

**Organisational Climates for Diversity and Their Impacts on Managerial
Attitudes and Perceptions in the NHS and Retail Industry**

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ABSTRACT

This study is concerned with organisational human resource diversity at managerial level in the NHS and Retail sector. The study centres on managers from 4 NHS Trusts and 5 branches of a retail organisation (RC). Research is conducted in these organisations to attempt to identify the extent that a positive climate for diversity (PCFD) exists within management and management practice and discover the elements which create such a climate. The research also aims to identify the outcomes of a PCFD. The PCFD model is created in order to test the hypotheses under investigation. These hypotheses are:-

Hypothesis 1. The independent variables constituting a PCFD consists of two scales: policy support (organisation has an equal opportunities policy, equal opportunities policy seen by the manager, mentoring present, flexible working hours available, childcare provided, childcare vouchers provided) and equity recognition (organisational justice, need for diversity and support for diversity). These positively influence the dependent variables, that is the predicted outcomes of a PCFD (organisational commitment, job satisfaction, career planning, career commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction).

Hypothesis 2. A number of moderating variables (gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, domestic care responsibilities, work hours, disability and management level) relating both to individual characteristics as well as the situational organisation characteristics, will moderate perception of a positive climate for diversity, as well as moderating the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables.

The research methodology involves both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection. The design is case based, centring on nine organisations from which comparisons and differences

are analysed. The quantitative methods consist of a Likert-style questionnaire and the qualitative methods consisted of in-depth interviews.

The results from both questionnaire and interview data show that the independent variables do positively influence the dependent outcome variables. Within the PCFD, organisational justice is a particularly important predictive variable. Further, the perception of positive climate for diversity is influenced by the moderating variables. Of particular note is the importance of the moderating variables: age, managerial level, and gender. These variables moderate the predicted outcomes of the model. In particular, the older and more senior a manager, the more likely they are to: be committed to the organisation; report job satisfaction; use career planning; be committed to their career; report satisfaction with their manager; report satisfaction with their career; and be more likely to be satisfied with their career in the future. Gender is shown to be a strong moderator with women being more likely to be aware of organisational equal opportunity policies, procedures and the need for diversity in the organisation. Men are more likely to report the presence of mentoring in the organisation.

The contribution of this study is firstly, that it shows how organisations can create a positive climate for diversity with its associated outcomes and in doing so it makes recommendations for managers and organisation. These recommendations are that managers and organisations: value diversity, show commitment to diversity, monitor diversity levels in the organisation, assess management perceptions, evaluate policies and procedures, support diversity through polices, and finally, that they practice organisational justice.

Secondly, this study adds to a growing body of research on diversity in organisations, giving a UK perspective.

Thirdly, this study generates a model for further research on diversity in organisations. The model suggests that the following independent variables are researched: availability of paternity leave,

communication of policies in the organisation, support for individuals making use of staff policies, morale of the organisation or department, management style of the boss, management style expected of successful managers in the organisation, perceived presence of tokens, perception of bitchiness/machismo of managers, and demographic mix of the department and organisation. The model for future research considers the following to be used as moderating variables: mobility, dual career family, tenure, function, and management style of individual, plus further research on domestic care responsibility, work hours, disability and ethnicity. Finally, the outcomes suggested in the future research model are: career commitment, career satisfaction, career future satisfaction, job satisfaction, satisfaction with manager and organisational commitment.

Future research should also explore the impacts of a PCFD on individual behaviour and organisational performance as well as on individual attitudes and perceptions, which are the focus of this research.

CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW

1. OVERVIEW

1.1 Introduction

As the labour market changes demographically, and the traditional image of the manager as a white male begins to erode, human resource professionals will need to examine how the attitudes and perceptions of managers and the climate of the organisation are affected by such changes. Although some research has been conducted on human resource diversity and its effects on staff, most of this has been in the USA (see Cox 1992 for an example). Human resource managers can no longer assume that employees' career commitment, career, job and manager satisfaction, as well as commitment to the organisation, will be the same for different people at different managerial levels. With the increase in the number of women at managerial levels in organisations, these areas will need to be considered. Empirical research considering gender, (as well as managerial level, marital status, age and domestic care responsibilities as variables) is needed to understand individual managers' perceptions and behaviour. Managers' perceptions and attitudes in areas such as career commitment should also be considered in a wider organisational context. In particular, do the policies and procedures of the organisation support and recognise the need for 'non-traditional' managers? Is the organisation an equitable one? All of these concerns relate to the concept of a positive climate for diversity as developed here. The relationships between human resource diversity and the attitudes and perceptions of individual managers to their organisations; policies and procedures relating to diversity, as well as the relationship between diversity and organisational commitment, job satisfaction, career planning, career commitment, satisfaction with their manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction are analysed in this study.

In this research, an attempt has been made to develop a positive climate for diversity model. A positive climate for diversity in an organisation is seen as an inclusive environment in which people from diverse backgrounds feel supported, encouraged and valued by the organisation. It is hypothesised that such a climate relates in turn to all managerial employees in the organisation.

Within the positive climate for diversity model, it is hypothesised that gender, age, marital status, domestic care responsibility and managerial level will influence managers' perception of a positive climate for diversity. The variables which make up the positive climate for diversity are hypothesised to include policies and procedures of the organisation which relate to diversity in the workforce. The dependent variables (outcomes) of the positive climate for diversity include both individual and organisational benefits, e.g. job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

1.2 Aims of the Thesis

The aim of this study is to examine the concept of a positive climate for diversity (PCFD) at managerial levels in health care and retail environments and to explore its determinants and consequences. Research was carried out in two fields; firstly, within the National Health Service (NHS), as it has traditionally had a large number of women working in it and also to some extent a tradition of women in authority, e.g. the nursing sister of yesteryear. A large number of employees from ethnic minority backgrounds have also traditionally been employed by the NHS. "The NHS cannot function without these [ethnic minority] staff. For example, black staff are concentrated in the lower grades of nursing/ancillary and even though there are substantial numbers of Asian doctors, few of them are in senior positions". Health Services Manager Briefing, (1997 p. 4). Secondly, within the retail industry, as the retail industry also has a tradition of a high percentage of

female employees. A large national retail organisation was approached, and some of its north-west branches used to collect data.

The concept of a positive climate for diversity, as hypothesised in this study, can be shown to exist in an organisation if certain indicators are present. It is further hypothesised that a positive climate for diversity will have benefits for individual managers working within such an environment. These benefits may also have wider reaching effects on the organisation itself. A questionnaire was designed in order to test the PCFD model developed here, and interviews were also carried out to further assess the validity of the model.

1.3 Hypotheses

This research is based on two hypotheses. The first states that the independent variables which form the positive climate for diversity will generate positive outcomes for both individual managers and the organisation. Therefore, the following independent variables were employed as indicators of a positive climate for diversity: 1) policy support; (taken from the work of researchers including Alimo-Metcalfe 1991 and Sidney 1994) consisting of the following: the organisation has an equal opportunities policy, the equal opportunities policy is seen by the manager, mentoring is available, flexible working hours are available, childcare is provided, childcare vouchers are provided, and 2) equity recognition scale variables; consisting of organisational justice (taken from the work of Iles and Robertson 1995), support for diversity, and recognition of the need for diversity (drawn from the work of Kossek and Zonia 1993). These variables are seen as positively influencing the dependent outcome variables selected in this study. The dependent outcome variables are: organisational commitment, job satisfaction, career planning, career commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction.

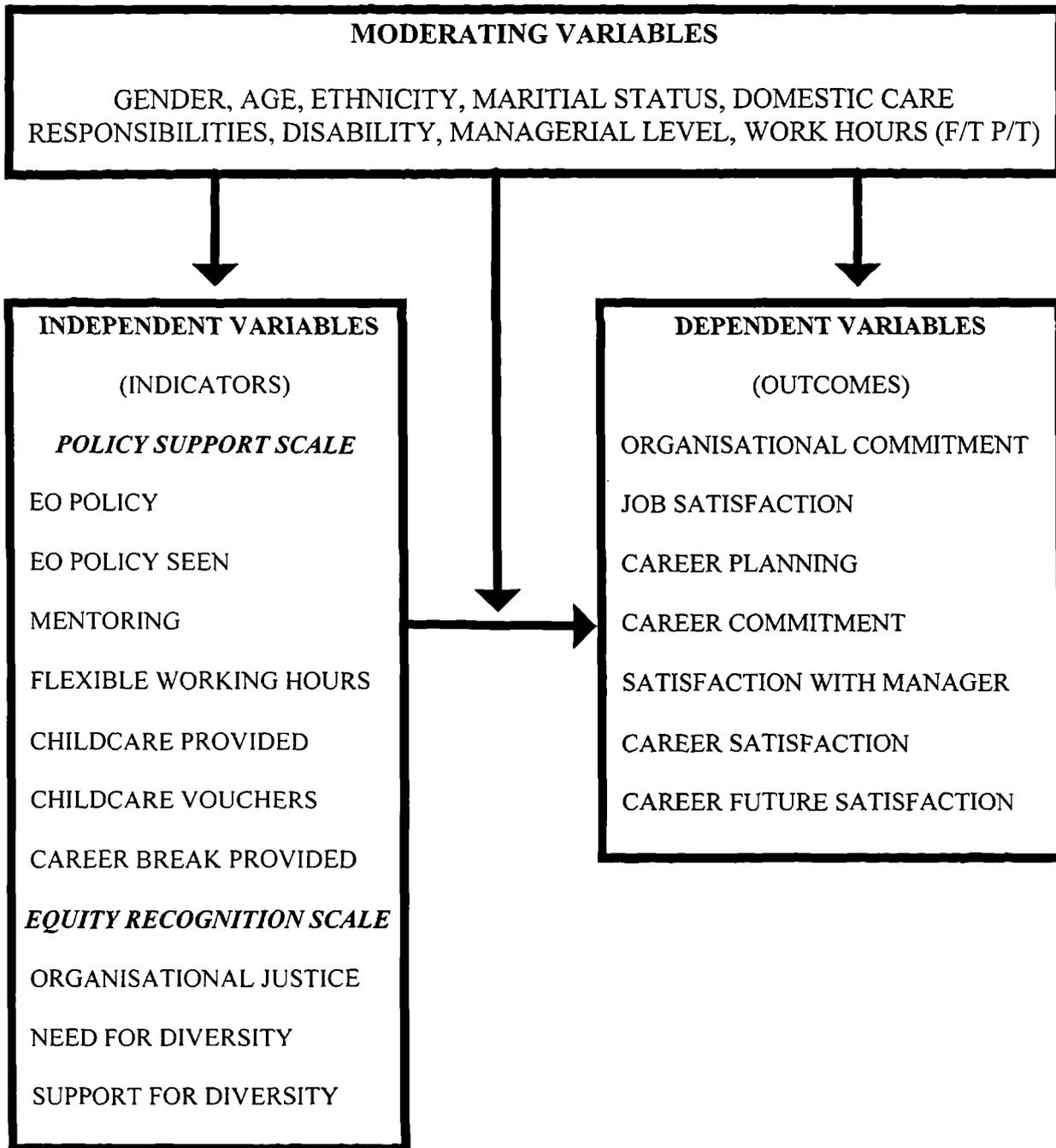
The second hypothesis states that the moderating variables (gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, domestic care responsibilities, disability, managerial level and work hours) will influence the relationship between the independent variables and the outcomes. That is, the outcomes of a positive climate for diversity (PCFD) will be moderated by these variables.

A summary diagram of the model is given below (Figure 1), and more detail on the model is given in Chapter 2, the Literature Review.

The aim of the research is to examine the climate for diversity in four NHS Trusts and five Retail Branches (RC) in the north-west of England, to identify the variables needed to create such a climate, and to assess the outcomes of the such a climate. This research was carried out by combining all the sample groups into a core group in order to assess the effect of PCFD on the individual outcomes predicted by the model.

Hypothesis 1 was fully tested in this research. However, Hypothesis 2 was only partially tested because limitations of the sample (discussed in Chapter 3, Methodology) prevented full tests being conducted on whether ethnicity, disability or work hours had a moderating influence on the model variables.

Figure 1 Positive Climate For Diversity Model



1.4 Scope of the Study

This study is concerned with four particular NHS Trusts and five branches of the RC in the north-west of England. Therefore, it is not possible for one to argue that the rest of Britain will necessarily present a similar picture. However, the Trusts differed sufficiently for one to argue that the results could have some bearing on the NHS as a whole. The climate may be similar throughout the NHS; however, it is not possible to generalise. Staff interviewed expressed views that different Trusts they had encountered tended to have different climates. Staff interviewed in RC were often moved around the country, and reported that most stores had quite similar climates.

This study is concerned with managerial staff at junior, middle and senior levels in the above organisations. Managerial staff are considered to be crucial, as they set the climate for other employees.

1.5 Significance

The significance of the study is that it considers an issue, that of PCFD and its outcomes for NHS and Retail managers, that has not been considered before in the UK. As diversity becomes more of an issue in organisations, it is important for effective management of that diversity to take place in order to fully utilise the abilities of managers.

1.6 The Organisation of the Study

This study has five chapters.

1.6.1 Chapter One - Overview or Introduction

This chapter briefly discusses the importance of human resource diversity for contemporary organisations. It includes a brief history of the NHS and the retail industry, from which the sample group of managers was drawn. It also describes the structure of the study. It considers the hypotheses, aims and objectives of the study, together with its significance.

1.6.2 Chapter Two - Literature Review

Chapter two is a review of the relevant literature. This includes discussion of the diversity literature both in the UK and elsewhere. Relevant climate literature is also reviewed. Discussion of diversity and climate are drawn together through a review of work by Kossek and Zonia (1993) and Cox (1993). Literature on the hypothesised outcomes of the climate for diversity model is also discussed. Finally, the hypothesised model is discussed in detail.

1.6.3 Chapter Three - Methodology

The Methodology chapter presents the research design and methodology. Descriptions of the pre-pilot and pilot studies are given, together with the questionnaire design and the difficulties encountered in administering it. A discussion of the method of interviewing and of sample constraints also takes place here.

1.6.4 Chapter Four - Questionnaire Results and Analysis

Chapter four presents the results of the questionnaire research relating to the hypothesised model. This includes statistical analysis of the postal questionnaire data.

1.6.5 Chapter Five - Interview Results and Analysis

Chapter five presents the interview data and analysis of the in-depth interviews conducted.

1.6.6 Chapter Six - Conclusions and Recommendations

The conclusions of the study and a discussion of those conclusions are presented in chapter six, indicating whether the hypotheses have been supported or not and discussing the significance of the results. This is followed by recommendations for organisations and managers and for further research.

1.7 Organisational Context

The NHS was one organisational sector chosen for this research. It is useful to have some understanding of the NHS and its organisation, as well as details of changes which had taken place at the time of the research, in order to understand the environment in which the NHS managers in the sample were working. Therefore, a brief history of the NHS is presented below.

1.7.1 A Brief History of the NHS

Until 1948, health care provision in the UK was very much ad hoc. Although schemes were in place which enabled certain people to gain access to free health care, this was not universal. During the Second World War, political will determined to change this situation. A national comprehensive health service was to be introduced. The Beveridge Report of 1942 laid down the foundations of the NHS as we know it today. Health care free at the point of delivery and funded through taxation (by the National Insurance Scheme) would be universal. The National Health Services Act was finally passed in 1946. Between the Beveridge Report being published and the

full implementation of the National Health Service in 1948, much negotiation took place with interested parties. One of the most influential groups to take part in negotiations with the government was the doctors professional body, the British Medical Association (BMA). After lengthy negotiations, it was agreed that hospital doctors would be employed by the government. However, doctors would have considerable freedom to practise private medicine both inside and outside NHS hospitals. General Practitioners (GP's), together with Pharmacists and Dentists, were to become self-employed contractors to the government. Holliday (1992) points out that at this point doctors were given the real power in the NHS, with 'managers' providing back-up.

Since the inception of the NHS, changes in its structure have occurred fairly regularly, the first major one being the 1974 NHS Re-organisation Act. This led to a substantial change in the structure of the NHS, with the creation of Regional and Area Health Authorities. Family Practitioner Committees were also created. These changes were introduced to the NHS in England in order for health care planning to take place in a strategic manner. More structural changes took place in 1982, when District Health Authorities were introduced and Area Health Authorities were decommissioned. Despite these changes, until the 1980s the doctors' position of power and authority continued to remain intact. However, in 1983, the Griffith Report was published. This was written by four businessmen and pointed the way for the future of the NHS. It was decreed by the government (based on the recommendations of the Griffith Report) that by the end of 1985 NHS hospitals, District Health Authorities and Regional Health Authorities had to "appoint general managers" (Holliday 1992 p. 17). The re-organisations of the 1980s introduced effective management for the first time. "The move to general management" (Holliday 1992 p. 1) away from teams of professionals, with doctors leading and making largely consensus decisions, had begun. When the 1984 reforms occurred, anyone was allowed to apply for the new management positions, as a way of placating the doctors who saw their power as being reduced. Now managers were seen

as having more power than they held previously. Managers had the power to make decisions that at one time only doctors could make. Everyone working in the NHS had to become aware that “something very close to profit and loss criteria” (Holliday 1992 p. 21) were in operation. An interesting point to note is that managers were placed on three-year rolling contracts, which made their positions, although powerful, insecure.

The changes during the 1980s appeared to be preparing the way for the largest shake up in NHS history, which occurred in 1990 when the Community Care Act was introduced, in place from 1991 onwards. This law was a result of the Conservative government’s decision to change the funding and structure of the NHS. First, however, in 1990 radical changes to the membership of RHA and DHA boards were enacted. From 1990 onwards membership of representative bodies was reduced and members with business credentials were brought in. From 1991 onwards, “market forces” were to have a large influence on the NHS of the future, including its funding structure. The NHS and Community Care Act of 1990 meant that a split between the purchasers of health care services and the providers of health care services was created. Power was to be devolved to General Practitioner fund holders and Trust hospitals and units which met certain criteria. GPs who had their own budgets and were therefore “fund holders” could choose where to send their patients. Competition between the providers would be evident, meaning that popular hospitals would attract more income from patients. Such changes were not only intended to alter the structure of the NHS but also its culture, by introducing an internal market and competition within the NHS. NHS Hospitals and other units were able to apply for self-governing or ‘Trust’ status. This meant that they were able to also hold their own budgets and were no longer responsible to the Health Authority. The Conservative government believed that the NHS should be run like a business, and this was included in the Conservative Party manifesto of 1987.

