that employers are becoming increasingly

"strategic" in their approach to labour recruitment, training and retention. The present research has shown that organisations are not applying strategic reasons when recruiting and suggest management are content in the knowledge that manning levels can be appropriately changed should economic circumstances dictate it. This supports the findings of McGregor and Sproull (1990:79) who argue that a strategic approach to the employment of peripheral labour is relatively uncommon. The research findings have shown that skill levels or lack thereof play a significant part when recruiting. This was particularly apparent within the hotel sector. This appears ironic in a sector which has traditionally been associated with low skill levels and low status. Additionally, whilst management express problems with regard to skills shortages the research has found very few hotels provide training for employees. Furthermore, the research found declining training provision as the hotel grade declines. This is a disturbing finding from a number of Firstly, it actively demonstrates that management openly admit experiencing recruitment problems and skill shortages, whilst along with this they lack the willingness to invest in training for employees. Secondly, with increasing government emphasis placed on tourism and the provision of hospitality services as a growth area in employment terms, it questions the rationale behind this. Is it merely to encourage low grade, low skill and low status feminized jobs?

An interesting finding revealed in the research was that temporary and part time workers have strong success rate in transferring to full time employment. This indicates that these forms of employment act as a filter to screen out unsuitable candidates.

The research revealed that Irish employers overall intend to maintain their reliance on full and part time staff. Future recruitment plans are indicative of current managerial attitudes regarding labour use strategies and personnel practices in place to deal with atypical employees in the workplace. One of the most significant findings in the chapter related to the high labour turnover rates employers indicate whilst simultaneously acknowledging the absence of any clear labour retention strategies for atypical workers. Retention strategies such as the provision of training to facilitate the acquisition of new skills and the provision of employee benefits such as overtime payments and access to pension schemes are clearly absent and point to the derogatory manner in which employers in this research view the atypical worker.

In chapter four explored the thesis that functional flexibility favours male employees as females tend to be numerically but not functionally flexible. In the case of full time employees the evidence from the research supports this thesis. A significant feature revealed in the research is the fact that employer attitudes to functional flexibility and gender clearly vary. This, it may be argued is attributable to a lack of employer awareness and concern regarding the skill/gender relationship. In many respects this supports the findings of the previous chapter which assert that atypical workers are not managed by any clear assertive managerial prerogative or direction. Instead atypical workers appear to be managed in an ad hoc manner devoid of any clear long term objectives barring immediate cost control. The chapter went on to evaluate employer attitudes to recruiting employees at various skill levels on a part time, temporary fixed term and casual basis. Overall, employer attitudes were very positive in this respect. Equally positive were attitudes to the ability of atypical workers to carry out tasks normally assigned to full time This is significant in that it clearly reveals a gap between employees. employer rhetoric and reality; If employers assert that atypical workers can carry out tasks normally assigned to full time workers why are the success rates of atypical employees so low when applying to transfer to full time work? This is clearly a deliberate employer strategy 'peripheralising' and further marginalising certain groups of workers for the benefit of the organisation. The research revealed the existence of flexibility agreements is apparent particularly in small organisations. This is probably due to the fact that small organisations do not enjoy the benefits of labour specialisation common in larger organisations. More importantly it denotes the formalisation of flexibility in smaller organisations necessary perhaps for their continued survival in the highly competitive market place.

The research also revealed that 'worksharing' reinforces the atypical employment pattern already established. That is, work sharers tend to be female, married and aged between 25 - 49 years old.

The final chapter of research analysis attempts to answer the question; Why employ atypical workers? The research found Irish employers were very positive regarding the productivity, motivation, absenteeism and loyalty. The dissenting opinion emerged in relation to the levels of required supervision for atypical workers relative to that required for full time staff.

The conclusion reached in this research is that the utilisation of atypical employment practices from an employers perspective is flexible, reliable, cost effective and efficient yet from an employees perspective is poorly paid, offering few if any promotion prospects, benefits or skill enhancement possibilities.

7.3 Recommendations

The recommendations are outlined with regard to the four specific categories of stakeholders involved in atypical work - The legislator, employers, employees, and the trade unions.

1. Employers.

With the emergence of atypical employment practices in the workplace, policies and strategies must be devised to strategically manage progressive change and erode the barriers which currently prevent career progression, marginalise and alienate atypical workers. This may be achieved by tackling the following points;

- Firstly, by actively allowing and encouraging the transfer to and from atypical employment. This however can only be achieved if general attitudes change to perceive atypical work forms on an equal basis as full time work.
- Secondly, by improving the terms and conditions of part time, temporary, fixed term and casual workers not solely by offering pro-rata pay but also providing the fringe benefits such as access to pension schemes, shift bonuses, overtime payments and discounts on goods and services which would enhance the status and satisfaction of atypical work in the work place.
- Thirdly, clear career paths and pay progression must be addressed by personnel policies to provide an active career structure for atypical workers already in the workplace and those wishing to enter it. Similarly, this would enhance the status of atypical work.

- Fourthly, due to their erratic mode of attendance, atypical employees are frequently absent from the workplace. An effective system of communication must be devised in order to fully inform atypical workers about events in the organisation. This would have the additional benefit of encouraging atypical workers to identify with the goals and objectives of the organisation and would thus enhance loyalty and commitment.
- Fifthly, employers tend to indicate that atypical workers require additional supervision than required of full-time workers. This should be tackled by a systematic analysis of the work at hand which may identify that new and innovative work practices are appropriate. Autonomous work groups may be applied allowing groups of workers to manage and carry out a complete task. This should build loyalty, commitment, and encourage social cohesion in the work place. The high levels of labour turnover must be tackled and retention strategies put in place. In many respects this should be a natural follow on from the points mentioned above. management take an active interest in the plight of atypical workers, in a sense a type of 'Hawthorne Effect' may occur, which should ultimately have a positive impact on productivity. Atypical employees are an important resource for organisations today as they provide a cost effective, highly productive and motivated work force. Management must attempt to manage them as they would any other resource. Greater attention should also be paid to how financial rewards for atypical workers in particular are awarded. Such a policy may focus attention on improving intrinsic rewards such as achievement, recognition and growth.
- Finally access to training schemes for atypical workers could be improved in order to enhance career progression and improve the organisation's skill base.

In addition, in order to implement change management must actively encourage participation and involvement so that atypical workers are not (as they have been in the past) merely passive bystanders, watching from the outside.

Like any management of change exercise, the introduction of new forms of work and its management should be preceded by open consultation,

participation, involvement and a comprehensive training programme to gain the support of the key interest groups within the organisation.

2. The Legislators

One of the most effective mechanisms to improve the position of atypical employees is for the legislator to develop a comprehensive policy to cope with the development of atypical work patterns. The development of such a policy would have to embrace not only pro-rata pay and access to the same terms and conditions as full time workers, but additionally would have to ensure that social insurance and protective legislation is enacted which would avoid the implication of indirect discrimination.

- Firstly, despite many positive moves to extend social insurance to atypical workers, there remain many barriers to their qualification for social insurance benefits, and the more stringent contribution conditions introduced in recent years have increased these difficulties. One result of this is that many workers must rely on social assistance for support. The fact that the means test frequently takes into account earnings by other members of the family unit makes it difficult for atypical workers to qualify for such benefits, while the structure of the social assistance schemes with its united disregard for earnings and the rules concerning payment of dependent adult allowances implies that many employees are trapped in low paid employment. A major review needs to be undertaken to ensure that atypical workers are not discriminated against and to facilitate their integration into the social welfare scheme.
- Secondly, many governments have also accepted the need to require employers to extend fringe benefits to atypical workers. This can be seen in Canada where under an amendment to the Federal Pension Benefits Standards Act which from January 1987 extended pro-rated pension coverage to part time employees under federal jurisdiction. A similar pattern is emerging in Europe led by the European Union. The Social Charter and other European Directives have addressed some of these issues but it takes a long time for them to get translated into National law.

Robinson (1991:56) argues that comparative experience has demonstrated that the objectives of achieving parity with full time work may be approached

by pursuing a range of strategies. During the course of the 1980's concurrent with substantial growth in atypical numbers there have been a number of notable improvements in the employment conditions of atypical workers. Significantly, however these generally apply only to part time workers. Support therefore must be given to Robinson's (1993:156) recommendation which holds that employers operating in an unregulated labour market will not offer the same terms and conditions to atypical workers as full time staff. This view has strengthened over the past decade as pressures of the pervasive deregulatory economic environment which cast any potential rise in labour costs as an obstacle to employment creation. It can be clearly demonstrated this has formed the basis of the Irish governments protracted resistance to demands for measures to tackle the legislative gap in employment protection between full time and atypical workers.

Policy makers are aware of the need to take into account both the needs of employers and emerging patterns of labour supply, and face arguments that the implementation of policies and legislation aimed at redressing the imbalance will inevitably raise labour costs and ultimately affect profitability. This factor is particularly salient in the services sector where changing labour demand patterns are increasingly shaping employment structures. Policy makers must demonstrate an awareness that labour and security law cannot continue to develop on the exclusive model that employment is full time and open ended. Thus legislation must be developed and enacted which simultaneously recognises both typical and atypical arrangements. Caution should be exercised so that new forms of work which bring flexibility are not penalised. Only a minimum level of protection can contribute towards the emancipation of new forms of work from its current inferior status and halt developments taking their current direction.

Labour law and protective legislation must regain its balance between protecting the interests of workers and protecting employers. More specifically, the aim is not to restore the lost balance as it was - The new forms of work have already changed the landscape of labour law - but rather to re-establish a protection of the worker and company interests. The challenge ahead for the legislator is to develop and re-establish classic labour law whilst accepting that it must now be flexible to new work arrangements.

3. Trade Unions

Atypical employees display a very low propensity to unionise and this is particularly problematic for trade unions when overall membership has significantly dropped (Leighton and Syrett 1989:21). Trade unions experience a number of specific problems regarding atypical workers. These can be summarised as:

- 1. Recruitment problems.
- 2. Difficulties for the union in promoting the interests of atypical employees.
- 3. Domination of atypical employment by females and their low propensity to unionise.
- e Firstly, many trade unions experience recruitment problems because atypical employees are often away from the work place. In Ireland in the past, trade unions and congress have highlighted the plight of atypical workers to its members but a systematic recruitment drive has not been evident. In the UK, however a few pioneering examples by individual trade unions to actively recruit atypical workers. There is no reason why a similar campaign could not be launched in Ireland. The campaigns (known as 'Link-up' and 'Flare' are mentioned in appendix D at the end of the text) have demonstrated that with deliberate and sensitive orchestration of priorities and methods, atypical workers can be brought into membership and effectively represented.
- Secondly, trade unions may experience relative difficulty in promoting the interests of atypical workers which may be in direct conflict with its existing full time members. Irish trade unions themselves appear very negative and openly hostile to the introduction and usage of new forms of work. Wickham (1993:86) yet this attitude in itself is self defeating and not in the interest of any party save the employer who may further exploit the present situation.