The structure of the NHS during the time this research was conducted (1995/1996) was as follows: Health Authorities acted as purchasers for health services for non-fund holders and the larger expenditure services needed by fund-holding practices. Providers of health care had, in England, largely become NHS Trusts.

The position of power which the medical profession once had was diminished even more during the course of the study. Those who had become managers had an increasingly important position in the business-like NHS. However, despite the importance of management positions, little research has been conducted on managers of all types in the new NHS Trusts. NHS Trust status for providers of health care meant a burgeoning of management positions, and a change in the role of NHS managers. This change in role and also in the culture of the NHS, Maddock and Parkin (1994) argue, has led to a new breed of manager, referred to as the Smart Macho manager. Such managers who operate in the Smart Macho culture are very different from the old style NHS manager. They are often young and male, and expected to work very long hours to reach often 'impossible' targets. This culture tended to exclude women and older men. However, 79% of the NHS's employees are female and, unlike other industrial sectors, female managers are recognisable, as a number of managers in the NHS, particularly at junior level, are female. Due to such extreme changes in the structure and culture of the NHS, it seemed an important place to examine the role of a positive climate for diversity. As many women do work in the NHS, their numbers are large enough, it could be argued, to be represented at all levels of management. This, therefore, led to the researcher asking the question "Is a PCFD present in NHS Trusts and what attitudes and perceptions did managers have of it?" Management in the NHS now refers to more groups than administrators, with nurse managers having been given more responsibilities.

As with the NHS, it is useful to the research to have some understanding of the history and therefore the general 'climate' of the retail industry. The next section presents a brief history of the retail industry and of the Retail Company (RC) used in the research.

1.7.2 A Brief History of The Retail Industry and Retail Company (RC)

The retail industry, like the NHS, has gone through considerable changes over time and continues to do so. The face of the retail industry has changed enormously over the last century. This evolution has gone through stages, starting with produce being sold at markets. The next stage was moving to small shops, which "sold mainly manufacturers' brands" (Davies and Brookes 1989). The final stage and current stage is retailers selling their own products as well as manufacturer's products, and having their own warehousing and transport systems.

Davies and Brookes (1989) argue that our current stage of retail has its roots in the 1960s. This stage came into being due to changes in the law allowing retailers to sell products at less than the manufacturers' recommended retail price. This 'Resale Price Maintenance' (RPM) ended in 1964. Kay (1987) argues that this was good for large organisations, which could price small shops out of business and attract more customers.

During the 1970s and 1980s, competition on pricing goods increased. At this time, decisions were made by some retailers to change the nature of their business. This led to part-time staff being increasingly used. Other changes included building out-of-town shops and making them larger than previously. Computerisation and centralisation of the business also increased. Stock control and recruitment were more often taken out of the hands of local managers and centralised.

During the mid 1980s the Retail Company (RC) used in this research had to change some of its products, as one sector of its major income was declining. By changing one of the main products to be more fashionable and less classic, it was able to increase its profits. RC also extended a product

line dropped by other retailers, food. Another success was the introduction of its own charge-card, and during the 1990s the offer of other financial services. RC had manufacturers ensure the quality of their products was high, and therefore maintained a good reputation. Strategically, RC has moved its shops out of town and in some cases keeps one smaller shop in town, with a larger one out of town. This, therefore, ensures that a greater range of products can be sold, while still keeping the original town-based customer.

Known as a paternalistic or caring company right from its beginnings in the 1890s, RC has a reputation for looking after its staff. RC sees this reputation as a benefit to its commercial concerns and an advantage in business, as staff tend to stay with the organisation. RC seems to be able to combine a concern for staff and their welfare with business acumen and success. Good human resource management is seen as important in the organisation. This, it argues, increases staff loyalty and means employees are more adaptable. This also leads to higher productivity, higher staff commitment to the organisation and less labour turnover.

1.7.3 Comparison of the Retail Industry and the NHS

Davies and Brookes (1989) argued that the image of a retail organisation is very important; it is this that attracts customers. This is one way in which the retail industry and the NHS, though both services, differ greatly. Even with the 'internal market' set up in the NHS, patients have very little choice as to which hospital they should receive treatment in. They are, it could be argued, captive customers. Retail customers, on the other hand, always have a choice.

However, there are similarities between the two sectors. The interpersonal skills of women in both sectors are often seen as an advantage in such customer-led environments. Women are thought to have better communications skills, and therefore benefit environments where face to face contact is important.

Davies and Brookes (1989) argue that centralisation of large retail organisations means that it is easier for them to promote a particular image to the customer and potential customer. In contrast, during the period in which the research was conducted, the NHS moved away from centralisation to de-centralisation through the forming of 'self-governing' Trusts.

As can be seen from the above, the NHS and RC have some similarities. Both provide a service to the public and employ a large number of women. The obvious difference between the NHS and retail industry and in particular RC, is the very nature of that service and the amount of choice relating to it for the public. However, if the internal market was to succeed as imagined, the NHS needed to take its lead from the customer-orientated retail industry.

In the next chapter, the literature surrounding diversity and climate are discussed, and the PCFD model is presented.

The next chapter will discuss the literature relating to the concept of Positive Climate for Diversity

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The demography of the western world's population has changed considerably and continues to do so. This is particularly obvious within the United Kingdom. Immigration has led to an increased number of people from ethnic minorities in Britain, with 3.3 million people considered to be from an ethnic minority background in 1996 (Social Trends 1997). This number has increased from approximately 2.5 million in 1992 (Kandola and Fullerton 1994). The demographic changes in the population of Britain have been mirrored in demographic changes in the workforce. More individuals from ethnic minority backgrounds are in the labour force, with more women than ever before, except perhaps during the Second World War, also entering the labour market. Due to this change in the workforce, human resource diversity needs to be considered by organisations as important in both principle and practice. Diversity in the labour market has meant that organisational management and utilisation of such diversity has become a very important issue. Organisations need to see the benefits of such diversity to themselves and their customers or those who use their services - who will also become increasingly diverse. In order for this to happen, this study will argue that organisational climates need to change.

This chapter will present a literature review on the issue of human resource diversity and climate in organisations. It will build a conceptual model of a positive climate for diversity, as well as presenting a picture of the possible indicators of a positive climate for diversity and the outcomes for organisations and individuals of such a climate.

2.2 Human Resource Diversity

The term diversity is often used to cover all types of dimensions on which an organisation's employees may differ. Generally speaking, however, it is conceptualised in the form of gender, ethnicity and disability. This study is related to all forms of diversity, but has a particular concern with gender. At one time, the UK workforce could be considered relatively homogeneous, with certain industries and sectors consisting almost entirely of white males, especially at managerial levels. Research carried out on all areas within human resource management (HRM) was primarily based on white western males. Today, much of the research being conducted on workforce diversity is taking place in the USA. Using their experience of diversity, it is possible to reflect on the similarities and differences between the UK and USA. As mentioned above, 3.3 million people are considered to be from ethnic minority backgrounds. Indeed this ethnic population "has a younger age structure" Social Trends (1997 p. 31) see Table 1. Cox (1993) contends that in the US, minority populations have a higher growth rate than the white sector of the population. This is also the case in the UK (Social Trends 1997).

ETHNICITY	% Under 16 years	% 16-34 years	% 35-54 years	% 55 years and over
White	20	27	27	26
Black Caribbean	23	36	24	17
Black African	28	43	23	6
Other Black	49	38	12	--
Indian	27	32	29	12
Pakistani	40	33	19	8
Bangladeshi	40	35	17	8
Chinese	16	40	30	15

Table 1 Population: by ethnic group and age, Spring 1996

(Source Social Trends 1997, p. 31.)

Therefore, ethnic minorities are becoming a very important part of the UK workforce and recruitment pool, particularly as the white population as a whole ages and fertility rates fall (Social Trends 1997). It is possible to predict that ethnic minorities will play an even more important part in the workforce of the future.

Iles, Braich and Auluck (1994) state that over 60% of women (in the UK) are now in employment, making up over 40% of the (total UK) workforce. Further research has shown that “between 1987 and 1997 the economic activity rate for women of working age (16-59) increased from 69% to 71% ... for men it fell from 87% to 84%” (p13 DfEE website February 2000).

The number of women in management is also growing. Research commissioned by the DfEE shows that “the percentage of women in employment who were in the two top social classes (professional and managerial/technical) rose from 24% in 1984 to 34% in 1997” (p13 DfEE website February 2000). However, men are still four times more likely to be classified as ‘professional’ compared with women. (Social Trends 1997).

Changes in the number of women working have not necessarily affected salaries as much as one would imagine. Social Trends (1997) p. 93 tell us that “more than half of women employed full-time in the United Kingdom earned less than £250 a week in April 1996 compared with fewer than three in ten men” and also that “only 5 per cent of women earned more than £500 a week compared with 15 per cent of men”.

Pierce-Brown (1998) found that difference between male and female accountants wages were largely accounted for by the glass ceiling which limited women’s career opportunities. Having a family and taking a career break did effect women’s careers, but even those women who did not choose to have families experienced lower wages to male colleagues. However, data from the office of national statistics (Denny and Ward, The Guardian 15th October 1999) has shown that “the pay gap between men and women fell from 20% to 19% between April 1998 and April 1999” p1.

More recent research, commissioned by the government and conducted by the London School of Economics, has shown that “women who choose a career over having children will still earn £100,000 less throughout their working lives than male colleagues in the same job” p1 (Hinsliff, Daily Mail 19th February 2000). This shows that even if women decide to commitment themselves fully to work and do not have children, they still lose out financial, just because they are female. Women who do have children, suffer even greater financial losses. The research suggests that “Women are less likely to demand pay rises,

more cautious about estimating what they are worth, and less likely to ‘network’ in the pub or bar after work”, p5 (Hinsliff, Daily Mail 19th February 2000). So despite increases in the number of women in paid employment since the Second World War and some decrease in the wages gap between men and women, women are still lagging behind in terms of career opportunities and wages more than one would hope at the beginning of the 21st century. Indeed Cassell (1997) argues that “the number of women in management is still not as high as would be expected, given changing demographic trends” p11.

2.2.1.1 The UK Picture

“Economic activity rates for men of working age are projected to fall slightly between 1995 and 2006 - by 2 [%] to 83%. Those for women are projected to rise by 3 [%] to 74 % in the same period”. p. 21 Social Trends (1997). In 1996 the size of the labour force was 27.8 million. “The number of part-time employees is projected to grow by over a tenth” between 1996 and 2006. p. 23. “The number of managers and administrators is projected to grow by almost 10% and professional employment by 14%”. The number of people of working age in UK is 18.6 million males and 17 million females. (Source: Social Trends 1997).

	Males	Females
Full-time Employees	10.8 Million	5.9 Million
Part-time Employees	0.8 Million	4.5 Million
All Employees	11.6 Million	10.4 Million

Table 2 Number of Employees in the UK Workforce (1997): (Social Trends 1997)

The above figures relate to employees only, and do not include those looking for work or individuals who are self-employed.

2.2.2 The North-West of England

The north-west varies in its demographic make up. For example, Merseyside has 1,345,838 residents, with 25,900 coming from ethnic minority backgrounds (source: *The Census 1991*).

Consideration of working patterns needs to be taken into account in the Merseyside area. In Merseyside, there are 225,949 males over the age of 16 who work full-time and 9,745 who work part-time. 130,356 females work full time and 95,303 part time. Therefore, approximately 10,000 more men work in Merseyside than women. In terms of this study the above information is interesting, as the area has a high female work population, which one could argue might lead to more women being in management positions.

Human resource diversity has economic, legal and social consequences. The next section will consider the legal aspects of diversity.

2.3 The History of Equal Opportunities

From the 1940s onwards, anti-discrimination legislation began to be introduced, firstly, in the form of legislation on disability. Such legislation is an on-going process, e.g. the 1995 Disability Discrimination Act. From the 1960s onwards anti-discrimination race-relations legislation was introduced, i.e. the Race Relations Acts of 1965 and 1968.

During the 1970s, with the changes in the demographics of the working population, legislation designed to stop discrimination against ethnic minorities and women continued

to be introduced in the UK. These were early attempts to protect individuals from discrimination, mainly at work, providing the discrimination was due to race or gender.

2.3.1 Legislation

The crucial Acts or “legal milestones” (see Overall 1996) introduced were: The Equal Pay Act (1970), Sex Discrimination Act (1975), and Race Relations Act (1976). These enabled employers to be taken to an industrial tribunal if they broke these law. The Equal Opportunities Commission and Race Relations Board were also set up (later, Commission for Racial Equality). These two official bodies were created to ensure that anti-discrimination laws were adhered to by employers. The Equal Pay Act (1970) ensured that employers paid equal pay for equal work. The Sex Discrimination Act (1975) ensured in law that employers were unable to directly or indirectly discriminate against men or women, and also made it unlawful to discriminate against married people. There were certain circumstances where employers could still lawfully discriminate, if being male or female was a genuine occupational qualification.

The Race Relations Act (1976) was introduced in a very similar form to the Sex Discrimination Act (1975), with for example, exceptions for genuine occupational qualification being permitted. Both direct and indirect discrimination were outlawed.

In 1976 the Equal Treatment Directive enshrined equality in law for men and women in applying for jobs as well as in training.

The issue of maternity rights was addressed in 1975, with the first law to provide rights to pregnant women in the work place. The Employment Protection (Consolidation) Act (1978) provided more rights for pregnant women, including the right to paid time off to attend ante-natal appointments (Clarke 1994).

One area of discrimination legislation previously mentioned which was present before the 1960s was disability law. The Disabled Persons (Employment) Act (1944) (amended 1958), stated that employers of 20 or more people had to ensure that 3% of their work force were registered disabled. This act was introduced to help individuals injured in the Second World War gain employment, but it remained largely flouted during the 1970s. From 1995 new legislation was introduced, increasing the rights of people with disabilities in employment. However, this law has been criticised, as it prevents direct discrimination against people with disabilities, but not indirect discrimination.

During the 1980s, other anti-discrimination legislation came into force, often on the back of older laws, such as The Equal Pay (Amendment) Regulations (1983) which made changes to the Equal Pay Act (1970). This required that equal pay must be given for work of equal value. Also important was the Sex Discrimination Act (1986) which ensured that employers could no longer discriminate between men and women in relation to retirement (Clarke 1994). The tribunals set up to try cases under this law became important in presenting case law, and the media took to reporting cases quite frequently. During the 1980s and 1990s the European Court of Justice also became involved in discrimination law. It was now becoming costly for employers to discriminate, as in 1993 the “European court declares the ceiling for compensation in sex discrimination is unlawful” (Clarke 1994, p. 28). The law continued to change, adding more rights for women to take maternity leave in 1994. Also in 1994 a decision was made which will affect many women and organisations. That law was to ensure that by the year 2020 men and women would receive state retirement pension at the same age. This is likely to be 65 years.

These laws have attempted to provide equal opportunities to men and women and to those from ethnic minorities, and also to provide more opportunities to those with disabilities.

They were an attempt to create a level playing field, with everyone having the same opportunities in the work force. However, this Equal Opportunities (EO) paradigm (that is, the ideology behind the Equal Opportunities movement) suggested that no one should have more opportunities than anyone else.

As can be seen from the current legislation, equal opportunities have been gaining importance in law for many years. This is a situation which organisations have to be aware of. In terms of this research, one would expect there to be a number of women and ethnic minorities in management in organisations because of this legislation and the need for organisations to abide by it.

A new development in law, which potentially may have a big effect on diverse individuals working in public organisations or those which provide a public service, is the Human Rights Act 1998. This legislation is effective from 2nd October 2000 and puts into practice “the rights set out in the European Convention on Human Rights”, (Home Office website, no page given). This means that, as the Home Office Guidance for Departments states, “everyone has the right to respect for his private and family life...” p1 (Home Office website). This may be defined in a number of ways; including the right for individuals to have time to enjoy their family. Therefore, this may well affect the ‘long hours’ cultures in organisations such as NHS Trusts (which Maddock and Parkin (1993) refer to as Smart Macho culture) as individuals may be able to claim that their human rights are being effected by not being able to enjoy family life. However, as this act is yet to come into force in the UK (although one can currently take a case to the European Court in Strasbourg) no-one really knows the effect it will have.

2.3.2 Affirmative Action

During the 1980s the Equal Opportunities (EO) paradigm was still strong in the UK, whilst in the US it became apparent that EO was not enough to make a major difference to those from diverse backgrounds in the workforce. Such individuals were not progressing at the same rate as white, able-bodied males. Therefore, in the US the concept of Affirmative Action (AA) was introduced. Affirmative Action represented an attempt by organisations and government in that country to address the problem of under-representation of women and ethnic minorities in certain industries and at particular organisational levels. Organisations were encouraged to employ ethnic minorities and women with suitable qualifications at levels and in industries where they were under-represented. Targets were introduced by the US government into organisations with which it did business. Therefore, if companies wished to work for the American government, they had to meet targets for the number of women and ethnic minorities in particular positions, including management. Organisations also needed to publish figures showing how diverse their firms were. It could be argued that the US has adopted a much stronger vision of opportunities for diverse people than the UK, where affirmative action was never adopted (though in Northern Ireland, the Fair Employment Act moved closer to this position). In the UK, the issue of effective human resource diversity management was first considered to be one of equal opportunities, that is, creating the same opportunities for women, ethnic and other minorities as enjoyed by white able-bodied men. It could be argued that AA was an attempt to redress the balance, and give those from non-traditional backgrounds an opportunity to progress in organisations. Targets set up by US organisations meant that certain numbers of women and minorities had to be in management positions. This may have meant equally qualified women and minorities being promoted over white males.