Finally, atypical work is dominated by high levels of female workers.
 Females have displayed a low propensity to unionise. This has further exacerbated the already weakened position of the trade unions. The trade union movement will have to improve its image and broaden its appeal to attract and retain female membership.

4. Employees

The final stakeholders in the emergence of new forms of work is the employees themselves. The emergence of atypical work patterns is not solely attributable to demand or employer led strategies. The supply factors must also be considered which indicate employees desire for something other than a standard employment relationship. Clearly, employees may want to combine family, caring, domestic responsibilities, increased leisure time or other commitments with work. This new desire set against a background of consistently high and rising unemployment is bringing about massive changes in the world of work. Atypical employees themselves should actively assert themselves to improve their lot, either through participation and involvement with management and the trade unions or through the political mechanism of challenging the legislative and policy maker.

7.4 Conclusions

Chapter seven, has summarised and concluded the present research findings and also provided recommendations for the four parties involved; The policy maker and legislator, employers, trade unions and finally the atypical employees themselves.

There is much debate that flexibility in itself is not new and much scepticism demonstrated. These have been articulated by Hyman (1989:14)

There is nothing novel about segmentation within the "internal labour market" between a stable core and vulnerable periphery. The notion that the former is more likely to be involved in a collaborative, flexible relationship with management is evident in much literature. The present study supports this assertion.

Although the flexible firm model has become fashionable, there is little evidence of a strategic commitment to its implementation. This was clearly evident in the research.

The neat equation, core = skilled, flexible, periphery = unskilled = inflexible is as has been demonstrated in this research, as a gross simplification.

It should also be mentioned that at a broader macro level, society as a whole may have to adapt its perspective on the full time working norm. This can be summed up by Hunter (191990:1) who argues that few areas of our lives evoke more profound ambivalence than the activity that goes on by the name of work. On the one hand work is synonymous with promise. It is the means by which we nourish our sense of mastery and achievement in the world. It is the major activity through which we shape our ambitions and our talents and thus come to know ourselves. Work also takes us beyond the self. It is our link to society, our chief collective activity. Through our work, we dedicate ourselves to an end - a product or a service, a professional or an occupational group. It is inherently double natured, simultaneously personal and social. Work quite simply makes us who we are. Along similar vein Handy (1984:15) argues that if society makes jobs the pivot of existence and then cannot provide enough jobs it is practising deceit.

On a final note, Hyman (1989:15) argues that plus ca change, plus c'est la meme chose. If history is a continuous process of transition, it provides no absolute turning points: even revolutionary change involves major elements of continuity. Rather than witnessing 'a radical break from the past' a more incremental change is occurring in all our working lives. Future career patterns will have to be shaped and reshaped according to the new employment practices shaping the 1990's and beyond. It is hoped the new "expanded" Europe will make a positive contribution to the lot of the atypical worker in the next century.

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Appendix A

Table 1 Type of Organisation and Size

	St	Small		Medium		Large		
	%	N=	%	N=	%	N=	Total	N=
5* Hotels	40	4	50	5	10	1	100	10
4*Hotels	76	16	19	4	5	1	100	21
3*Hotels	88	45	8	4	4	1	100	51
Pb.Hosp	29	7	17	4	54	2	100	24
Pr.Hosp	29	2	14	1	57	13	100	7
Pb.V.C.	78	7	0	-	22	4	100	9
Pr.V.C.	100	5	0	-	0	2	100	5

Table 2 Manpower Utilisation and Organisation Size in the Service Sector in Ireland

		F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
		%	%	%	%	%
Small	Yes	85	76	69	13	46
	No	15	24	31	87	64
	Total	100	100	100	100	100
	N =	86	84	84	82	82
Medium	Yes	100	89	67	41	53
	No	-	11	33	59	47
	Total	100	100	100	100	100
	N =	27	18	18	17	17
Large	Yes	87	87	91	52	44
Ü	No	13	13	9	48	66
	Total	100	100	100	100	100
	N =	18	23	23	21	23
Total	N =	127	125	125	119	122

Table 3 Organisation Type and Female Participation Rates

	<20%	21-40%	41-60 %	61-80 %	> 80 %
	%	%	%	%	%
5* Hotels	10	30	50	10	0
4* Hotels	10	10	33	33	14
3* Hotels	8	10	43	33	6
Pb. Hosp.	8	0	0	42	50
Pr.Hosp.	0	0	0	29	71
Pb.V.C.	0	22	22	22	33
Pr.V.C.	0	20	20	20	40

Table 4 Female participation rate and occupational status

	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%	%
< 20%	11	26	25	38	23
21- 40%	15	18	14	8	14
41 - 60%	32	22	26	21	25
> 60%	42	34	35	33	38
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N =	109	94	84	24	56

Table 5 Employers attitude towards atypical employees suitability and organisation type

(Unskilled employees)

	P/Time	N=	Temp	N=	F/Term	N=	Casual	N=
	%		_% -		%		%	
5*Hotel	86	7	71	7	67	6	71	7
4*Hotel	63	16	63	14	57	7	71	14
3*Hotel	77	34	83	35	62	13	80	26
Pb.Hosp	60	23	77	22	67	15	84	13
Pr.Hosp	91	5	60	5	75	4	60	5
Pb.V.C	60	6	100	7	80	5	75	4
Pr.V.C	100	4	100	3	100	2	100	3
(OL:111 - d -								

(Skilled employees)

	P/Time %	N=	Temp %	N=	F/Term %	N=	Casual %	N=
5*Hotel	71	7	57	7	67	6	43	7
4*Hotel	78	18	70	13	57	7	55	11
3*Hotel	89	35	82	34	73	15	73	22
Pb.Hosp	96	22	95	21	80	15	83	12
Pr.Hosp	100	4	100	3	100	3	100	3
Pb.V.C	100	6	100	7	80	5	50	4
Pr.V.C	80	5	75	4	100	2	50	2

Table 5.(continued) Employers attitude towards atypical employees suitability and organisation type (*Professional employees*)

	P/Time	N=	Temp	N=	F/Term	N=	Casual	N=
	%		%		%		%	
5*Hotel	50	6	67	6	71	7	50	6
4*Hotel	67	15	50	12	70	10	50	10
3*hotel	67	36	53	34	75	16	60	25
Pb.Hosp	91	22	85	20	93	14	77	13
Pr.Hosp	80	5	75	4	67	3	5 0	4
Pb.V.C	80	5	80	5	80	5	33	3
Pr.V.C	75	4	67	3	75	4	0	3

Table 6 Functional Flexibility and skill levels within organsations (Unskilled employees)

(_		0
	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%	%
Yes	55	55	49	35	37
No	37	36	40	40	46
D.K.	8	9	10	25	18
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N =	108	99	89	40	68
(Skilled em	ployees)		`		
	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%	%
Yes	59	47	44	25	30
No	36	42	39	44	46
D.K.	5	11	18	31	25
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N =	111	91	78	45	57
(Profession	nal employed	es)			
	F/Time	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%	%
Yes	68	51	45	33	33
No	29	36	39	36	39
D.K.	3	13	16	31	28
Total	100	100	100	100	100
N =	107	84	74	45	54

Table 7 Small organisations and levels of multiskilling

Unskilled

Skilled

Prof

	F/Time	N	P/Time	N	Temp	N	F/Term	N	Casual	N
	%		%		%		%		%	
Unskilled	51	68	55	64	52	60	32	22	37	43
Skilled	56	71	50	56	43	45	25	24	33	33
Prof	73	67	63	49	49	43	42	24	42	55
Medium o	rganisatior	ns and	d levels of	f multi	iskilling					
	F/Time	N	P/Time	N	Temp	N	F/Term	N	Casual	N
	%		%		%		%		%	
Unskilled	66	18	56	16	36	11	17	6	39	13
Skilled	55	18	43	14	33	12	13	8	22	9
Prof	67	18	47	15	46	13	22	9	22	9
Large org	Large organisations and levels of multiskilling									
	F/Time %	N	P/Time %	N	Temp %	N	F/Term %	N	Casual %	N

Table 8 Productivity of atypical workers and organisation size Small Organisations

	P/Tim	Temp	F/Ter	Casual
	e		m	
	%	%	%	%
More	12	3	16	11
Productive				
As Productive	67	64	63	41
Less Productive	21	32	21	48
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	67	66	19	46

Medium Organisations

	P/Tim	Temp	F/	Casual
	e		Term	
	%	%	%	%
More	20	29	50	-
Productive				
As Productive	73	71	50	70
Less Productive	7	-	-	30
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	15	14	8	10

Large Organisations

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More Productive	15	21	25	29
As Productive	75	63	58	43
Less Productive	10	16	17	28
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	20	19	12	14

Table 9 Organisation type and productivity (Five Star Hotels)

	P/Tim	Temp	F/Ter	Casual
	e		m	
	%	%	%	%
More	43	33	67	13
Productive				
As Productive	43	33	33	62
Less Productive	14	33		25
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	7	6	3	8

(Four Star Hotels)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More Productive	11	6	13	15
As Productive	83	81	87	62
Less Productive	6	13	-	23
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	18	16	8	13

(Three Star Hotels)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More Productive	15	5	20	9
As Productive	63	59	50	28
Less Productive	23	37	30	63
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	40	41	10	32

(Public Hospitals)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More Productive	13	17	30	20
As Productive	70	70	60	70
Less Productive	17	13	10	10
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	23	23	10	10

Table 9 (continued) (Private Hospitals)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	$% \frac{1}{2}\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(-\frac{1}{2}$	%	%	%
More Productive	-	20	25	20
As Productive	100	60	50	60
Less Productive	-	20	25	20
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	6	5	4	5

(Public Visitor Centres)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More Productive	-	-	50	-
As Productive	100	83	50	-
Less Productive	-	17	40	100
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	5	6	2	-