Arguments against such action include the assertion that by promoting women and minorities above white men, reverse discrimination was taking place, which was seen by many as equally abhorrent as discrimination against minorities and women.

2.3.3 Managing Diversity

Target or quota setting was seen as one of the weaknesses of AA. It can be argued that AA was not adopted in the UK for this reason. Because of the perceived limitations of both AA and EO, a new paradigm came into force, that of managing diversity or MD. In the UK, the EO paradigm, which came from the legal and social framework laid out during the 1970s and 1980s, seemed by some to be outdated, just as AA was seen by some as outdated and unhelpful to individuals and organisations in the USA. During the 1990s, the Equal Opportunities paradigm in the UK has been considered by researchers such as Wilson and Iles (1996) who show how the paradigms of EO and now managing diversity (MD) work. The new paradigm has been seen by many (Wilson and Iles 1996) as a way of getting the best out of an individual, regardless of their race or gender. MD could be perceived as a method of maximising the output from a given workforce by treating each employee as an individual, with particular needs, abilities and potential, rather than stereotyping him/her as a member of a particular group sharing common characteristics. Therefore, a possible example of the difference between the EO paradigm and the MD paradigm can be given as follows: Under EO an organisation may wish to place all its female employees on an assertiveness course. However, under the MD paradigm, consideration would be given to the fact that not all women may need or want to attend such a course, and there may well be men who also need to attend such a course. The same may be true of formal mentoring schemes, in which only certain groups can be mentored. Some managers may well

associate MD with good management practice which should always be used (Kandola and Fullerton 1994).

Wilson and Iles (1996) continue this theme and compare and contrast MD and EO. They argue that MD may represent a genuine conceptual shift from EO. The differences between EO and MD are argued to be considerable. EO is driven from outside an organisation, due to legal and social pressures to introduce such initiatives. Organisations which practice MD however, are concerned with the benefits that MD can bring to it. This is often referred to as the 'business case' for managing diversity. Wilson and Iles (1996) present the differences between EO and MD in Table 3:

Equal Opportunities - The Old Paradigm	Vs	Managing Diversity - The New Paradigm
Externally Driven		Internally Driven
- rests on moral and legal arguments		- rests on the business case
- perceives EO as a cost		- perceives MD as asset/investment
Operational		Strategic
- concerned with process		- concerned with outcomes
- rational organisation model		- appreciation of organisational culture
		- internalised by managers and employees
- externally imposed on managers		- systemic understanding
Difference perceived as other/problematic		Difference perceived as asset/richness
- deficit model		- model of plenty
- ethnocentric, heterosexist		- celebrates difference
- assimilation advocated		- mainstream adaptation advocated
- harassment seen as individual issue		- harassment seen as organisational climate issue
- discrimination focus		
Group focused		Individual focused
- group initiative		- universal initiatives
		- individual development
- family friendly policies		- employee friendly policies/cafeteria benefits
Supported by narrow positivist knowledge base		Supported by wider pluralistic knowledge base

Table 3 Equal Opportunities and Managing Diversity: The Paradigms Compared (Wilson and Iles 1996)

In Wilson and Iles's model, there are five points which differentiate the two paradigms. Firstly, the EO paradigm is externally driven and is based on legal and moral arguments. The EO paradigm also perceived Equal Opportunities as a cost to the organisation. In

contrast, the MD paradigm is internally driven by the organisation and is based on there being a business case for managing diversity. Secondly, the EO paradigm is operational in nature, whereas the MD paradigm is strategic. Thirdly, the EO paradigm views difference in employees as a problem. However, the MD paradigm views it as an asset to the organisation. Fourthly, the EO and MD paradigm differ in that the old EO model is group focused and the new MD model is individually focused. Finally, Wilson and Iles argue that the old EO paradigm is supported only by a “narrow positivist knowledge base”; the new MD paradigm gains support from a “wider pluralistic knowledge base”.

2.3.3.1 The Business Case for Managing Diversity

The same ethical argument for organisations to implement EO in the past can be applied to MD. Fairness and equity in themselves are often argued as reasons enough for organisations to implement policies reflecting such concepts. However, such arguments alone are not enough to endear such a concept to organisations concerned with financial matters. Indeed, this position is not the main tenet of MD, as could be argued is the case with EO. Wilson and Iles (1996) argue that managing diversity’s strength comes from the business case. Many customers and employees of organisations would soon be from largely under-represented groups in the organisation’s management structure (e.g. ethnic minorities and women). Employees who were white western males were decreasing in numbers rapidly as women and ethnic minorities began to make in-roads into traditional white male jobs (for example, management positions). As economic independence was extended to women and more financial security gained by ethnic groups, they have begun to use their economic spending power and have become customers of many organisations. In terms of ethnic minorities, Wilson and Iles (1996) assert that the numbers in ethnic

groups continue to grow in the US more quickly than white populations (as mentioned earlier, this is also the case in the UK), making them important customers for organisations. Therefore, companies and organisations see the need to harness these groups. They could benefit financially if such groups bought their products, or used their services. Wilson and Iles (1996) assert that Human Resource Management (HRM) needs to adjust to the new demands made upon organisations. Equal opportunities, the rights of people (women, ethnic minorities and in some cases those with disabilities) to be included in work activities on the same terms as white able-bodied men, was being challenged as a paradigm. It is important, however, to realise that white males are not a homogenous group, but consist of individuals from different classes, job types and educational backgrounds. However, that said, women are also not a homogenous group, and neither are people from ethnic minority backgrounds or those with disabilities. However, classification does take place within our society. Individuals, from different sections of society wish to be treated as individuals, with differing needs. In other words, Wilson and Iles (1996) argue that non-traditional employees wish to have the same opportunities as white men, but to be able to do things in their own way. For example, Alimo-Metcalfe (1995) states that men and women have different leadership styles. She argues that leadership qualities used for assessment for senior positions are based on male criteria, as males are mostly in such positions of power. Managing diversity was seen by many as a way of changing the rules in organisations from those of white men only to those of a heterogeneous society. Wilson and Iles (1996) point out that such a change can only really occur under certain conditions, such as weight of numbers, and growth of non-traditional customers. Still, at the top positions and on boards, white men tend to make the rules, and they are ultimately the ones that make the decisions which affect everyone in the organisation. Therefore, those who support MD put

much emphasis on the merits of the business case. Wilson and Iles (1996) assert that MD “should be...internalised by individuals and...absorbed into the value system of the organisational culture” p. 3. This internalisation, it could be argued, will be very difficult to ensure unless the organisation is able to support an MD framework. Wilson and Iles argue that EO is often seen as an add-on to the organisation’s culture and not as an integral part of it. Littlefield (1995) asserts that organisations which practise MD do see the business case as the reason for using MD. However, those which can be referred to as EO organisations see only that practising EO costs the organisation money.

Maddock (1995) contends from an MD standpoint that companies need to employ women, ethnic minorities and those with disabilities in order to be successful. She presents the business case and states that at present most female employees have male managers and are in positions of low status. Researchers such as Cox and Blake (1991) have also put forward a business case for managing diversity, arguing that diversity in human resources is a positive bonus to organisations, making organisations more creative and better able to adjust to the needs of their diverse customers.

In terms of the MD framework, much has been discussed about its business or cost benefits. However, little empirical work on the actual financial benefits to the organisation has been conducted. An exception to this is the research by Shrader, Blackburn and Iles (1997), which examines the link between female managers and firm financial performance in the USA. They contend that firms which had a high number of female managers performed well financially. This, they related to companies “which have utilised [the female managers] ..reaping the benefits”, p. 365.

One important point in employing women managers is that the organisation is not limiting itself to a small pool to recruit from; that of men only. Therefore it has the opportunity to choose effective managers from a wider pool.

Cox and Blake (1991) argue that it may be difficult to recruit the individuals one requires in an organisation if one does not value and manage diversity effectively. They assert that human resource diversity, when managed effectively, can add creativity to organisations, which may lead to more effective problem solving. Diversity initiatives do seem to improve the climate for diversity. For example, the UK National Savings Bank implemented a Christmas playscheme for employees' children. This saved them £4,000 per week, as previously staff had to take unscheduled time off during the holidays (Cox and Blake 1991). Another leading bank in the UK (Midland) in 1988 invested £350,000 in work place nurseries, as 58% of its employees were women and many were leaving because of poor childcare facilities. It cost £8,000-£10,000 to train them to the level of skill they had when they left, so it was cheaper to invest in childcare. National Westminster Bank agreed to home working because it was a cost effective method of employment for them, and also beneficial to those (women mainly) who had childcare responsibilities. However, first and foremost it made business sense to the bank. This initiative also reduced labour turnover and enhanced organisational flexibility. Cox and Blake (1991) report that Corning Glass in the USA found that turnover of women was very high and cost the organisation a great deal of money. Hall and Parker (1993) state that Corning Inc. argue that *not* effectively managing women cost them \$3.5-\$4 million, by losing women professionals. They were losing twice the number of women as white males. They therefore introduced diversity management schemes in the form of a personal

development system, and found that they were both keeping women longer and recruiting more women as well. Women were also progressing further in the organisation.

Industrial Relations Services Report states that one private-sector employer estimated an annual loss of 1,000 women managers, costing the company £17 million a year. Youngblood and Chambers-Cook (1984) were reported by Cox and Blake (1991) as stating that when child day-care is introduced into an organisation, absenteeism is reduced. Kim and Campagna (1981) argue that the introduction of flexible working hours reduces long-term as well as short-term absenteeism. In the UK, Petrofina found that when flexible working patterns were introduced, productivity rose by 20% (Curson 1988). Therefore, as can be seen from this evidence, effective diversity policies can lead to more effective employees and less expense for organisations.

2.3.4 The Global Market

Understanding a company's diverse workforce may help the organisation understand and compete in world-wide markets, according to Fernandez (1994). This skill and experience in managing domestic diversity should give US companies a global edge in dealing with culturally diverse customers and workforces in situations of international diversity, in contrast to more ethnocentric Asian or European organisations. Some organisations such as Reebok are taking diversity initiatives seriously, with the performance of managers being judged on how well they maintain and value diversity in their workforce (Griffith 1994). Scase and Goffe (1989) state that women who feel forced to adopt a typical male management style, such as that required by the Smart Macho culture (Maddock and Parkin 1993) in order to achieve success at managerial level, often find it very stressful, and may in fact drop out of a management career.

2.3.4.1 The Costs of not Managing Diversity

Harisis and Kleiner (1993) argue that if diversity is not managed effectively, then the cost can be immense in terms of lost productivity, high turnover, high absenteeism, strikes and industrial conflict. Thomas (1990 p. 107) quotes a corporate vice-president of Digital Equipment Corporation (whose sales force contains 40% women and ethnic minorities) as stating that, "When white male managers understand that 40% of their sales force is responsible for about a billion and a half dollars in orders, it becomes an obvious bottom-line goal to keep them happy, motivated and productive."

Cox and Blake (1991) assert that if diversity is managed effectively, then labour turnover and absenteeism can be reduced, and therefore the costs associated with such actions are also reduced. They point out five other reasons why well-managed diversity is an asset to any organisation. Firstly, they contend that it is easier to recruit people with qualities which the organisation requires. Secondly, as ethnic and minority markets grow, minorities will be keener to buy from organisations seen as diverse and supporting diversity. The third advantage hypothesised for organisations is that diversity leads to the organisation becoming more creative and innovative, and fourthly, this may in turn improve organisation problem solving. Finally, Cox and Blake argue that effective management of diversity enhances organisational flexibility. If diversity does confer significant benefits to organisations, then an important area for research is how to foster a positive climate for diversity within management, so that the corporate culture as a whole and HRM policies and procedures in particular are supportive of diversity. This area has not been addressed by empirical research, particularly in the UK.

Kandola and Fullerton (1994) surveyed UK organisations in order to discover why companies changed to MD. They found that most organisations adopting MD did so because they believed it made good business sense.

The other reasons for changing to an MD strategy were because of legislation; top management wanting to change; and because it was seen as good practice by organisations. MacLachlan (1995) points out that the Commission for Racial Equality's (1995) report 'Large Companies and Racial Equality' states that organisations are choosing effective management of ethnic minority diversity. This in turn attracted more and better calibre employees to the organisation. Effective diversity management was seen as an effective method of recruiting good calibre staff, and not putting off potential employees from minority backgrounds.

2.4 The Hurdles to Managing Diversity and Ways of Overcoming Them

As the labour market changes demographically, the management literature is beginning to examine how this affects individual managers, the climate of an organisation and the organisation itself. Although some research has been conducted on human resource diversity and its effects on staff, most of this has been conducted in the USA (e.g. Cox 1992).

2.4.1 Hurdles in the NHS

With particular reference to the NHS, Maddock and Parkin (1993) in their gender culture research state that in NHS Trusts a new culture had emerged, referred to as "Smart Macho". Smart Macho culture is not advantageous to older men or to women, particularly those who are married with families. Those who could perform well in this environment

were usually males who were able to work very long hours. In some cases, Maddock and Parkin found young single women were also able to take advantage of this culture. However, the majority of women were not able to do so. The culture itself was characterised by being highly competitive, with targets most employees saw as near impossible to meet. This new culture seemed an interesting concept and led to an interest in a related issues, that of organisational climate. An interest was expressed in the idea that the new NHS culture that had emerged appeared to benefit men in the main and disadvantage the large majority of NHS employees, women. The NHS is the largest single employer in Europe, and 70% of its employees are women. The number of women in management in the NHS is not proportional to the number in the organisation as a whole. From the work of Maddock and Parkin (1993), it appeared that human resource diversity did not seem to be valued in many NHS Trusts.

Despite the number of women and ethnic minorities now so obviously present in UK organisations and the community as a whole, Anderson (1993) along with others has argued that women, 'people of colour' and other groups often come up against a glass ceiling that blocks access to higher positions in an organisation. There are many fewer women in management than men, despite their involvement in the labour market. Alimo-Metcalf (1995) also contends that there are considerably fewer women in senior manager or leadership roles than men. Van Vlanen and Keizer (1996) also assert that there are fewer women in management than men. Women, it is argued, are often transformational leaders (working with staff and coming to agreed decisions taken on a consensus basis) and men tend to be transactional leaders (making decisions without including and consulting staff). Men and women appear to have different leadership styles. These differences need to be considered by organisations. Schwartz (1996) argues that few studies have investigated

how family-friendly policies affect women's careers. She found that such policies and flexible working arrangements had a positive effect on the recruitment of women, on their productivity and on their retention. It has been noted that there are formal and informal ways in which men are able to exclude women from management jobs. Formal ways included the job structure itself and the working hours. Informal ways referred to practices such as the ever-strong old boys network and mentoring. Indeed Burke, McKeen and McKenna (1994) assert that most management mentors are male, whilst Kanter (1977) argues that mentoring is very important in helping women's career progression. Senior mentors who are male must consider the differences of those who are disabled, women, or from ethnic minorities.

The culture of organisations can often affect who is successful. Pemberton's (1992) work has shown that Schein's (1973) "think manager, think male" maxim is still uppermost in the minds of managers of both genders. Indeed, Mandell and Kohler-Grey (1990 p. 43) argue that the stereotypes of a white male manager "defines the appearance, traits, values and behaviours of the ideal manager accordingly and this affects all members of the organisation...This stereotype may...result in overt or subtle discrimination in selection, evaluation and promotion practices". However, other research has shown that good managers actually exhibit both male and female characteristics. Pemberton (1992) examined the work of Bem (1974) on personal androgyny, in which masculinity and femininity are seen as a continuum, with good managers moving from one part of the continuum to another as the situation requires. Indeed Schein's later research (1989) found that although men often consider male qualities to also represent those of a good manager, women now more often consider that female qualities could also be considered appropriate to good managers.

Walker (1994) states in her US research that Digital had realised the value of diversity and introduced a 'Valuing Difference Programme'. Part of this is using heterogeneous core groups to discuss differences within a safe, non-threatening environment. This is important as Copeland (1988) states, in her US research, that encountering people whom one views as different infringes on ones 'comfort zone'. In other words, it is important to become used to different types of individuals, so as to feel comfortable working with different types of individuals at different levels of the organisation. It makes sense for organisations to actively manage their diversity, as the cost of not doing so effectively can be immense in terms of lost production. Marx (1996) contends that women in management is becoming a hot topic, particularly with schemes like Opportunity 2000, which was set up with the aim of developing and increasing the numbers of women managers in organisations in the UK. All this increased interest in women managers is also shared in the media, with coverage of such issues as the glass ceiling and other hurdles.

Marx (1996) in her UK research states that in 1994 the Institute of Management noted that there were large pay differentials between male and female managers, with women receiving much less pay despite holding the same jobs as male colleagues. Not only do women managers get paid less than male colleagues, they also have less chance of being promoted than men. Marx (1996) argues that women managers often suffer from stress and do not expect to move up the career ladder to the very top management positions.

2.4.2 Women's Progress

Marx (1996) reports on two small-scale studies which examine how women progress when applying for jobs as senior managers compared to male managers. Marx found interestingly that men had less chance of gaining the job than women did. The ratio she reports is of one

in six men and one in four women being offered the management position. Marx (1996) also discovered that women succeeded at being shortlisted more often than men. Only 10% of men in the sample were selected for interview, whereas 22% of women were selected. She argues that there were several possible reasons for these results. One possible hypothesis is that the men who applied did not have all the qualities sought by the selection organisation, whereas women did. This leads on to the second possible hypothesis, that women only applied for jobs if they met all the criteria advertised for, whereas men may have applied even if they did not meet all the requirements of the position. As a result of this Marx (1996) examined in detail male and female recruitment patterns. She found that male and female applicants presented their c.v.'s and application forms in much the same way. In terms of qualifications, men and women were almost equally qualified. However, Marx did discover differences in career structure and applicant age. She discovered that male applicants' average age was 40, whereas for a female applicant it was 35.

Men and women had different patterns of employment tenure as well. Male managers tended to stay in a position for 4 years, whereas for women it was 3 years. Marx also noted that the women in her sample were promoted an average of 6 months before the men in the sample. The results of Marx's (1996) surveys show that some women in senior management are progressing very well in management, perhaps better than their male counterparts. So perhaps a small number of very successful women 'highflyers' manage to make it through to top management and at a younger age than their male counterparts, but at other levels the majority are still faced with a 'double-glazed' glass ceiling.

2.5 International Comparisons

The literature on diversity in human resources and ways of managing this diversity effectively is largely US based, with some notable UK exceptions (for example Alimo-Metcalf 1991, 1993 & Maddock and Parkin 1993). International comparisons with studies of other countries such as Canada, Hong Kong, New Zealand and Australia are discussed below. The issue of diversity is of growing national and international importance, and a concern of rising significance. In Europe, for example, more and more women are now working than ever before (Walby 1996). Despite all the literature from the USA concerned with organisations managing diversity, Maniero (1994) asserts that the glass ceiling is firmly in place in the USA, and under 5% of the highest positions in US organisations are filled by women. Chow (1995) investigated the career aspirations, attitudes and experiences of female managers in Hong Kong. She points out that almost half of the women are employees and that they represent 37% of the total work force, but hold only 20% of the managerial jobs. In Hong Kong women are now taking more opportunities to be educated at a higher level. She argues that women managers experience discrimination and have difficulties in combining family life with careers. Turning to Australia, Dann (1995) contends that women receive lower salaries than men in Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1995). Males on average receive 20% more income than females. Her study found that, despite the salary gap, women felt themselves to be as successful as men. However, the study also compared women who had had career breaks with those who had not. Women who had taken breaks believed they were not as successful as those who had not taken them. Kramar (1998) argues that managing diversity is becoming more and more important for organisations in Australia and more organisations are taking a managing diversity approach to their workforce.

Shilton, McGregor and Tremain (1996) found that women in New Zealand were under-represented in the board room.

Totta and Burke (1995) present a case study of a successful diversity initiative in Canada at the Bank of Montreal. The Bank of Montreal wanted to increase the opportunities of ethnic minorities, women and those with disabilities within its organisation, and wished to create an environment in which equality was seen as a business concern because “without an unequivocal commitment to workplace equality and workforce diversity, no large company in any sector - especially the service sector - will prosper long in the twenty-first century” p32. They felt that their biggest advantage in the industrial sector was their customer service, which they saw as vital. In order to improve on this service, the bank felt that it needed to be community-based, and this required full participation in the workforce by all diverse members of that community. This, the authors argue, affected each action of the bank and its employees. The bank wanted to create a climate of work-place equality; 75% of employees were women but only 6% of executives were female. Women counted for 13% of senior managers. Firstly, the bank drew up a mission statement, which stated how they wished to give equal opportunities to all employees. Employee task forces were set up to discover hurdles to improving the organisational lot of women, ethnic minorities, and those with disabilities. Each of the four task forces set up was supported by an executive and also chaired by an executive. This was thought necessary in order for the issues involved to be taken seriously. The main duty of the task force was to get rid of barriers by demolishing myths about certain groups and by including all employees in changes. This was seen as a managing diversity initiative to encourage all employees. The organisation introduced flexible working arrangements, which have been taken up by 3,000 employees, 355 of whom were male. Other policies, such as having paid time off for

family need, have been introduced. The company set targets for employing ethnic minorities, women and those with disabilities. Managers' job performance review included a review of employing and promoting ethnic minorities, women and those with disabilities. Managers are expected to create within their department a positive climate for diversity. Importantly, managers are also judged on how well the employees are performing, in order to ensure they really do employ the best person for the job.

Having established the increased importance of human resource diversity to organisations, both nationally and internationally, it is now crucial to consider the organisational climate in which such diversity exists.

2.6 The Concept of Climate Explored

“Organisational climate refers to a variable or set of variables that represent the norms, feelings and attitudes prevailing at a workplace.” (Payne and Pugh 1976, p. 22.) Dastmalchian et al (1989) p. 22 comment on the concept of climate that “[it] has the capacity to convey the general psychological atmosphere of an organisation, and ... can influence the satisfaction, motivation and behaviour patterns of individuals in the workplace.” These definitions of climate convey the important influences of climate in an organisation on the attitudes and behaviours of employees.

Dastmalchian et al (1989) assert that organisational climate is influenced by variables such as the organisation's structure and organisational policies. Climate in an organisation has the potential, they contend, to affect “end-result variables”, which include attitudinal variables such as job satisfaction. Therefore, Dastmalchian et al (1989) contend that the organisations' structure and policies directly affect the particular climate, which in turn affects “end-result variables” such as job satisfaction.

Dastmalchian et al (1989) point out that climate should be related to 'climate for something', to ensure that the concept is not too broad and all embracing. It is suggested that a firm's policies generate a 'characteristic atmosphere'. This, as perceived by the organisation's members, is regarded as organisational climate.

Dastmalchian et al (1989) argue that the climate concept can be used as "a diagnostic" (e.g. in the context-climate relationship) and as a "predictive tool" (e.g. climate-outcomes relationship). In the research presented in this thesis, both its diagnostic and predictive characteristics will be used. Therefore, in this research, elements that create a particular climate for diversity will be investigated (i.e. diagnostic use) and the outcomes of such a climate for diversity will also be explored (i.e. predictive use).

Dastmalchian et al (1989) make use of interviews in their research to define the differences between organisations that climate might explain. The research presented in this thesis also makes use of interviews, much as Dastmalchian et al (1989) do.

Other researchers who relate climate to work outcomes are Naylor et al (1980). They contend that climates are created and influenced by the demographics of the organisation, its structure and by interaction between employees. They argue that different climates may be present in the same organisation. Naylor et al (1980) contend that climate can affect job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

Moxnes and DeEilertsen (1991) assert that top management, style of management and attitude of management influence climate. This thesis takes this issue on board, and examines both top management's attitude to diversity and individual respondents' satisfaction with their managers.

Taking the concept of climate further, Howe (1977, p. 106) describes climate as "a generic term for a variety of concepts that can be classified according to the degree the definitions

emphasise person variables, situation variables or joint person-situation variables”. Howe (1977) defines person variables as individual characteristics. Situation variables are given as factors within organisations themselves, such as environmental conditions and organisational structure. Joint person-situation variables include wages, productivity and length of service. Howe (1977) argues that such climates exist outside individual’s perceptions. It can be argued that individual climate is a cognitive map of the work environment, which can be measured. Organisational climate can therefore be defined as a consensus between members of the organisation on measures of the climate. Howe also defines what he describes as group climate, stating that the hierarchical position of individuals affects their view of the organisation’s climate. Employees who are gathered in organisational structures (for example, hierarchy) or through other means such as similar personalities form themselves into groups, and as such perceive the environment in different ways to other groups. This leads to more than one climate in an organisation. Indeed, Schneider (1972) picks up the theme of multiple climates in an organisation. Howe (1977) hypothesises that different groups may have very different perceptions of climate, and that different types of individual will have different perceptions of climate. Moran and Volkwein (1992) trace three different approaches to organisational climate in the literature. These are the Structural Approach, the Perceptual Approach and the Interactive Approach.

2.6.1 The Structural Approach

Moran and Volkwein (1992) argue the Structural Approach considers climate as something which ‘belongs’ to the organisation. The characteristics are thought to belong to the organisation and occur separately from an individual’s perceptions. Climate is caused by

the structure of the organisation - each individual experiencing the organisation's characteristics will have the same perceptions of them, and they will symbolise the climate of the organisation. Studies using this perspective include Guion (1973) and Payne and Pugh (1975). This Structural Approach does have some limitations. Moran and Volkwein (1992) argue that this approach is limited, because different climates in the same organisation are not considered or understood. Another limitation is that the Structural Approach does not fully consider the individual's subjective view of organisational attributes.

2.6.2 The Perceptual Approach

Moran and Volkwein (1992) describe the Perceptual Approach as perceiving climate as resting within the individual, much in the way that psychological climate does. This type of climate is psychological rather than organisational. This perspective lacks understanding of the interaction between the organisation's members in creating climate. Researchers such as Joyce and Slocum (1982, 1984) have used this approach.

2.6.3 The Interactive Approach

This approach is taken by climate researchers such as Schneider and Reichers (1983). This perspective of the formation of organisational climates emphasises the interaction of individuals who are responding to the situation and environment they are in, which leads to shared agreement and so to the creation of organisational climate. Dieterly and Schnieder (1974, p. 50) contend that if one changes climate, then this affects individual satisfaction; indeed climate can be seen as an individual's own description of the environment. Payne,

Fineman and Wall (1976) also argue that organisational climate is a description of the organisational environment.

Moran and Volkwein (1992) contend that climates in organisations undoubtedly exist. However, an interesting point is made by Schneider and Reichers (1993) who claim that a climate's formation is interactive. A climate is developed by a number of individuals who have similar perceptions, meanings and understanding of organisational stimuli which are around them. Individual perceptions become organisational climates. Moran and Volkwein (1992) argue that organisational climate is present in all organisations, and each organisation has a different overall climate. They assert (p. 20) that organisational climate "embodies members' collective perceptions about their organisation with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation and fairness (and) is produced by member interaction, serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; reflects the prevalent norms, values and attitudes of the organisation's culture and...acts as a source of influence for shaping behaviour". Indeed DeCotiis and Summers (1987) assert that organisational climate can influence individuals' behaviour and motivation within an organisation. Falcoine, Sussman and Herden (1987) argue that the concept of climate joins individual perceptions and realities with organisational ones.

Also employing an interactional perspective, Schneider et al (1996) argue that climate has two main aspects which employees take in: organisational policies and procedures, and values and goals. In order to change climate, they argue that one must change procedures; so employees' perceptions of the organisation around a particular issue or value also change. Schneider et al. (1996 p. 9) see climate as "employees' perceptions of procedures and policies, and culture as values and beliefs".

Schneider et al (1996) argue that climate has four important elements. These are firstly, the nature of interpersonal relationships; that is, how individuals relate to one another within the organisation. Involved in this is employees' treatment and their experience of work relationships e.g. is the environment supportive of individuals with problems? Secondly, the nature of hierarchy; how does the hierarchy of the organisation affect employees? (for example, is the organisation very position-orientated?) Thirdly, the nature of work; what is the experience of work itself like, interesting or not, are jobs rotated etc? Finally, the focus of support and rewards; what are the organisational goals and what actions are rewarded? Climate also affects how customers view the organisations. Schneider and Bowen (1993) argue that if employees have a positive view of the organisation, they will have a more positive attitude towards customers, and so the customer will have a more positive view of the organisation as a whole.

The concept of climate is an accepted one within social psychology. It helps to define the links between organisational structure, individual attitudes and perceptions, and behaviour. Therefore, in this research it is felt that the concept of climate is a useful and valid one and will be used as a basis for understanding perceptions of diversity within organisations. In this study, an interactive approach to climate is taken.

2.7 Organisational Climate and Culture - the Two Terms Differentiated

Moran and Volwien (1992) contend that climate and culture are related terms. The climate of an organisation is heavily influenced by the organisation's culture and the perception of organisational practices by individuals within organisations.

This research is concerned with climate rather than culture. However, within the literature the two concepts are often confused (Barker 1994, Wallace et al 1999) and used indiscriminately.

Schneider, Gubarson and Niles-Jolly (1994) note a difference between climate and culture. They argue that climate is one aspect of culture. They contend (p. 18) that climate is “the atmosphere that employees perceive is created in their organisations by practices, procedures, and rewards”. Employees cluster their organisational experiences and events into meanings, and these form the basis of organisational climate. Climate is therefore heavily dependent on organisational policies and procedures. Culture they describe as “referring to...the broader pattern of an organisation’s mores, values and beliefs”. p. 18 They assert that executives’ behaviour also affects the organisation’s culture. Individuals within the organisation can then understand organisational priorities, which leads to different climates being created.

Other differences between the two terms are illustrated by culture researchers, who view culture as an all embracing concept, and climate researchers such as Burke et al (1992) who often view climate as part of the culture and discuss it in terms of climate for something, e.g. climate for safety (or indeed climate for diversity). Schneider et al (1994) point out that organisations have many different priorities, and therefore will have many different climates.

Both culture and climate researchers argue that climate and culture are heavily influenced by management attitudes and behaviours. The priorities set by management lead to organisational climates as understood and interpreted by employees.

Other differences between the two concepts are related to the research backgrounds and methods adopted by those studying culture and climate. Culture tends to be studied from

an anthropological and sociological perspective, whereas climate tends to be explored from a psychological perspective. Culture data are largely accessed via qualitative research methods, such as participant observation and interviews, whereas climate data are typically analysed by quantitative methods, such as attitude scales.

Therefore, culture is defined in this research, following Reichers and Schneider (1990), as a common set of shared meanings or understandings about the group/organisation and its problems, goals and practices, whereas climate is taken to be a strand of culture, defined as the perception of particular aspects of the organisation, based largely on organisational rules and regulations together with individuals' interpretation of those rules and regulations.

Employing an interactional perspective, Schneider, Brief and Guzzo (1996), assert that climate is the feel of the organisation. They studied climate change at the US telecommunications giant AT&T. AT&T wanted to change employees' attitudes about the organisation and the perceptions they had about what was important, as it no longer held a monopoly position in the market. Schneider et al (1996) also conducted research into General Motors, which was losing customers. General Motors created a subsidiary organisation called Saturn, in which the organisation introduced the values and norms they wished employees to take on board. Schneider et al (1996) contend that this did indeed change the values and norms in this subsidiary, and a different climate was present in Saturn compared with the rest of the company.

2.8 Diversity Climates

The above discussion considered diversity and climate separately. These two research areas are brought together in the work of Kossek and Zonia (1993). Kossek and Zonia contend that individuals in an organisation can be divided into two groups (drawn from the work of Alderfer 1986). Firstly, identity groups, which have similar biological features and cultural experiences, e.g. gender, race, etc. Secondly, organisational groups which do not necessarily have the same biological make-up and cultural experiences. Organisational groups represent individuals who are in the same hierarchical position, and usually perform similar functions. Wells (1990) argues that individuals are seen as representatives of their group, and this affects the image and perception that members of other groups have of that particular group, which in turn affects inter-group relations and processes. Kossek and Zonia (1993) argue that diversity initiatives introduced by an organisation will affect these inter-group relations and processes. They note that Berg and Smith (1990) assert that such initiatives may increase intergroup rivalry. With the introduction of diversity policies, resources are re-distributed. This, Kossek and Zonia (1993) contend, could be seen as disadvantaging the current dominant group, that is white men. White men not only dominate in terms of numbers, but also in terms of positions of power. Therefore, with negotiations for resources occurring it is likely that white men will not feel that they benefit from such diversity initiatives that the organisation introduces. However, such initiatives may increase the number of women and ethnic minorities in an organisation at entry-level positions.

Kossek and Zonia (1993) assert that power in organisations often still lies with white males. Therefore, attempts to produce a dominant heterogeneous culture (Thomas 1990) in

such conditions are extremely difficult. The climate of the organisation and each department within it, Kossek and Zonia (1993) state, is influenced by the amount of power and access to resources that each group has. They also point out that breaking down the barriers between these groups is perhaps the best way to try to rid the organisation and individuals within it of prejudices. Multi-culturalism, they assert, can create more barriers by emphasising differences among unequal groups; it may lead to heightened divisions. Intergroup relations affect the establishment of a diversity climate due to members of different groups working together. This can give rise to “work group climates”, which can affect individuals' and groups' understanding of the organisation. Kossek and Zonia (1993) believe that the diversity climate is affected by equal opportunities policies and access to resources and opportunities in the organisation. In addition, how individuals and groups view those policies is important. They argue that ethnic minorities and white women are more aware of restrictions on their advancement and opportunities than are white men.

Kossek and Zonia (1993) were particularly interested in the perceptions of academic or faculty employees working in a large US university of the organisation's diversity climate. The university used for the research was trying to improve its diversity climate through various policies. Their sample had more women and ethnic minority individuals than was representative of the university as a whole. Kossek and Zonia (1993 p. 63) define climate, drawing on Schneider and Reichers (1983), as “the influence of work contexts on employee behaviour and attitudes, which are grounded in perceptions”. Kossek and Zonia (1993 p. 63) give examples of what kind of “attitudes and behaviours that comprise diversity climate might include”. These attitudes and behaviours include whether individuals agree with diversity measures to increase the number of diverse individuals at different levels of

the organisation, and whether individuals view diverse individuals as having the same standard of qualifications as white men.

Kossek and Zonia (1993, p. 65) present a number of hypotheses concerned with diversity climate. The hypotheses are as follows: firstly, “white women and racioethnic minority men and women are likely to hold more positive values towards diversity efforts compared with white men”; secondly, that white women will “hold positive views towards the qualifications of women” and that they will be more positive about the qualifications of racioethnic men; thirdly, that women from a racioethnic background will hold positive views of all racioethnic individuals’ qualifications, and they will believe ethnic minorities’ qualifications to be slightly higher than all women; fourthly, ethnic minority men will believe women to be slightly more qualified than white men and will see ethnic minorities in general as more qualified than women. The final hypothesis is that “white men will hold the least positive views towards the qualifications of minorities and women.”

Kossek and Zonia’s (1993) results showed that, considering the whole sample, the university’s efforts to promote diversity were seen as positive. Respondents’ perceptions were that both ethnic minorities and women would receive as much departmental support as white men. The whole sample had positive views of the qualifications of women and ethnic minorities, although views on women’s qualifications were slightly more positive than on ethnic minorities (mean 3.13 as opposed to 2.80).

When they examined individual groups within the sample, Kossek and Zonia showed that level in the organisation, ethnicity and gender all affect perceptions of diversity climates. White respondents considered the organisation’s attempts to introduce diversity efforts as less important than did ethnic minority respondents. Male respondents did not have as positive attitudes towards diversity as women did. Ethnic minorities were more positive

towards diversity than were white women. Kossek and Zonia found that hierarchical level made no difference to whether respondents were more positive about diversity and diversity initiatives. Results show that white women believed men and women to be qualified to the same level. In addition, men thought that women generally were less qualified than men.