(Private Visitor Centres)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More Productive	-	67	-	-
As Productive	50	3 3	50	-
Less Productive	50		50	-
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	4	3	2	2

Table 10 Organisation type and motivation levels (Five Star Hotels)

	P/Time	Temp	F/ Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More motivated	38	43	50	38
As motivated	50	43	25	25
Less Motivated	12	14	25	37
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	8	7	4	8

(Four Star Hotels)

	P/Time	Temp	F/ Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More motivated	18	6	20	25
As motivated	41	81	. 7 0	58
Less Motivated	41	13	10	17
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	17	17	10	12

(Three Star Hotels)

	P/Time	Temp	F/ Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More motivated	10	8	17	9
As motivated	63	38	33	29
Less Motivated	27	54	50	62
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	40	39	12	34
(Public Hospital	ls)			

	P/Time	Temp	F/ Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More motivated	13	19	8	10
As motivated	70	57	83	60
Less Motivated	17	24	8	30
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	23	21	12	10

Table 10 (continued) (Private Hospitals)

	P/Time	Temp	F/ Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More motivated	-	-	20	25
As motivated	100	100	60	75
Less Motivated	-	-	20	-
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	6	4	5	4

(Public Visitor Centres)

	P/Time	Temp	F/ Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
More motivated	-	-	-	100
As motivated	50	67	-	-
Less Motivated	50	33	100	-
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	4	3	2	2

Table 11 Organisation type and Absenteeism (Five Star Hotels)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
Lower Absenteeism	67	25	33	57
Same Absenteeism	33	63	50	29
Higher Absenteeism	-	12	17	14
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	3	8	6	7
(Four Star Hotels)				
	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
Lower Absenteeism	10	-	6	15
Same Absenteeism	90	88	88	77
Higher Absenteeism	**	12	6	8
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	10	17	16	13

Table 11 (continued) (Three Star Hotels)

	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
Lower Absenteeism	58	36	45	38
Same Absenteeism	42	51	40	35
Higher Absenteeism	-	13	15	27
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	12	39	40	34
(Public Hospitals)				
	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
Lower Absenteeism	50	57	74	78
Same Absenteeism	50	43	22	22
Higher Absenteeism	-	-	2	-
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	10	23	23	9
(Private Hospitals)				
	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
Lower Absenteeism	50	40	60	60
Same Absenteeism	25	40	20	**
Higher Absenteeism	25	20	20	40
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	4	5	5	5
(Public Visitors Cer	ntre)			
	P/Time	Temp	F/Term	Casual
	%	%	%	%
Lower Absenteeism	-	20	17	-
Same Absenteeism	100	80	66	-
Higher Absenteeism	-	-	17	-
Total	100	100	100	100
N =	1	5	6	-

Appendix B				
General Informa	<u>ition</u>			
Please tick each	approp	riate box:		
				Office
				Use
Ouestionnaire N	umber			Only
Ouestionnan e 1	umber			Omy
1. Please specify w	vhich of	the following c	tegories would best describe	vour establishment?
11 I lease speeing	, and on			<i>J</i> • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Visitor / Interpret	tive Cen	<u>itre</u>		
	1.	Private •		
	2.	Public •		
2. Address/ Count	ty			
3.Please indicate t	the age	of your establisl	ment :	
4. How many peop	ole are e	employed in you	r organisation?	
	1.	Less than 50	•	
	2.	Less than 100	•	
	3.	101-200	•	
	4.	Over 200	•	
5.Approximately	what pe	ercentage of thes	e are women?	
	1. Le	ess than 20 %	•	
	2. 21	-40 %	•	
	3.41	- 60%	•	
	4. 61	-80%	•	
	5. O	ver 80%	*	
6. Which of the fol	llowing	categories of en	ployees are employed in you	r organisation?
	1. Fu	ıll time	•	
	2. Pa	art time	•	
	3. Te	emporary/Seasonal	•	
	4. Fi	xed term contract	•	

5. Casual

<u>1.</u>	Less than 20%	2. 20-40 %	3. 41-60%	4. Over 60%	
1. Full time	•	•	•	•	
2. Part time	•	•	•	•	
3. Temporary/Seaso	nal •	•	•	•	
4. Fixed term contra	ect •	•	•	•	•
5. Casual	•	•	•	•	
8.Please outline	the factors that	contributed to	the introduct	ion of part time, temp	oorary,
fixed term contr	act or casual w	ork .			
9.Do you contra	ct out any servi	ces/ operations	?		
	1. 5	es• 2. N	0•		•
10.Which of th	ne following se	ervices/ operat	ions are con	tracted out in your	
		_		g out commenced.	
· ·	1. Yes	_2. No		r commenced	
1. Laundry	•	•			
2. Catering	•	•			
3. Security	•	•			
4. Cleaning	•	•			
5. Transport	•	•			
6. Other (Please spec	cify)				
11 How mony u	mions hove non	otioting rights:	in vour organi	isation?Please write ''	None "if none
11. How many u	unons have neg	ouaung rights	m your organ	isation: I lease write	
12. Which of the	ne following cat	egories of empl	oyees are unio	onised in your organis	sation?
	1. Yes	2. No	0	3. Don't Know	
1.Full time	•	•		•	•
2.Part time	•	•		•	•
3. Temporary	•	•		•	•
4. Fixed term contra	ect •	•		•	•
5. Casual	•	•		•	•