To summarise Kossek and Zonia's results, women and ethnic minorities supported the organisation's attempts to bring in diversity policies more strongly than white men.

2.8.1 Weaknesses of Kossek and Zonia's Model

Kossek and Zonia's (1993) model does have some weaknesses. In particular, they do not consider individual and organisational outcomes as relevant to diversity climate or the organisation. Also they only conducted research in one organisation (a university), with a highly qualified and specific sample. In order to more fully consider the concept of diversity climate, further research needs to be conducted in different organisations and with a different range of individuals. Outcomes of such a climate should also be considered. Kossek and Zonia's research, although useful and interesting, is a starting point rather than presenting the whole picture of diversity climate.

2.9 Cox's Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (IMCD)

Cox (1993), drawing on his US research, has also created a model of human resource diversity and climate. In doing so, it could be argued that he removes some of the inadequacies of Kossek and Zonia's (1993) model. He asserts that his model, unlike Kossek and Zonia's, can be applied to all employees, not just academics. He also considers

both individual career outcomes and organisational outcomes. He contends that throughout Europe and the USA, human resource diversity is becoming more pronounced in organisations. Indeed, Johnston (1991) argued that in Europe during the 1990's, more women will be joining the workforce than will be the case in the USA. Cox argues that the IMCD model can be applied to many different types of diversity; for example, it can be equally well applied to job function as gender. However, more research has been conducted on gender, ethnicity, nationality and organisational context than on other types of diversity. He argues that gender, ethnicity and nationality are unchangeable, unlike job function and other similar diversity dimensions. Therefore, he concerns himself most with these (identity) dimensions of diversity.

Cox's IMCD is shown below in Table 4.

DIVERSITY	INDIVIDUAL	ORGANISATIONAL
CLIMATE	CAREER OUTCOMES	EFFECTIVENESS
<i>Individual-Level Factors</i>	<i>Affective Outcomes</i>	<i>First Level</i>
- Identity Structures	- Job/Career Satisfaction	- Attendance
- Prejudice	- Organisational Identification	- Turnover
- Stereotyping	- Job Involvement	- Productivity
- Personality		- Work Quality
	<i>Achievement Outcomes</i>	- Recruiting Success
<i>Group/Intergroup Factors</i>		
- Job Performance Ratings	- Creativity/Innovation	
- Cultural Differences	- Compensation	- Problem Solving
- Ethnocentrism	- Promotion/Horizontal	- Workgroup Cohesiveness
- Intergroup Conflict	- Mobility Rates and Communication	
<i>Organisational-Level Factors</i>		<i>Second Level</i>
- Cultural and Acculturation Process		- Market Share
- Structural Integration		- Profitability
- Informal Integration		- Achievement of Formal Organisational Goals
- Institutional Bias in Human Resource Systems		

Table 4 An Interactional Model of the Impact of Diversity on Individual Career Outcomes and Organisational Effectiveness Cox (1993)

As can be seen from Table 4, particular factors are grouped together by Cox (1993), who uses the term 'diversity climate' as Kossek and Zonia (1993) do, although in a slightly different manner. He divides the concept of diversity climate into three different sets of factors. These sets are: Individual-level factors, Group/intergroup factors and Organisational-level factors. Cox considers these as making up the diversity climate in an

organisation. He contends that the following contribute to the diversity climate a) Individual-level factors: identity structures, prejudice, stereotyping and personality; b) Group/intergroup factors: cultural differences, ethnocentrism and intergroup conflict; and finally, c) Organisational-level factors: culture and acculturation process, structural integration, informal integration and institutional bias in human resource systems. Cox then relates diversity climate to individual career outcomes. These in turn are related to organisational effectiveness. Individual career outcomes, Cox argues, comprise a number of factors. These factors are divided between affective outcomes and achievement outcomes and include job/career satisfaction. Individual career outcomes are in turn related to organisational effectiveness, which also comprises a number of factors. These factors are divided into two types; first level and second level. A factor under the first level, for example, is labour turnover. Second level factors include achievement of formal organisational goals.

Cox (1993) argues that the outcomes from the diversity climate (individual career outcomes) have two different effects. Firstly, how individuals (p. 8) “feel about their work and their employer”, which are affective outcomes, and secondly, how well individuals perform in the organisation, which are achievement outcomes. Achievement outcomes are measurable in the form of HR strategies, such as job performance ratings.

Cox contends that ethical reasons for managing diversity are important, and points out that not doing so costs organisations in terms of prosecutions, (and in the UK in terms of tribunal awards). It could be added to this that the reputation of the organisation is diminished, along with possibly the motivation of other employees. Cox (1993) asserts in his model that if individuals do not feel valued because of their race or gender, then they

will feel this affects them in their careers, and this will affect organisational identity and job/career satisfaction as well as job involvement.

In this model, majority group members are considered to have different perceptions from non-majority group members. Non-majority group members are “more likely to be aware of the effects of group membership than majority group members” (Cox 1993 p. 15). Cox quotes a survey he conducted on managerial/professional work which found that women and ethnic minorities saw gender and race as influencing promotion decisions.

Cox (1993) argues that organisations which create a climate that encourages and supports all employees, and in which all employees have equal opportunities, will be in a better place than competitors. Their employees will also be more motivated and creative.

2.9.1 The Importance of Group Identity

The IMCD model asserts that group identity is important, as it makes up part of individual identity, much as Kossek and Zonia (1993) do. This is referred to by Cox (1993) as ‘social identity theory’. That is, even if individuals themselves do not consider their group identity as important, they are interacting with those who do. It is contended that there are two types of groups, ‘phenotype identity groups’ and ‘culture identity groups’. Phenotype identity groups are characterised by physical differences; for example gender is a phenotype, as there are physical differences between men and women. That is, one group member is physically different from other group members, and one is unable to be a member of both groups. Cox also argues that these include racioethnic groups which are distinguished by colour, facial features etc. These visible differences are the basis of stereotypes. Within culture identity groups, members share a subjective culture. These terms are referred to in the work of Alderfer and Smith (1982) and indeed Kossek and

Zonia (1993) also consider it in their diversity climate work. Cultural identity relates to individuals who have the same goals, norms and values. These differ from other groups' goals, norms and values. The culture identity model posits various levels which individuals move through; for example, stages of identifying oneself as black or white, from 'first noticing' to 'acceptance' of colour. An interesting point to consider when viewing diversity in the workplace is that whites, and in particular white men, tend not to think of themselves as white, but as 'individuals', whereas ethnic minorities do tend to classify themselves, and be classified by others, in terms of their ethnicity. Cox contends that ethnic minorities tend to be 'biculturals', that is, individuals who are still aware of their identity group although working in a majority white organisation and adapting to white values while working.

2.9.2 Motivation and Ethnocentrism

Another important concept in the model is employee motivation. It is argued that discrimination and prejudice will lead to a lack of employee motivation. Cox (1993) asserts that the ethnocentrism of the white male majority, that is the view that they are the 'centre of the universe' and other views do not count, affects employee motivation. This is particularly true for white women and ethnic minority men and women, as their views are not often taken into account.

2.9.3 Intergroup Conflict

Cox believes that there are five issues which have particular significance for human resources and diversity. He states these are: firstly competing goals; secondly competition for resources; thirdly cultural diversity; fourth, power discrepancies; and finally, assimilation versus preservation of micro cultural identity.

Individual career outcomes and achievement outcomes, together with affective outcomes, are thought by Cox to influence 'organisational effectiveness measures'; for example labour turnover. These first level measures are conceived of as influencing the second level organisational effectiveness measures. These include market share and profitability. In linking diversity climate and organisational effectiveness, Cox (1993 p.16) states: "By understanding the diversity climate we can predict effects on individual outcomes, and ultimately effects of diversity on organisational effectiveness". Cox quotes Thomas (1990 p. 109) who defines managing diversity as "managing in such a way as to get from a heterogeneous work force the same productivity, commitment, quality and profit that we got from the old homogenous work force".

The performance of individuals who come from diverse backgrounds can differ from those from traditional backgrounds, due in part to the diversity climate present in the organisation. Lee and Mowday (1987) argue that women and those from ethnic minority backgrounds have lower job involvement than white males. Cox argues that this has a direct effect on labour turnover, as those who are not as involved in the job are more likely to leave an organisation. Cannings (1988) found that gender had an effect on career progression, with women having less chance of being promoted than men. Greenhaus et al (1990) found that black managers in the US also had less chance of being promoted. Gender and ethnic background seem to affect promotion and career development. Women and those from ethnic minorities perceive this as happening in organisations. Therefore women and ethnic minorities are less involved in their jobs. Indeed Greenhaus et al (1990) argue that black managers are less satisfied and therefore perform less well, reaching career plateaux more quickly than white male employees. Lee and Mowday (1987) argue that job satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement are related to labour turnover.

Lok and Crawford (1999) found that age also related to organisational commitment, with older people being more committed to the organisation than younger individuals.

Such points are obviously important, as there is now a growing amount of human resource diversity in management and in the labour force at large.

2.9.4 Absenteeism

VandenHeuvel and Wooden (1995) found differences in the rate of absenteeism between men and women; women were absent more often than men. They relate this to women's domestic responsibilities. Cox (1993) contends that the organisation's values and individual employee's values should be similar, and this affects absenteeism and labour turnover for ethnic minorities and women. This, he argues, is why absenteeism and labour turnover are higher for women and ethnic minorities, as they do not experience such a close fit between their values and the organisation's values. Cox discusses the cost to organisations of this absenteeism and labour turnover. He makes a calculation based on the labour turnover rate in the US of women and ethnic minorities. He asserts that the annual cost of the turnover differential (between white men and ethnic minorities and women) p. 23 "is estimated at \$3.8 million", with replacement costs of \$15,000 per employee; and labour turnover produces "an additional 250 [staff] losses annually". Meisenheimer (1990) reports on the Ortho Pharmaceuticals Company, which argues that managing diversity made savings of \$500,000, due to decreasing the level of ethnic minority labour turnover. He also considers absence rates, arguing that female rates of absence are 58% higher than men's 3% rate. Taking an average figure of \$40,000 as the amount that organisations spend on the salary and other benefits for each employee, he contends that the rate of women's absence leads to an additional \$2.4 million being lost annually.

Youngblood and Chambers-Cook (1984) argue that an organisation which introduced childcare experienced positive benefits in relation to absenteeism and turnover: “Turnover decreased by 63%” p. 25. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment also increased among its employees. Youngblood and Chambers-Cook (1984) state that providing childcare facilities can improve the attitudes to work of employees, as well as their behaviour. Cox (1993) also notes that studies have shown the benefits of introducing childcare to an organisation.

2.10 Weaknesses of Cox’s IMCD Model

Cox’s IMCD model is a very useful model to consider when examining diversity climates and organisational and individual outcomes. However, it does have some weaknesses. The IMCD model is US based, and tends to include all possible organisational and individual factors as influencing and being influenced by diversity climate. For example, under each heading within the model, it includes many possible influencing factors. Under diversity climate, individual level factors, Cox includes identity structures, prejudice, stereotyping and personality. Such a model is very wide, and may be difficult to use effectively within an environment in which one is trying to assess the diversity climate.

2.11 Summary of Kossek and Zonia and Cox’s Diversity Models

In summary, Kossek and Zonia (1993) argue that the diversity climate in an organisation will influence individuals’ perceptions, attitudes and behaviour. In their model they use as an indicator of diversity climate, attitudes towards measures to increase the number of diverse employees in the organisation. Attitudes towards women and ethnic minority men and women’s qualifications are also used as measures of diversity climate. They argue that

more positive attitudes towards these two dimensions of diversity climate will be presented by women and ethnic minority men and women, whereas white men will not hold such positive views. In terms of diversity initiatives, white men will see their power and resources being re-allocated to other groups. They will therefore be less likely to support them. In terms of qualifications, they argue that white men are more likely to see women and ethnic minority men and women as having lower qualifications than themselves.

White men will also perceive the organisation as giving more support to minorities than will white women and ethnic minority men and women.

Cox's (1993) IMCD model is much more comprehensive than Kossek and Zonia's (1993) model of diversity climate. Cox's model consists of three strands: firstly, diversity climate itself; secondly, individual career outcomes; and thirdly, organisational effectiveness. Many more dimensions of diversity are included than in Kossek and Zonia's model. Cox (1993) argues that the IMCD can be related to any type of diversity (e.g. gender, job function) and in any organisational setting. He conceives of the outcomes of the diversity climate in terms of both individual and organisational benefits. For example, job satisfaction is an 'individual career outcome,' and turnover is a dimension of 'organisational effectiveness'.

2.12 Towards a Positive Climate for Diversity Model

The managing diversity perspective has much to offer organisations in the UK today, providing a flexible framework under which individuals can be more effective and organisations more successful or productive. Taking that perspective, and in particular the

business case that it offers, it is possible to use the MD perspective as a framework for this research.

The PCFD model comes from a managing diversity standpoint. That is, it takes account of the fact that diversity is present in our society, and therefore within organisations. Management and exploitation of this resource are considered by authors such as Wilson and Iles (1996) to be vital to the success of organisations today. The model tests the effective management of diversity through policies and procedures in the organisation which lead to a positive climate for diversity, and establishes the possible positive outcomes for managing diversity effectively. Authors such as Cox and Blake (1991) have established the links between creating the appropriate climate and positive outcomes for the individual and organisation. However, little empirical work has been carried out on the effectiveness of such a climate and its outcomes. Theory has suggested such outcomes, and this research takes theory a step further by assessing direct links between climate and outcomes. This is tested via access to four NHS Trusts and five branches of a retail organisation. Diversity climate is considered in terms of management, as authors such as Schnieder et al (1996) state that management create the climate for the rest of the organisation. Therefore, if a positive climate for diversity is present within management, it should also be present in the rest of the organisation. Kossek and Zonia's (1993) work is limited in that it is only concerned with faculty staff in a university, whereas this research extends the sample organisation type quite considerably and looks at non-university staff in the above organisations. Cox's (1993) model does not appear to have any particular organisational research behind it to support its main tenets.

The work of Kossek and Zonia (1993), and Cox (1993), although a useful starting point does not provided a full picture of the elements required for a positive climate for diversity

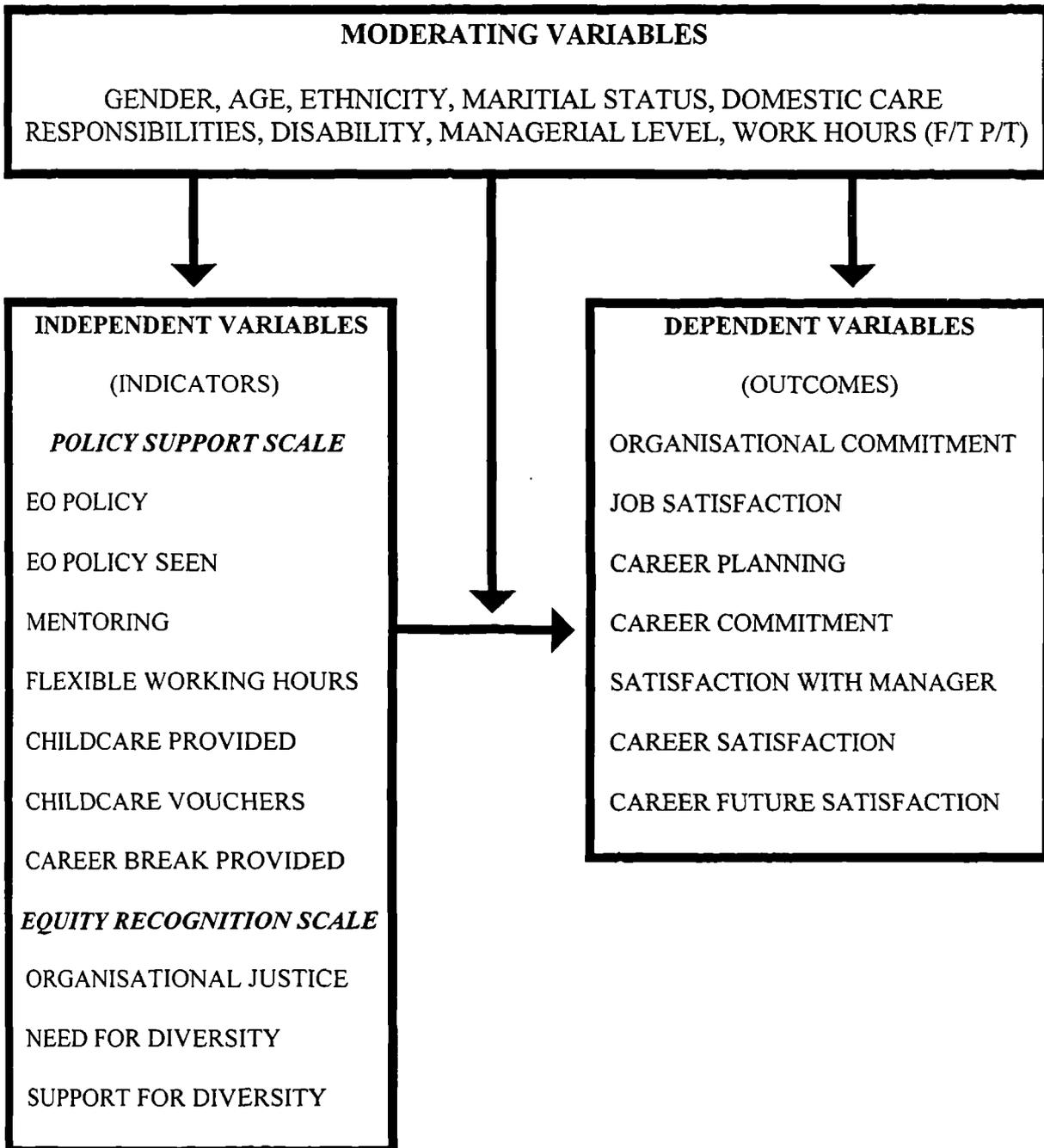
to be generated. They both lack the elements which create the climate itself, and make assumptions about climate which they do not substantiate.