7.Please indicate the <u>percentage of females</u> in the following categories:

15. Did you expe	rience opp	osition from the tra	de unions wh	en they were	being negotiate	d?	
1.	Yes•	2. No•					
16. Please tick thin each category.		<u>ıp</u> that would best d	escribe the <u>a</u>	verage age of e	mplovees		
1.1	8-24	2. 25-40	3, 41-55	4. over 55			
1. Full time	•	•	•	•		•	
2. Part time	•	•	•	•		•	
3. Temporary/ Season	nal •	•	•	•		•	
4. Fixed term	•	•	•	•		•	
5. Casual	•	•	•	•		•	
	17. Please tick the approximate level of <u>labour turnover</u> in your organisation for the following categories of employees over the past year.						
<u>1. U</u>	Jnder 1 vear	2. 1-3 years	3.0	ver 3 years			
1.Full time	•	•		•		•	
2. Part time	•	•		•		•	
3. Temporary / Seaso	onal •	•		•		•	
4. Fixed term contract	ct •	•		•		•	
5. Casual	•	•		•			
18. Please indicate (in approximate percentage terms) the number of <u>married females</u> in the following categories:							
1. Less than	10%	2. 11-25%	3. 26-50%	4. 51-70%	5. Over 70%		
1. Full time •		•	•	•	•	•	
2. Part time •		•	•	•	•	•	
3. Temporary •		•	•	•	•	•	
4. Fixed Term •		•	•	•	•	•	
5. Casual •		•	•	•	•	٠	

13. Do you have flexibility agreements operating in your organisation?

2. No•

1. Yes •

14. Since when have they been operating?

19. In general, are the f	ollowing	categories <u>inte</u>	changeable with their fu	ll time counterparts.
(i.e. All employe	es doing	the same job?)		
	1. Ye	es	2. No	
1. Part time	•		•	•
2.Temporary/ Seasonal	•		•	•
3. Fixed term	•		•	•
4. Casual	•		•	•
20. When recruiting, d	o more <u>f</u>	emale applicar	ts_than male applicants a	apply for non full time
jobs more frequently		247		
	1.	Yes	•	•
	2.	No	•	
	3.	Don't Know	•	
21. Which category giv	es you th	e most difficul	ty into which you recruit	?
	1.	Part time	•	
	2.	Temporary	•	
	3.	Fixed Term	•	
	4.	Casual	•	
22. Which of the follows	ing group	_	are given a formal <u>indu</u>	ction course?
1. Full time	•		•	•
2. Part time	•		•	•
3. Temporary/Seasonal	•		•	•
4. Fixed term contract	•		•	•
5. Casual	•		•	•
23. Does your organisa	tion, hav	e a budget to p	rovide <u>training</u> for any	of the following groups?
	1. Ye	es	2. No	
1. Full time	•		•	•
2. Part time	•		•	•
3. Temporary/ Seasonal	•		•	•
4. Fixed term	•		•	•
5. Casual	•		•	•

25.Has your orgafull time employed 1. Part time 2. Temporary / Season	- •	deliberately r		•
full time employed	nisation a policy to es?	• deliberately re		
full time employed	es?	deliberately re		
1. Part time			ecruit any of the following g	roups <u>in lieu</u> c
	1 Ves			
	1. 103	2. No	3. Don't Know	
2. Temporary / Season	•	•	•	•
• •	nal •	•	•	•
3. Fixed term Contrac	et •	•	•	
4. Casual		•	•	•
26. When full tim	e positions arise in	your organisat	ion , is there a <u>high rate</u> of a	applications
from the following	g internal groups of	employees?		
	1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't Know	
1. Part time	•	•	•	•
2. Temporary/ Season	al •	•	•	•
3. Fixed term	•	•	•	•
4. Casual	•	•	•	•
-			ups of employees are most li	kely to succee
-	om <u>non full time to</u>	full time emplo		kely to succee
in transferring fro	om <u>non full time to</u>	full time emplo	ovment.	kely to succee
in transferring fro	om <u>non full time to j</u> <u>1.</u> •	full time emplo	ovment.	ikely to succee •
_	om <u>non full time to j</u> <u>1.</u> •	full time emplo	ovment.	kely to succee