A further concern regarding Cox's (1993) IMCD model is that it tends to include every single organisational factor as influencing or being influenced by diversity climate. However, Cox's model does go some way to rectifying the limitations of Kossek and Zonia's (1993) work. Drawing on the 1993 work of Kossek and Zonia and Cox's (1993) model, it is possible to conceptualise what would constitute a positive climate for diversity (PCFD) (that is, one which positively encourages human resource diversity and its outcomes). Kossek and Zonia (1993) assert that the demographic mix of individuals within an organisation relates to Diversity Climate. Therefore a demographic mix of people may be important in developing a positive climate for diversity. The PCFD model takes into account policies and procedures in the organisation which affect the climate. Possible indicators of a PCFD include: commitment by the organisation to diversity in terms of policies and procedures (policy support) as well as recognition of the need for diversity, the support for diversity and organisational justice (equity recognition). Outcomes predicted by the model, drawing particularly on Cox (1993), include career, job and manager satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The model is novel in that it puts forward the components of a positive climate for diversity (policy support and equity recognition) as well as the outcomes of such a climate at individual level. It also presents moderating variables which are recognised as having an effect on the climate in an organisation. The model presents a more complete picture than Kossek and Zonia (1993) offer to the reader, and is more complex in its interrelationships. The model when compared to Cox's work on the other hand is more focused and tailored

to the needs of the modern organisation. It considers policies and procedures which many organisations either have in place or are considering introducing, as for example Rutherford (1999) found in her research on organisations with effective EO policies, that “women managers ...fare better in organisations with an equal opportunities policy than in one without” p 212. Therefore, it has a practical application, as well as an academic one. The hypothesised positive climate for diversity model is now presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2 Positive Climate For Diversity Model



2.13 Independent Variables

2.13.1 Commitment by the Organisation - Policy Support

Drawing on the work of Kossek and Zonia (1993) and others, one possible indicator of a positive climate for diversity is referred to as 'policy support'. It is concerned with commitment to diversity by the organisation in terms of diversity initiatives. As can be seen in Britain today, more and more organisations claim to be equal opportunity employers. Some offer commitment to diversity through schemes such as flexible working hours, equal opportunities policies, childcare provision, career breaks and mentoring. Although many organisations appear to pay lip-service to such concepts, the work of Alimo-Metcalfe (1994) and Sidney (1994) has shown the benefits of such organisational policies. Whitley et al (1991) argue that mentoring aids individuals' careers, as it increases the chance of being promoted. The cost to the organisation of staff turnover can be enormous. Trained staff who decide it is easier to leave the organisation than attempt to find and pay for childcare cost organisations large amounts of money and time in obtaining replacement staff. The benefits of such policies, which enable human resource diversity to be managed more effectively, can also be seen from the work of Cox and Blake (1991) and Harris and Kleiner (1993). If diversity is not effectively managed, the costs to the organisation can be enormous. Harris and Kleiner (1993) argue that poor management can lead to lost productivity, high turnover, high absenteeism and industrial conflict.

The above discussion shows the potential importance of policy support in developing a positive climate for diversity.

2.13.2 Equity Recognition Scale

2.13.2.1 Need and Support for Diversity

Kossek and Zonia (1993) use support for diversity as an indicator in their diversity climate model. It is also used here in the PCFD model as an indicator of a positive climate for diversity. Recognition of the need for diversity is another indicator taken from the work of Kossek and Zonia (1993) and used in this work as an indicator of a positive climate for diversity. Kossek and Zonia (1993) argue that employees seeing the importance of support for diversity and the need for diversity in an organisation helps to create a positive climate for diversity. Therefore these variables are included in the PCFD model as indicators of a such a climate, and are termed here aspects of 'equity recognition', as they are facets of a positive recognition of equity issues by the organisation.

2.13.2.2 Top Management Commitment

Many researchers and practitioners in the area of HRM see top management commitment to diversity as a very important issue. Morrison (1992, p. 42) looked at "16 of the most progressive organisations in the US, organisations that are models in their industries for taking positive action to develop diversity in management". Of all the managers she interviewed, the only area of agreement in relation to managing diversity effectively was that top managers must be committed to diversity for diversity programmes to be effective. Morrison (1992) identifies three strategies to help diversity at managerial level become a reality. Firstly, *educating* employees about the needs of the organisation, so they are aware of what qualities will be rewarded by the organisation. Secondly, it is important to reward and reinforce, i.e. *enforce* the education given to employees. Thirdly, managers should be *exposed* to non-traditional employees who have the talent to break down stereotypes. Top

management commitment also relates to support for diversity, in that unless top management is committed to diversity policies and procedures, they are unlikely to be effective. It is also related to equity recognition, in that unless top management recognise the need for diversity and support it, such issues are not likely to be taken seriously by the organisation.

2.13.3 Organisational Justice

The twin concepts of distributive and procedural justice, which form the indicator of organisational justice, are also included in the positive climate for diversity model, as are aspects of equality recognition. The concept of organisational justice is one possible indicator of PCFD lacking in the work of Kossek and Zonia (1993) and Cox (1993). It is hypothesised that for a positive climate for diversity to be present in an organisation, individual employees within that organisation (in this context, managers) need to have a perception that organisational justice exists for resource allocation and distribution. Resource allocation would include pay levels, as well as promotion, assessment and appraisal. Procedural and distributive Justice are considered to be important elements of an equity recognition and hence of PCFD.

An analysis of the organisational justice literature follows to aid a full appreciation of the concept and its place in the PCFD model.

2.13.4 Procedural Justice

The concept of procedural justice is concerned with the processes which take place behind the distribution of resources, rewards and punishments and the way in which decisions

have been made. It contrasts with distributive justice, which relates to perceptions of the fairness or otherwise of the distribution of resources, rewards and punishments.

Procedural justice was first fully conceptualised by Thibaut and Walker (1975). They argue there are two elements of control; process control (control over procedures), and decision control (directly determining outcomes). Thibaut and Walker (1975) took their lead from the legal systems in the UK and USA, which are adversarial systems where disputants had high process control, but low decision control. This is very different from the system of continental Europe, the inquisitorial system, where the disputants had both low process control and low decision control. They assert that individuals considered the UK/USA system as fairer than the European model, even if the outcome was the same. This is due to individuals having some input into the procedures (Walker, Lind & Thibaut 1979). This can be, Greenberg (1984) points out, extended to other situations. Further studies found that input to the procedure or process control was very important for individuals to consider the process to be fair. Landy, Branes and Murphy (1978), in their research on managerial and professional employees' performance reviews, report that if employees were able to say what they thought when their performance was being reviewed, they felt the process was fair.

Bies and Moag (1986) argue that there are two main procedural justice models, Leventhal's (1980) model and Thibaut and Walker's model (1975). Leventhal's (1980) model identifies the thought processes that go into deciding whether procedures are perceived as fair or not. Bies and Moag (1986) assert that Thibaut and Walkers (1975) model, despite being older, is still more dominant in the field of procedural justice. This model focuses on people's reactions to the procedures related to the ways of resolving disputes; that is, in

relation to whether the person involved in the dispute has control or if another individual is controlling the processes.

Leventhal (1980) however describes six procedural rules which relate to the ways in which individuals view procedures as fair or unfair. These rules relate to the following: how consistent procedures are (the consistency rule); whether the procedures are biased in any way, (the bias suppression rule); how accurate the information is on which procedures are based (the accuracy rule); whether, if these procedures have errors in them, they could be changed, (the correctability rule); whether all those affected by the procedures have had a say in them (the representativeness rule); and finally, whether the procedures are ethical (the ethicality rule).

Bies and Moag (1986) contend that neither of the two models mentioned is able to differentiate between the procedure itself and its enactment. They add an extra step to the classic models by arguing that interaction should be centrally placed within any model. Their model is as follows:- *procedure - interaction - outcome*. Interactional factors such as communication are seen as a very important part of the process of judging the fairness of procedures. As a first attempt to identify criteria or principles of fairness in communication, Bies and Moag (1986) carried out two studies. From these they argue that truth-telling is an important area of research that has been ignored by most researchers in the procedural justice arena. Considering 'job search', they contend that there are four factors which are used to assess the fairness of communication if one is searching for employment. These are; 1) truthfulness, that is of those interviewing in the organisation; 2) respect given to the potential employee; 3) propriety of the interview questions; 4) justification, of decisions taken if they did not get the job.

Bies and Moag (1986) assert that their results support Leventhal's (1980) argument for an ethicality rule. Bies and Moag (1986) argue that their research shows factors that can be used independently of individuals knowing the treatment and outcome for others, that is non-comparative standards. If concerned with interactional fairness, judgements may be using absolute and objective standards. The organisational context in which the interaction is taking place may affect the interaction and the use of different rules to understand fairness. They assert that one does not yet know how interactional fairness judgements and procedural fairness judgements meet or possibly overlap. For example, do interactional improprieties such as deception or rudeness always imply an unfair procedure? Do procedures have no meaning unless people experience them? Bies and Moag (1986) contends that the answers to these questions depends on whether the person perceives that the organisation itself condones certain actions or if it is seen as the action of an individual person. That is, if an individual believes that the police force condones rudeness to black youths, then he or she may feel that the procedures are unfair. On the other hand, if the person thinks that it is the particular individual who is rude (interactional communication - individual action), then he or she is less likely to believe that the procedures are unfair.

Gilliland (1995) considers procedural justice theory with regard to employee selection processes. He created 10 rules to assess if procedural justice is viewed as having been present by individuals during their selection experiences. He draws on the work of Leventhal (1980), Bies and Moag (1986) and Greenberg (1986).

Gilliland's 10 procedural justice rules are: 1) job relatedness, that is, how much any tests given are related to the job; 2) opportunity to perform, that is a chance to show the abilities and skill that an applicant has; 3) reconsideration opportunity, a chance to review test

marks and challenge results; 4) administration consistency, that is how individuals are treated over time, and whether this is unbiased; 5) feedback, that is on test marks and on the final decision whether to employ them or not; 6) selection information, that is whether individuals are provided with information and justification for such selection; 7) honesty, that is candidness during communication; 8) interpersonal effectiveness, that is the degree to which candidates are treated with respect; 9) two-way communication, that is whether applicants are given the opportunity to ask questions; 10) propriety of questions, that is the appropriateness of questions asked.

Gilliland (1995) argues there are two factors which would influence the degree to which the rules are weighted. Firstly, the selection outcome (who gets chosen), and secondly, which selection procedures applicants experienced. Gilliland found that the 'reconsideration opportunity rule' received no support from the research. The two categories which are most supported by the research are 'job relatedness' and 'interpersonal effectiveness'.

Gilliland (1993) argues that there are three reasons why it is important that people perceive selection systems as fair. All of these reasons are important when considering PCFD and human resource diversity. Firstly, he argues that it is important for business. If individuals outside the organisation do not believe the organisation has a fair system, then they may not apply for employment in that organisation. Therefore, one is potentially missing out on talented employees. The second reason is that it is also ethically important to have a fair selection system. His last point is that if the system is not fair, then this may have legal implications, particularly if it is discriminatory. Of course, selection practices apply

equally to individuals already within the organisation in terms of promotion, and these findings also relate to staff reviews which take place in organisations.

More recent research has shown that Leventhal's (1980) theories on procedural justice are supported, as are Thibaut and Walkers (1975) and Adams (1963) equity theory, in the work of Sheppard and Lewicki (1987). Lind and Tyler (1988) report that procedural justice has especially strong effects on attitudes about institutions or authorities, as opposed to the attitudes about the specific outcome in question. Therefore, if individuals perceive that the procedures of a social system are fair, then they will perceive that the organisation is more likely to be fair (system satisfaction). If individuals perceive that the distribution of rewards is fair, then they will perceive individual decisions as fair (outcome satisfaction). Research by Folger and Konovsky (1989) found that procedural justice relating to pay rises uniquely contributed to such factors as organisational commitment and trust in supervision. In contrast, perceptions of distributive justice were uniquely associated with one's own pay satisfaction. Indeed, Lind & Tyler's (1988) self-interest model asserts that individuals are primarily concerned with their own situation. Research supporting this includes LaTour (1978).

However, Tyler (1988) contends that individuals wish to control procedures as they believe this will influence outcomes, which is their main concern. Greenberg and Folger (1983) also support this notion. However, Thibaut and Walker (1978) argue that individuals wish to do this in order for equitable outcomes to be achieved. Tyler (1988) asserts that individuals want to express an opinion, although this opinion may in practice make no difference to the final outcome.

More recent research has found that there is also considerable support for Lind & Tyler's (1988) and Tyler's (1989) group-value model, which is important when considering human resource diversity in organisations. The group-value model asserts that individuals consider groups of which they are a part as important. Tyler (1989) argues that therefore individuals perceive processes that increase group solidarity as important.

Further research on this area has been conducted by Kim and Mauborgne (1993). Their research shows that higher-order attitudes (for example, organisational commitment which leads to trust and social harmony) are generated, which in turn leads to a feeling of community relating to the whole organisation. Procedural justice itself, they argue, also has an effect on outcome satisfaction.

Reiley and Singer (1996) point out that equity theory has played an important part in the organisational justice literature. They argue that fairness relating to procedures used by organisations in order to make decisions is seen by procedural justice researchers such as Lind and Tyler (1988) as vitally important to individuals who experience these procedures. Indeed Reiley and Singer (1996) assert that this perspective on procedural justice has been used in research from conflict management, (for example Tyler 1991), to performance appraisal. They also point out that it has been related to organisational commitment e.g. Reiley and Singer are concerned with the "perceived fairness of promotion procedures" p. 129. As mentioned, Leventhal's (1980) research identified rules which, when used by organisations, lead to the perception of fairness. Reiley and Singer (1996) argue that these lead to positive benefits for the organisation.

Reiley and Singer (1996) conducted research within the New Zealand police force. In their first study, they examined New Zealand police promotion and appeal procedures, using the

procedural justice rules framework set out by Leventhal. They examined appeal reports written by police officers who were appealing against promotion decisions. Two rules, consistency and accuracy, accounted for 81.3% of all points of appeal. The second study extended their work in order to ascertain whether breaching fairness rules affected appellants' attitudes to work. They take a social cognitive theory perspective in order to consider employees attitudes. Reiley and Singer describe social cognitive theory as concerned with a "self-regulatory or volitional approach to work motivation" p. 132, drawing on Kanfer's (1990) work. Drawing further on the work of Bandura (1977, 1982, 1986), they explain that individual self-efficacy relates to how well individuals think they can accomplish particular tasks. This in turn relates to how motivated an individual is to accomplish those tasks. Reiley and Singer also hypothesise that the way in which one assesses one's previous performance affects self-efficacy. Previous staff appraisals that the individual has experienced also affect it. These in turn affect how motivated an individual is at work. They found that past performance and procedural fairness did predict self-efficacy. Procedural satisfaction did not however predict self-efficacy. Reiley and Singer's next hypothesis was that self-efficacy would predict job attitudes. They found that two out of three of the job attitudes did relate to self-efficacy and procedural satisfaction (job satisfaction and organisational commitment), but not job involvement. Further analysis found that procedural satisfaction was indicated by the presence of procedural fairness. Therefore Reiley and Singer (1996) contend that "unsuccessful candidates for promotion perceived the procedures as unfair" p. 135. Perceptions of unfairness in the promotion process had a direct and negative impact on self-efficacy, and also affected organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

Singer (1993) and Bartz & Hillman (1991) contend that individuals who gain advantage from affirmative action procedures are more likely to see such procedures as fair compared with those who have no advantage, and whose group perhaps has had no advantage. Therefore, it could be argued, that if an individual from an ethnic background had not been advanced by affirmative action but had seen other group members do so, then he or she would see it as fairer than a white male who had seen no group member be advantaged by it. This may also relate to individuals' perceptions of managing diversity and EO policies and procedures.

2.13.5 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice is closely related to procedural justice. Distributive justice refers to the way individuals view the distribution of rewards, resources and punishments as fair or unfair. In relation to organisations, most research seems to have been concerned with rewards and resources (McFarlin and Sweeney 1992). Some research argues that rewards come not just in the form of money, but also in work environments. For example, research shows that factors such as title or office type can also be seen as rewards (Greenberg 1988). Adams' (1963) equity theory stated that factors other than money were important (such as status and prestige). However, researchers have tended to concentrate on income as the main concern for most individuals. Continuing on this track, Griffeth (1989) argues that people are more concerned if others are not paid equitably when compared to them if they are of a similar 'type' of individual to themselves. This could be related to the discriminatory treatment of women and ethnic minorities not being a concern if the person viewing such treatment is a white male. This may relate to other forms of organisational policies; not just pay, but also promotion and appraisal, for example.

Husemand et al (1987) argue that there are three different types of reactions to equitable distribution of rewards. Firstly, 'equity sensitives' are concerned that they get the same as others. Secondly, 'benevolents' are not so concerned at being underpaid, and thirdly, 'entitled' are happy to be overpaid compared to others in a similar job. These concepts, Greenberg (1988) argues, have not been adequately tested. He contends that if individuals do appear to react differently, it can easily be related to norms of the situation, as Leventhal (1976) asserts. Indeed, Deutsch (1975) argues that different norms of justice are followed under different circumstances.

2.13.6 Pay Differentials and Diversity

In terms of the distributive justice of pay differentials, some research has been conducted on the different perceptions of men and women.

Brockner and Adsit (1986) found that women tend to be more satisfied with inequitable pay. Donnerstein's (1988) research contends that this is why women are often paid less. This relates to the concept of relative deprivation - it is who one compares oneself to that matters. Therefore one could argue that women would compare themselves with other women, and not see the discrepancy. Indeed, Major and Konar (1984) contend that women expect to be paid less than men. This may be particularly so as women compare themselves with other women, who are also underpaid (Major and Forcey 1985). Research has shown that women's work is undervalued generally in our society, and therefore Greenberg and McCarty (1990) argue that it is not surprising that such a cultural norm affects women. However, much of this research is over ten years old, and may no longer apply in quite the way it did to women managers.

However, both Procedural and Distributive Justice are important indicators in the PCFD model which have been largely ignored by researchers considering diversity climates. Both concepts are of central importance to the positive climate for diversity model and will be tested in the research study.

2.14 Moderating Variables

In this section, variables are discussed which are likely to influence perceptions of diversity climates and so moderate the impact of PCFD.

As mentioned above, Britain is currently experiencing demographic change in its population. Approximately 3.3 million people are considered to be of ethnic origin (Social Trends 1997). With such population change comes a change in the labour force. Therefore organisations are less likely to be made up of white western males, or 'traditional employees'. Much US research, such as Cox (1991), has argued that diversity in human resources is a positive asset to organisations. Diverse or non-traditional employees find that they are able to progress only so far up the career ladder in an organisation before coming up against a glass ceiling, and can progress no further. Mandell and Kohler-Grey (1990) argue that organisations are inhibited from valuing diversity because of the pervading image of a manager as male, middle class and white. The positive climate for diversity (PCFD) model (figure 2) hypothesises that in order for a PCFD to be present in an organisation, there must be a demographic mix of people at managerial level in the organisation. Indeed, Kossek and Zonia (1993) also consider demographic mix to be an important determinant of diversity climate. White men and women often have different

views from each other, as do those from ethnic minority backgrounds. In terms of gender, this is shown in the work of Gutek et al (1990) who studied sex discrimination in a sample of psychologists and managers. They found that the men in the sample perceived less discrimination against women than women did. However, males and females perceived that men were less discriminated against than women. Of the female sample which thought that there was discrimination against women, these individuals also thought that men had more chance of being recruited and promoted by the organisation. If both men and women believed there to be discrimination, women were more affected by it than men.

Age, management level, ethnicity, marital status, domestic care responsibilities, disability and work hours (that is full-time or part-time working hours) are also seen as moderating variables in the PCFD research model.

2.15 Outcomes predicted by the Climate for Diversity Model

The outcomes of this model (figure 2) are drawn largely from Cox's (1993) work. The outcomes hypothesised relate to individual satisfaction with and commitment to the organisation. This may of course lead to several benefits to the organisation, such as less industrial strife and a reduction in the expenses that are associated with this (Harisis and Klenier 1993). Another possible advantage is less labour turnover and therefore lower costs of recruiting other individuals to fill the job. However, these first and second level organisational effectiveness variables are not tested in the present study.

2.15.1 Career Commitment, Career Satisfaction, Career Future Satisfaction and Career Planning

The importance of these outcomes for organisations has to some extent already been discussed. However, further research can be considered. As mentioned earlier, the outcomes of a PCFD are seen as linked to one another. Chenuis (1991) found that attitudes towards life, job satisfaction and supportive organisational climate were related to career commitment. Career aspirations and plans are also linked with career satisfaction. (Kossek and Zonia 1993).

2.15.2 Job Satisfaction

The PCFD model indicates that job satisfaction, referred to here as reflecting “the extent to which people find gratification or fulfilment in their work” (Pool, 1999), will occur amongst managers if a positive climate for diversity is present. The organisational importance of this includes the finding (see Sheridan and Slocum 1975) that job satisfaction and managerial performance are linked. More research which finds a link between satisfaction and performance is Porter and Steers’ (1973) study, which found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and individual performance, as did Sheridan and Slocum’s (1975) research. Interestingly, Krausz, Sagie and Bidermann (2000) found that job satisfaction was individuals who wanted to work full-time was higher than those individuals who had to work full-time but did not wish to.

Another possible consequence of low job satisfaction is absenteeism and labour turnover. Indeed not having a PCFD present may well affect diverse employees, as Morgan, McDonagh and Ryan-Morgan (1995) found in their research. This found that women marketing managers were less satisfied than male marketing managers. This lower

satisfaction is “Likely to evoke ..employee absence and turnover” p. 17. Farrela and Rusbult (1981) also found job satisfaction related to labour turnover. Even when individuals do not leave the organisation, Lawler and Porter (1967) and Korman (1976) argue that job dissatisfaction can lead to conflict within the organisation. Kaldenberg et al (1991) report that job satisfaction is related to affective professional commitment, which is taken to mean commitment to the particular profession i.e. retail management.

2.15.3 Satisfaction with One’s Manager and Current Job

Satisfaction with one’s manager is also an important issue, which links to the PCFD indicator of organisational justice. Sashkin and Williams (1990) contend that if employees do not feel they are treated fairly by their supervisors, then this may lead to excessive absence.

2.15.4 Commitment to the Organisation

A definition of organisational commitment that Morrow (1983) presents is that it is commitment to a place of work. Commitment to the organisation is the final hypothesised outcome of a PCFD in this study. Much research has been conducted on organisational commitment and also on related concepts such as professional commitment. For example, Kaldenberg et al (1995) examined professional commitment. Kaldenberg et al (1995) argue that commitment is not just attitudinal but also behavioural. That is, commitment is not solely related the feelings of individuals and their attitudes to the organisation, but also to how they act in relation to that organisation.

Research has also been conducted on gender differences in organisational commitment. Uhlenberg and Cooney (1990) argue that marriage and having children increased the work commitment of males, but did the opposite for females. The concepts of career

commitment and organisational commitment are linked in the work of Blau (1985), who found that in nurses, career commitment was related to organisational commitment.

Kaldenberg et al (1995) report that their research on professionals, in this case dentists, has shown no significant difference between males and females in terms of job involvement, job satisfaction or affective professional commitment.

Further research has been conducted on organisational commitment in relation to work hours. Krausz et al (2000) found that individuals who worked longer working hours (taken in the study to be full-time) and were happy with this work pattern, were more committed to the organisation than those employee who worked full-time, but would have preferred to work part-time. This may well be relevant for women in the sample organisations who wished to work part-time, but may not have felt able to due to organisational constraints.

Organisational commitment is also related to labour turnover. For example, Porter and Crampon (1976) argue that managers who were less committed to the organisation were more likely to leave the organisation than those who were more committed.

2.16 Conclusions

The literature review presented above has considered relevant literature on human resource diversity and climates for such diversity. It has also presented a model (figure 2), which aims to overcome the limitations of the current diversity climate models of Kossek and Zonia (1993) and Cox (1993). This model will be more fully investigated in the research which follows.

Much of the research conducted on diversity has been US based, with less being UK or internationally based. However, this research is still of note for the study presented here. The next chapter is concerned with the research methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology used in this study. Firstly, it considers the research process as a whole. Next, it presents the study aims and selection of research methods. In this, it considers postal questionnaires and face-to-face in-depth interviews. Questionnaire design and structure are discussed, together with the scales used. The use of pilot studies is explained, as is the sampling procedure used in the research.

The returned questionnaires and analysis of these are briefly discussed. Also included in the chapter is a brief analysis of the interviews conducted. Framework methodology, which was used for the interviews, is also discussed.

3.2 The Research Process

Bryman and Cramer (1990) illustrate the research process in the following way (adjusted for this research).

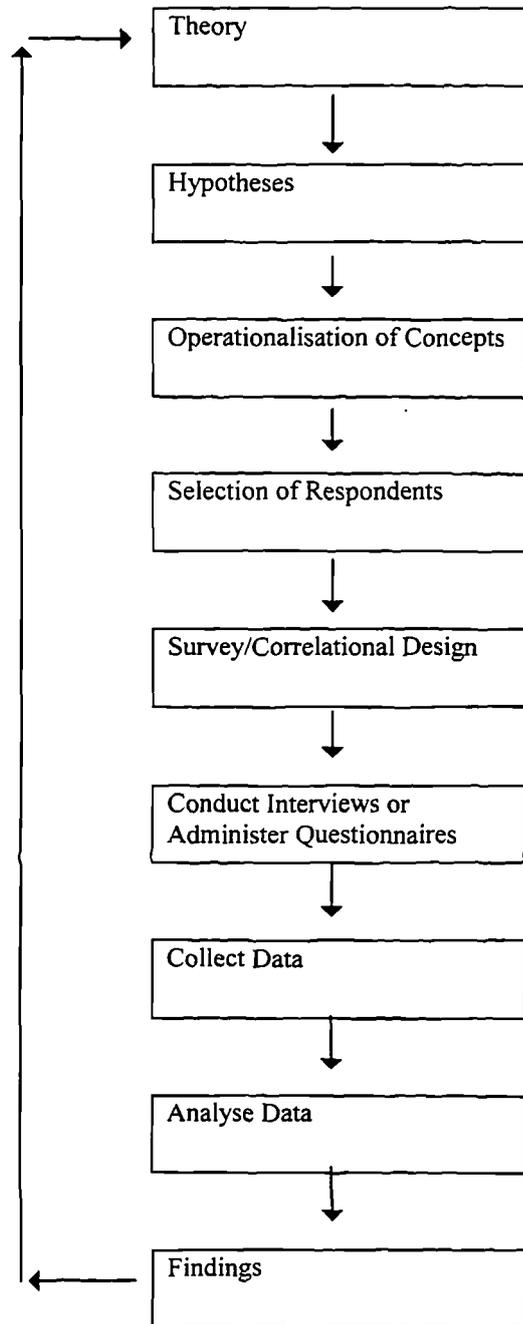


Figure 3 The Research Process

3.2.1 Theory

Step one of this model relates to understanding the existing theories concerning climate and diversity; for example, Cox (1993).

3.2.2 Hypotheses

The second step of the model is to devise hypotheses. In this particular research a PCFD model was formulated in order to test the hypothesised relationships between variables. This was based on theories relating to climate and diversity (e.g. Cox 1993, Kossek and Zonia 1993 and Schneider 1990). The hypotheses have been refined during the course of the research.

3.2.3 Operationalisation of the Concepts

Bryman and Crammer (1990) p. 4 argue that “in order to assess the validity of a hypothesis it is necessary to develop measures of the constituent concepts. This process is often referred to as ‘operationalisation’”. In this research, the concepts were operationalised through the use of Likert-style scales and closed questions used in a questionnaire, and the concepts were further investigated using in-depth interviews. The concepts identified became variables, “attributes on which...individuals differ”

p. 4.

3.2.4 Selection of Respondents

The next stage involves choosing respondents. It was decided that respondents would come from NHS and from retail management backgrounds. The main problem was getting the organisations and subjects to agree to take part. Because of restrictions

imposed by the organisations and the lack of information regarding the precise make-up of the management staff, it was difficult to assess whether the sample gained was representative of the management staff in the organisation.

3.2.5 Questionnaire/Interview Design

The questionnaire was designed to gain information on all the variables under investigation. The interview was designed to find out more about the organisation and individuals' experiences in it, and to discover if the questionnaire responses were borne out in the interviews.

3.2.6 Data Collection

The next stage of the research model depicted in figure 3, is data collection. This stage relates to the gathering of information. As mentioned, this took place in the study by means of a postal, self-administered questionnaire, followed by in-depth interviews with a sample of the questionnaire respondents.

3.2.7 Data Analysis

Once the questionnaire data had been gathered they were analysed using the SPSS programme (Statistical Package for Social Scientists). Means and standard deviations were determined. Statistical tests used to investigate the hypotheses were: factor analysis, t-tests, chi-square, regression analysis, correlation coefficient and ANOVA (analysis of variance). The interviews were also analysed to discover similarities and differences between the organisation and individuals in the sample, using framework analysis.

3.2.8 Findings

The findings, or results, were examined to see if they supported part or all of the hypotheses. Whether the results support or indeed reject the hypotheses are equally important, as they can indicate whether the hypotheses need adjusting. This is also the point at which other researchers may be able to use the research as a basis for their own work.

The above model (Bryman and Crammer 1990) is useful, in that one can easily see each research step that should take place in a study.

The next section considers choosing the appropriate research methodology.

3.3 Study Aims and the Selection of Research Methods

The aim of this research is to examine attitudes and perceptions of a sample of managers in relation to PCFD variables, and to examine work-based individual and organisational outcomes of the PCFD model. Measurement of these variables is achieved via attitude scales, using Likert-style scale measures and closed questions. Further examination of the concept of positive climate for diversity was conducted via in-depth interviews. Attitudes may be difficult to determine; therefore attitude scales are often used to measure them in occupational and organisational psychology. Moxnes and DeEilertsen (1991) in their climate research used postal questionnaires, which they distributed through personnel departments. These were then returned directly to the researchers. This approach was also adopted in this particular research study.

The type of research methodology used depends upon the research design, so Easterby-Smith et al (1993) assert. Consideration of aspects of the PCFD model as well as the sample used must be made in order to select the correct methodology. The population under investigation consists of male and female managers at varying managerial levels in four NHS Trusts and five retail company (RC) branches in the north-west of England.

In this research, postal questionnaires and in-depth interviews are used as the research methods. The two different methods are used to gain the 'scope and depth' required in the research. Postal questionnaires and in-depth (focused) interviews both have advantages and disadvantages. By combining them, it is possible to limit the disadvantages of each method and gain the richness of information provided by interviews and the range of information provided by postal questionnaires.

Next, a consideration of postal questionnaires is presented.

3.3.1 Postal Questionnaires

Questionnaires can be administered in a number of ways, including through the post and by interview. The method used varies depending on the nature of the research. In this study, a postal questionnaire was considered to be the most effective method, as it could be sent to a large number of people cheaply and would eliminate interviewer bias. As well as being cost effective, sending a postal questionnaire was also time effective compared to interviewing the same number of respondents. The questionnaire itself was distributed through the personnel departments of the organisations taking part in the research. Then it was returned by freepost to the researcher. Questionnaires could not be sent directly to respondents, as the organisations involved in the research wished to distribute them. This did save the

researcher both time and money, but it meant that the organisations themselves were in control of who received the questionnaire.

Because of the nature of the research, and its attempt to discover attitudes and perceptions, a structured postal questionnaire was used. This gave no opportunities for expressing unsolicited opinions, as questions were fixed in the form of closed and Likert-style scale questions.

Questions were designed to relate to the concepts under investigation.

3.3.1.1 Points Considered during the Designing of the Postal Questionnaire

Obviously, the first consideration when designing a questionnaire is what questions to ask. In this case, as mentioned, attitudes and perceptions are being investigated. Questionnaires must not be too long, or respondents may not answer them, and the questions need to be clear.

It is important to avoid bias through leading questions. The questionnaire was created largely through the use of other researchers' Likert-style scales, which had been tried and tested previously and their reliability established as acceptable.

A letter was included with the questionnaire explaining its purpose, along with an introduction to the questionnaire. The first question is important; it must not be too challenging or personal. Chisnall (1996) argues that sensitive questions should not be placed at the beginning of a questionnaire. He asserts that classification questions of a personal nature, for example concerning gender or age, should be placed at the end. For individuals to be more likely to respond, he suggests that age be categorised in groups, rather than asking for specific age in years. Chisnall (1996) also argues that questions which classify individuals should be carefully considered before inclusion,

as such questions may not be necessary to the research and may affect the number of individuals responding.

Information using postal questionnaires can be obtained relatively quickly and cheaply compared to other methods (e.g. interviews). In all, 540 questionnaires were taken to the organisations being studied. As most organisations were within a 30 mile radius of Liverpool, this produced minimum costs in terms of travel. Only one trip per organisation for delivery purposes was needed.

The postal questionnaires in the first part of this research were used to investigate specific perceptions and attitudes of individual managers. Likert scales enabled a direct comparison between managers. To gather such data, a structured questionnaire is perhaps the best method, and indeed is frequently used by climate researchers (for example Schnieder 1990). However, once such information was gathered, more in-depth information on individuals' attitudes and perceptions was required, as well as confirmation of the picture already obtained. A questionnaire is not able to provide such information, as questions are fixed and follow-up questions cannot be asked in a self-administered postal survey.

Chisnall (1996) suggests that open-ended questions should be limited in postal questionnaires, as they cause confusion to the respondent. They may also lead to a longer completion time, and therefore a lower response rate. Chisnall (1996) mentions that single-sided printing produces a higher level of response than double-sided printing. The PCFD questionnaire was printed on one side only, for this reason.

Chisnall (1996) argues that instructions on how to complete the postal questionnaire and who to return it to must be included; clear layout is also important. Definitions of terms should also be included, if needed. In this research the questionnaires were

printed by the university print room for the researcher, therefore ensuring a good quality end-product.

Chisnall (1996) asserts that “personal interviewing allows investigators to supplement answers given by respondents by some qualitative assessment, which adds to the value of the survey” p. 143. The researcher was able to interview individuals who had received a questionnaire. However, it was not possible to determine which particular questionnaires they had returned, as these were returned anonymously. Research has indicated a need for anonymity to increase the response rate for questions regarding perceptions on areas such as ‘job satisfaction’, (Chisnall 1996). In this research, respondents were not required to give their name if they did not wish to. Chisnall notes that 80% of respondents who were not willing to state their ethnic origin were also unwilling to state their gender. Therefore, if a respondent will not state ethnic origin, it is unlikely they would state their gender. Both gender and ethnicity were required to be stated on the PCFD postal questionnaire by respondents.

Each questionnaire was marked with a coloured spot, to differentiate which organisation it came from.

With regard to non-returned questionnaires, it has been suggested (Chisnall 1996) that a follow-up letter should be sent to chase up respondents who have not replied. However, this was not possible in this study; therefore personnel departments were asked to mention to those chosen as respondents that questionnaires needed returning. In the next section there will be an examination of the advantages of using a postal questionnaire.

3.3.1.2 The Advantages of the Postal Questionnaires

A postal questionnaire was used in this research, as it has many advantages over other data gathering methods. The researcher wished to contact a large number of respondents (540) quickly and cheaply, and have answers to specific standardised questions. Postal questionnaires enable the respondents to answer them in their own time, and at their own convenience. Krausz and Miller (1974) p. 49 argue that postal questionnaires provide “uniform” questions and therefore “variations which appear in responses can be attributed only to real difference in response and not to variation in the way the instrument works”. Using this method means there is no chance of interviewer bias, as no interviewer is present.