24. Has your organisation in the past, experienced any <u>difficulties</u> in finding <u>suitably qualified</u>

	riease ind	icate the marital s	tatus of the majority of you	ur work sharers.	
1.	Married		•		•
2.	Single		•		
3.	Other		•		
32. 1	Please inc	licate the typical a	ge of the work sharers.		
1.	16-25 ye	ears	•		
2.	26-49 ye	ears	•		•
3.	50 - 64	years	•		
4.	Over 65	years	•		
22 D	Dlanca rat	o the following gro	uns of amployaes in comp	arison to full time employees	in terms
	roductivit		ups of employees in compa	arison w fair affice employees	in terms
		1. More productive	2. As productive	3. Less productive	
1. Par	rt time	•	•	•	•
			•	•	•
2. Ter	mporary	•			
	mporary ked Term	•	•	•	•
	ked Term	•	•	•	•
3. Fix 4. Cas	ked Term sual	• • • d you rate the follo	• • owing groups of employee:	• • s , in comparison to full time	•
 Fix Car The state of the state	ked Term sual How woul	d you rate the folk terms of <u>motivatio</u>		• • s , in comparison to full time	•
 Fix Car The state of the state	ked Term sual How woul			s , in comparison to full time 3. Less motivated	•
3. Fix4. Cas34. Iemp	ked Term sual How woul	terms of <u>motivatio</u>	<u>n.</u>		•
 Fix Cas Fix Par 	ked Term sual How woul	terms of <u>motivatio</u>	<u>n.</u>		•
 Fix Cas Fix Cas Par Par Ter 	ked Term sual How woul cloyees in	terms of <u>motivatio</u>	<u>n.</u>		•
 Fix Cas Fix Cas Par Par Ter 	Ked Term Sual How would loyees in time mporary Ked term	terms of <u>motivatio</u>	<u>n.</u>		•
 Fix Cas I. Par Ter Fix Cas 	How would bloyees in time imporary ked term is sual	terms of motivatio 1. More motivated	2. As motivated • • • •		· · · · · employee
3. Fix 4. Cas 34. I emp: 1. Par 2. Ter 3. Fix 4. Cas 35. 1	How would be the many sual state of the many sual sual sual sual state of the many sual sual sual sual sual sual sual sual	terms of motivatio 1. More motivated	2. As motivated • • • •	3. Less motivated • • •	· · · · · employee
3. Fix 4. Cas 34. I emp: 1. Par 2. Ter 3. Fix 4. Cas 35. 1	How would be the morary seed term as a learn of at the morary seed term as a learn of at the morary of the morar	terms of motivatio 1. More motivated	2. As motivated • • • •	3. Less motivated es , in comparison to full time	
3. Fix 4. Cas 34. I emp 1. Par 2. Ter 3. Fix 4. Cas 35. I in te	How would be the morary seed term as a learn of at the morary seed term as a learn of at the morary of the morar	terms of motivation 1. More motivated	2. As motivated	3. Less motivated es , in comparison to full time	
3. Fix 4. Cas 34. I emp! 1. Par 2. Ter 3. Fix 4. Cas 35. I in te	How would bloyees in time mporary ked term sual How would brow would be with the world brow world	terms of motivation 1. More motivated	2. As motivated	3. Less motivated es , in comparison to full time	
3. Fix 4. Cas 34. If emp. 1. Par 2. Ter 3. Fix 4. Cas 35. If in te 1. Part 2. Ter 2. Ter 3. Fix 4. Cas 35. If in te 4. Cas 35. If in the 4	How would bloyees in time mporary keed term sual How would bloyees in the mporary keed term sual How would be the modern of although the modern of although the mean of although the mean of the mea	terms of motivation 1. More motivated	2. As motivated	3. Less motivated es , in comparison to full time	

	e loval	2. Same level of	loyalty	Lower level	of lovalty.
1.Part time	•	•		•	
2. Temporary	•	•		•	
3. Fixed term	•	•		•	
4. Casual	•	•		•	
37. In comp	arison to full timers	please rate the	level of <u>supe</u>	rvision require	d in each cate
1. Hig	her level of supervision	2. Same level of	Supervision	3. Lower leve	el of Supervision
1. Part time	•	•		•	
2. Temporary	•	•		•	
3. Fixed term	•	•		•	
4. Casual	•	•		•	
					1 4
	1. Same as full time	2. PESP	3.Annual inc	rement 4. Ot	:her*
1. Part time		2. PESP	3.Annual inci		:her*
	full time	2. PESP	3.Annual incl		_
2. Temporary	full time	2. PESP	3.Annual incl		_
2. Temporary 3. Fixed term	full time	2. PESP	3.Annual incl		_
2. Temporary 3. Fixed term 4. Casual	full time	•		· · ·	
 Temporary Fixed term Casual Please in 	full time	•		· · ·	
1. Part time 2. Temporary 3. Fixed term 4. Casual 39. Please in in your orga	full time	•		· · ·	
2. Temporary 3. Fixed term 4. Casual 39. Please in in your orga	full time	• • • of the following	• • • perks are av	· · · vailable to emp	oloyees 5.Discount o
2. Temporary 3. Fixed term 4. Casual 39. Please in in your orga	full time	• • • of the following	• • • perks are av	· · · vailable to emp	oloyees 5.Discount o
2. Temporary 3. Fixed term 4. Casual 39. Please in in your organish. Full time 2. Part time	full time	• • • of the following	• • • perks are av	· · · vailable to emp	oloyees 5.Discount o
 Temporary Fixed term Casual Please in 	full time	• • • of the following	• • • perks are av	· · · vailable to emp	oloyees 5.Discount o

of employees?				
	<u>1. `</u>	Yes 2. N	<u>o</u>	
1. Full time	•	•		•
2. Part time	•	•		•
3. Fixed term	•	•		•
4. Casual	•	•		•
42. Would you in th	e future , sı	apport moves to	wards greater labour	market deregulation?
	1. \	Yes 2. N	<u> </u>	
	•	•		•
43. Has the Part tir	ne Workers	Act (1990)had	an impact on recruitn	nent?
			-	
1. Yes	•			•
2. No				
If "Yes" Please outline				
44. Has the Unfair	Dismissals	Amendment A	et (1977-1993)had an	impact on your
personnel practices				
•				
1. Yes	•			•
2. No				
If "Yes "Please outline				
45. Do unskilled en	nployees in	one departmen	it carry out more than	one task in your organisatio
	_	Yes 2. N	-	
1. Full time	•	•	•	
2. Part time				•
Z. I all ullic	•	•	•	•
	•	•	•	•
3. Temporary/ Seasonal	•	•	•	•
3. Temporary/ Seasonal4. Fixed term	•	•	•	•
3. Temporary/ Seasonal4. Fixed term5. Casual	• • • rical emplo	• • • • • • • •	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• • • • • re than one task
3. Temporary/ Seasonal4. Fixed term5. Casual46. Do <u>skilled / cles</u>		• • • • • • • •	• • • artment carry out moi	ere than one task
3. Temporary/ Seasonal4. Fixed term5. Casual	n?	_		
 3. Temporary/ Seasonal 4. Fixed term 5. Casual 46. Do <u>skilled / cleaning</u> in your organisation 		vees in one dep		
 3. Temporary/ Seasonal 4. Fixed term 5. Casual 46. Do skilled / clean in your organisation 1. Full time 	n?	_		
 3. Temporary/ Seasonal 4. Fixed term 5. Casual 46. Do skilled / clean in your organisation 1. Full time 2. Part time 	n?	_		
 3. Temporary/ Seasonal 4. Fixed term 5. Casual 46. Do skilled / clean in your organisation 1. Full time 	n?	_		

41. Does your organisation plan to increase the level of employment within the following group

47. Do Professionals	s in one departmen	t carry out mo	ore than one task in your organisation	n
	<u>1. Yes</u>	2. No	3. Don't know	
1. Full time	•	•	•	•
2. Part time	•	•	•	•
3. Temporary/ Seasonal	•	•	•	•
4. Fixed term	•	•	•	•
5. Casual	•	•	•	Þ
48. Do you consider	the following type of	work suitable	for "unskilled employees"?	
	1. Yes	2. No		
1. Part time	•	•	1,	
2. Temporary	•	•		
3. Fixed term	•	•		
4. Casual	•	•		
49. Do you consider	the following type of	work suitable	for "Skilled / Clerical employees"?	
	1. Yes	2. No		
1. Part time	•	•		
2. Temporary	•	•		
3. Fixed term	•	•		
4. Casual	the following two of	·	for IIDnofoggional amplementin	
50. Do you consider	the following type of	work suitable	for "Professional employees"?	
	1. Yes	2. No		
1. Part time	•	•		
2. Temporary	•	•	34	•
3. Fixed term		•	- 19	•
4. Casual	•	•		
	Thank You for complet	ing this question	naire	
Please r	eturn it , using the stamp	ed addresed enve	elope included .	

Appendix C

Bord Failte (1993) Bednight capacity and geographic distribution

Grade	Dublin	Midlands	South East	South West	MidWest	West	North West	Total
A*	1,419	-	15	443	97	145	-	2119
A	911	257	673	718	1106	686	371	4723
B*	431	444	376	815	467	456	548	3537
В	532	386	194	618	303	355	37 1	2579
C/D	170	106	60	132	30	178	121	798
P	246	49	72	-	13	on .	40	420

Appendix D 1992 Hotel Stock in the Republic of Ireland

Grade	Premises	Rooms	Beds
A*	22	3201	6811
Α	123	7302	15570
B*	175	5643	11702
В	236	4299	8785
C	96	1397	2739
D	7	376	807
Total	659	22218	46,434

Appendix E

'Link-up' campaign

The TGWU launched its Link-up campaign in February 1987. Link-up phase two was launched in April 1989 and a subsequent link-up for the 1990's was launched in July 1990. The prime objective of all three campaigns was 'organising and recruiting in new or neglected areas (such as temporary and part time workers, women, young people and ethnic minorities') Admittedly, the campaign was not without its problems and some within the union were lukewarm about attempts to recruit part time and temporary workers arguing that difficulties involved made such attempts cost ineffective.

However, the model agreement for part time staff called for the following priorities:

- 1. Pro rata pay and conditions with full timers.
- 2. Payment for unsocial hours.
- 3. Premium payment for hours worked in excess of contracted hours.
- 4. Payment for call out and travelling when asked to work at short notice or extra shifts.
- 5. Improved training opportunities.

Flare Campaign

The GMB (General Municipal Boilermakers and Allied Trade Union) announced along a similar vein that they intended to put women's issues on a much higher bargaining agenda by actively pursing the right to family leave, inclusion for part timers in sick pay arrangements and payment of unsocial and additional hours on part time workers.

The Flare Campaign (Fair Laws And Rights in Employment) calls for :

- 1. Workers are protected from the minute the first day in employment under protective legislation minimum qualifying hours per week and minimum periods of service being removed.
- 2. Protection of all workers regardless of the size of the firm.
- 3. All workers to be protected by guaranteed wage expressed as an hourly rate to ensure that part time workers are properly protected.

Both of these campaigns are primarily aimed at the plight of part time workers however they could successfully and readily be adapted to encompass other forms of atypical work. A combination of these programmes could provide Irish Trade Unions with a useful starting point to tackling atypical work.