Moser and Kalton (1997) p. 303 assert that an advantage of postal questionnaires is that they are “used and...understood unaided”. They save the researcher time, as s/he can send them to respondents. This means the researcher does not have to visit each respondent to gain the information. Therefore, as Sekaran (1974) points out, the costs of research are kept down.

The postal questionnaire has other advantages. Respondents can return them in confidence, so more honest answers can be gained. Having all questions available for perusal by the respondent may also make the questions more sensible and therefore easier to understand, as they can read on to the next question to see how each question fits in.

Another advantage of this method in this research is that by using closed questions and scaled questions, they can be pre-coded. This is very convenient for the researcher, as once the questionnaires were returned they could be input, in this case, straight onto a statistical computer package, SPSS.

3.3.1.3 Disadvantages of Postal Questionnaires

Despite the apparent advantages of postal questionnaires, this methodology does have some disadvantages. For example, individuals may not return them, meaning a higher number of questionnaires has to be sent out compared to the number of personal interviews which could be conducted to gain similar information (Williamson et al 1977). That is, the response rate of postal questionnaires is lower than for other information gathering methods, such as interviews.

Respondents can be unrepresentative of the group to be investigated. In particular, non-respondents may have some common characteristics, such as being busier than respondents. Chisnall (1996) contends that there may be other differences between respondents and non-respondents. For example, respondents and non-respondents may differ in terms of characteristics such as gender or ethnicity. In this research, concerned as it was with PCFD, some individuals may have felt unhappy about completing the questionnaire. For example, men may not have been happy with answering it, because it was concerned with such issues as the organisation's treatment of women. Another potential disadvantage is the possibility of a different person responding to the questionnaire. That is, it is not possible to guarantee that the person sent the questionnaire is the individual who has completed it.

Finally, responses can be more fully probed by an interviewer during an interview than is possible with a postal questionnaire. Indeed, questions can be explained or clarified by an interviewer if a respondent is unsure of what is being asked. This cannot happen with postal questionnaires, as they are self-administered, and no

interviewer is present to advise on questions. Instructions on the questionnaire therefore need to be straightforward and concise and a clear route through it is needed.

3.4 Questionnaire Design

In the development of the questionnaire instrument to be used to determine PCFD and its constituent outcomes, other authors' questionnaires and scales were examined and used. Particular elements of the PCFD model related well to different authors' scale design, for example Blau (1985) and others (See Appendix for questionnaire). The aim of the questionnaire was to measure the variables contained within the PCFD model and relate these to predicted outcomes of the model. It is also hoped that such a questionnaire will have a practical use, and can be used in future by other researchers and practitioners. The retail company which took part in the research is hoping to use it as a basis for further work in other areas of the country.

Krausz and Miller (1974) state that this type of research, where variables in the hypothesis are measured, is called correlational research design. They argue that questionnaires are the usual methodology for this type of research, therefore supporting a questionnaire being used in this particular study.

3.4.1 Questionnaire Scales

Likert-style measurement scales were used in the postal questionnaire. Krausz and Miller (1974) argue that the reliability of the questionnaire instrument can be enhanced by the use of measurement scales for attitudinal type questions. Individual questionnaire scales have been measured using Cronbach's alpha, a measure of reliability. Reliability relates to whether a particular scale is consistent in its measurement. Validity is also important in questionnaire scales. However, this

research is particularly concerned with attitudes and perceptions, which are difficult to prove valid as they relate to an individual's own views and cannot be validated through the use of outside checks. The questionnaire also has to show face-validity to all those who answered it; that is to managers in the NHS and those employed in the retail company (RC). It was felt that this questionnaire had face validity as it was piloted and seen as valid by those respondents replying to it during the pilot studies.

Within the questionnaire, scales include reversed questions which break up a line of questions in which respondents might be tempted to put the same score. Therefore, by reversing questions, individuals have to think more about the questions to which they are replying. Certain demographic questions, such as age, managerial level, gender, and ethnicity are closed questions, as it would be impossible and unnecessary to scale such questions.

As mentioned above, Likert scales are used. With this type of scale, statements are written on the questionnaire, and respondents are given the opportunity to express the strength of their feeling towards that statement. In Likert scales, generally speaking, categories of three, five or seven are used. Categories of five normally comprise: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree. Categories of seven add to the extreme ends of the scale, with very strongly agree and very strongly disagree. Categories of three generally consist of agree, neutral and disagree. Both too extreme and neutral statements may weaken the effectiveness of Likert scales. Therefore statements need to be chosen carefully.

By using Likert scales, it is possible to gain a higher level of reliability with the same or a lower number of statement or items compared with other scaling methods, such as the Thurstone scaling method (Moser and Kalton 1997).

Moser and Kalton (1997) point out that asking for respondents' opinions in a questionnaire is more problematic than just asking factual questions. In factual questions, they argue, either a person is for example male or female, has children or does not, etc., so that a correct answer exists. This does not mean, however, that they will necessarily answer truthfully. Potential problems with questions of attitude and opinion include covering an area which the respondent has not thought about before. Therefore, they may have no real attitude or opinion on the questions at all. The circumstances of a particular situation the respondent is asked to consider are also important. In one circumstance they may have one opinion; in another a different opinion. Therefore, the wording of questions is very important.

Moser and Kalton (1997) argue that after "a list of 90 items the respondent can expect to experience fatigue" p. 347. Therefore, it was felt important to ensure that this did not occur with the PCFD questionnaire, and 66 items were included in it.

Scales are useful as they identify different components of a concept. Moser and Kalton (1997) p. 350 argue that scales "try to combine the answers a respondent gives to the various questions into a measurement of the extremity and intensity of his overall attitude". In other words, by using attitudes scales one can measure respondents' attitudes.

3.4.1.1 Choosing the Questionnaire Scales

The questionnaire consisted of closed questions and Likert-style scale questions. The questions were based on the literature, including Alimo-Metcalfe (1993) on the importance of particular policies and procedures in an organisation for individuals. For example, for women with children it may be that childcare provision is important;

for ethnic minorities it may be that having seen a copy of an equal opportunities policy and had the chance to read it is important. Such policies and procedures, it could be argued, create the environment or climate in an organisation, which the research wished to assess.

Likert-style scales were chosen to be included in the questionnaire to discover the perceptions and attitudes of individuals. It was felt that the literature demonstrated that particular organisational and individual outcomes could be linked with policies and procedures within the organisation. Particular authors' scales were used, as they have been used many times before, have validity and reliability, and measure the elements with which this research is concerned. Where it was felt that no available scale was able to accurately measure the elements required, a questionnaire scale was created especially for this research. Previously published scales were deemed suitable for the following: career commitment (Blau 1985), career planning (Gould 1979), career future satisfaction (Scarpello and Campbell 1983), job satisfaction (Camman et al 1979,) and organisational commitment (Cook and Wall 1980). These were all much used and well tested measures, seen to be accurate and effective at measuring the elements they were attempting to assess.

As mentioned above, it was decided that established scales would be used where possible within the questionnaire, as their validity and reliability were already determined (e.g. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was at an acceptable level), and they had been successfully used by other researchers. They had been used in studies which were investigating similar elements to this research. The scales that were taken from other authors were chosen for a combination of reasons. These included appropriateness for the study, ease of use and common usage. The choice of scales was verified by factor analysis (see chapter 4 for further details). Where no adequate

measure was available, new scales were created, such as satisfaction with manager and career satisfaction.

3.4.2 The Questionnaire Structure

The questionnaire was designed after much consideration of its final aims. The research aims were to investigate PCFD and its outcomes. Attitudes and perceptions are measured. For the full version of the questionnaire, see Appendix A.

Reliability and validity statistics, where published, are shown below.

The final questionnaire is divided into sections. These are arranged as follows:-

3.4.2.1 Section One,

Policies and Procedures of the organisation. In this section, closed questions are asked with reference to the equal opportunity policies and procedures within the organisation. These questions were based on work by Alimo-Metcalfe (1993), amongst others.

The questions were as follows:-

1. Does this organisation have an Equal Opportunities Policy?

2. Have you seen a copy of the Equal Opportunities Policy?

3. Does your organisation have a mentoring system in practice?

(e.g. senior colleague either in the organisation or outside it who gives guidance and advice to junior member of staff on how to do their job effectively).

4. Does this organisation provide flexible working hours agreements for staff? (*e.g. an agreement whereby staff can arrange the hours they work, so long as they are in work for a core period defined by the organisation and make up the hours*).
5. Does your organisation provide child care facilities, e.g. a crèche, nursery or out of hours group for staff's children or holiday play scheme, at work?
6. Does your organisation provide child care vouchers to help employees toward the cost of child care?
7. Does your organisation provide career breaks (*i.e. opportunities for people to take time off work, usually unpaid, in order to raise children or take further qualifications, and be able to come back to their old job or a job of a similar grade*)?

These questions were designed to discover information about respondents and their knowledge of policies and procedures in the organisation. With hindsight, Question 2, asking respondents if they have seen a copy of the equal opportunities policy is not completely clear. It was meant to assess if individuals had read a copy of the equal opportunities policy document in the organisation and had understood it.

Further discussion of how individuals had experienced these policies took place when the interviews were conducted.

3.4.2.2 Section Two

Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment was measured using a 9 item, 7 point Likert-style scale, drawn from Cook and Wall's (1981) work on organisational commitment. Clegg and Wall (1981) used a reduced version of Cook and Wall's (1980) organisational commitment scale, adjusted to be relevant to both managerial and non-managerial staff. They administered this scale to both male and female staff working in a northern factory. They found that organisational commitment was higher at management levels than at other employee levels. However, it was felt that the longer 9 item scale by Cook and Wall provided more useful information on which to conduct analysis.

Cook and Wall (1980) perceive organisational commitment in terms of 3 related areas: a) identification, seen as organisational pride and internalising the norms and goals of the organisation b) involvement, seen as the individual wishing to put effort into the organisation for its benefit and c) loyalty, seen as a fondness for the organisation and a willingness to stay part of the organisation.

Two studies were conducted by Cook and Wall using this scale. An alpha coefficient of 0.87 was achieved for study 1, with a mean score of 44.64 and standard deviation of 11.45. In study 2 they achieved an alpha coefficient of 0.80, with a mean score of 45.37 and a standard deviation of 9.55. They point out that the mean scores are higher than the scale mid-point. The scale shows test-retest reliability. They state that organisational commitment scale is "psychometrically adequate, stable and reliable" p45. This information is gained from the test-retest that Cook and Wall (1980) conducted on the scale.

The mean values for the sub-scales mentioned above were recorded as a) identification study 1, 15.04 (sd 4.36), study 2, 15.77 (sd 4.00) b) involvement study

1, 16.99 (sd 3.11) study 2, 16.58 (sd 3.08) c) loyalty study 1, 12.63 (sd 5.5) study 2, 12.99 (sd 4.47).

The organisational commitment scale was shown not to correlate to age (0.26), length of service (0.22) and size of firm (0.08). However, it was correlated with interpersonal/trust (0.56), overall job satisfaction (0.62), intrinsic motivation (0.45) and work involvement (0.39).

Therefore, this scale was deemed appropriate to use in the research, as it had been tested on British managerial staff by Clegg and Wall (1981) and had an acceptable alpha score.

The nine items or statements are as follows:-

1. I am quite proud to tell people who it is I work for.
2. I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good.
3. I'm not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation.
4. Even if the organisation was not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer.
5. I feel myself to be a part of the organisation.
6. In my work I like to feel I am making some effort not just for myself but for the organisation as well.

7. The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job.

8. I would not recommend to a close friend that they join our staff.

9. To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of the organisation would please me.

This measure indicates how committed an individual is to the organisation s/he works for.

Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction was measured using a 4 item, 7 point Likert-style scale, drawn from Camman et al. (1979), plus an extra item (number 4). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for Camman et al's scale is 0.77, a level deemed as acceptable level for use in this research. The scale was shown to correlate with a) job involvement (0.35) and b) intention to turnover (- 0.58). Tzmer and Falbe (1991) also used similar questions in their research on job satisfaction. This measure is concerned with how satisfied individuals are with their current job. Job satisfaction, it is argued, leads to individuals working hard within their current job, and also to less absenteeism.

The four statements are as follows;

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.

2. In general, I do not like my job.

3. In general, I like working here.

4. In general, my job is stimulating

Satisfaction with Manager

Satisfaction with manager was measured using a 2 item, 7 point Likert-style scale, based on the work of Iles and Hicks-Clarke (1995). No previously published scales were found to use in this study; therefore the scale was created especially for this work. Further statistics on this scale can be found in chapter 4. Satisfaction with one's manager is viewed as an important measure, as it indicates firstly, how the manager may be performing, and secondly it relates to the overall satisfaction of the employee and his or her willingness to work for the manager. Dissatisfaction with the manager can lead to lack of co-operation and communication breakdown, which can in turn affect performance of employees and their supervisors.

The two items are as follows;

1. My current boss performs his or her job well.

2. I am happy with the way my current boss manages me.

Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction was measured using a 3 item, 7 point Likert-style scale, from the work of Iles and Hicks-Clarke (1995). Dinham and Scott (1997) argue that career satisfaction is "a dynamic construct which equates to how an individual feels about his or her job" p363. A 7 point scale was used so a direct comparison with career future

satisfaction could be used. As with satisfaction with manager, it was felt that this particular scale was most suited to this research. It indicates the current satisfaction that individuals feel about their career and how it has progressed to date. It is argued that career satisfaction affects whether employees continue to stay in an organisation and in a particular industrial sector. The scale was designed especially for this research, instead of using other scales, as it was felt that this scale was most appropriate for the study.

1. I have achieved a lot for myself in this organisation so far.

2. Working in this organisation is helpful to my career.

3. I receive all the training I require to do my job effectively.

Career Future Satisfaction

Career future satisfaction was measured using a 3 item, 7 point Likert-style scale, from the work of Smith (1976), Scarpello and Campbell (1983) and Iles (1986). This indicates how individuals may feel about their possible progress within their career in the future, as well as whether an individual is likely to stay in their current career or not.

The alpha coefficient for this scale is given as 0.77. For further statistical analysis on this scale for this study, see chapter 4.

1. I feel very happy about my future with this organisation.

2. The way my future with the organisation looks to me now, hard work does not seem very worthwhile.

3. I feel I'm making progress in getting ahead in this organisation.

3.4.2.3 Section Three

Career Planning

Career planning was measured using a 6 item, 6 point Likert-style scale, taken from Gould's (1979) work on career planning. Gould used a 6 point scale, as it meant that respondents could not use the neutral answer, and therefore would have to make a positive or negative choice. It can be argued that when given the option of a neutral score, respondents often chose it in order not to express their true opinions on a particular subject. In this scale, respondents had to agree or disagree with the statements. This research used the same scale as the original work to ensure comparability. Cronbach's coefficient alpha is given as 0.80, with a mean of 25.53 and standard deviation of 4.30. Gould's career planning scale was found to be related to the following: a) salary ($r = 0.19$) b) career involvement ($r = 0.49$), c) identity resolution ($r = 0.43$) and adaptability ($r = 0.25$). However, it had no relationship with the following: gender, formal education, career stage or tenure.

It is argued that individuals who plan their career are more likely to progress further and at a faster rate than those who do not. This measure was used to see if individuals did plan their careers, how often they changed their plans, whether their plans were clear, and if individuals had a means of achieving their career goals.

1. I have not really decided what my career objectives should be.

2. I have a plan for my career.

3. I have a strategy for achieving my career goals.

4. I know what I need to do to reach my career goals.

5. My career objectives are not clear.

6. I change my career objectives frequently.

3.4.2.4 Section Four

Organisational Justice

Organisational justice was measured using an 8 item, 5 point Likert-style scale, drawn from the work of Iles and Hicks-Clarke (1995). A 5-point scale was used in this case, as it was felt that such a scale would measure all the responses accurately and would provide all the information required from the respondents.

Organisational justice relates to how fair individuals feel the treatment that they and other employees receive. If organisational justice is low, then individuals begin to believe that they are not being treated fairly, and this in turn can lead to employees leaving the organisation, or not performing their job effectively. Organisational justice is important in terms of equal opportunities, and how fairly employees see

themselves and others as treated. This scale was created especially for this research, as no other research was thought to have produced an appropriate scale for measuring organisational justice. Therefore, as it has not been used before in other research, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was determined, and can be found in chapter 4.

1. Getting on in this organisation is based on how well you can perform in the job.
2. This organisation appraises job performance in a consistent manner.
3. This organisation provides timely and informative feedback on pay, performance and promotion decisions.
4. This organisation is open and honest about the decisions it takes regarding employees.
5. Employees are treated with courtesy and respect in this organisation.
6. Two-way communication between employees and the organisation is a characteristic of this organisation.
7. Employees are given opportunities to challenge and review decisions taken about them in this organisation.
8. The procedures used in his organisation are helpful to all employees.

Career Commitment

Career commitment was measured using an 8 item, 5 point Likert-style scale, which was based on Blau's (1985) career commitment scale and adjusted as necessary for these particular industrial sectors. Blau conducted research using this scale on registered nursing staff, having based his scale on studies of occupational commitment, career orientation and professional commitment. Particular questions were adjusted for this research (see chapter 5 for Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this research); for example when 'nursing' was used in his questions, it was changed to 'my career field'. This change was made so that the essence of the question could be retained, whilst adapting it for relevance to respondents. Career commitment is concerned with how committed an individual is to their particular career; in this case how committed they are to working in the NHS or retailing industry.

Blau (1985) found, using factor analysis, that the concept of career commitment was "operationally" (p. 284) different to organisational commitment, which is measured separately in this research.

Blau used the organisational commitment scale in his 1985 research and obtained a coefficient alpha score of 0.87, mean 28.5 and sd 6.5 in study 1 and coefficient alpha score of 0.85, mean 29 and sd of 6.2 in study 2. He conducted two studies using the same scale and found correlations with the following: a) career withdrawal cognitions ($r = -0.41$) b) tenure (study 1, $r = 0.26$ /study 2, 0.19) c) marital status (study 1 $r = -0.18$ /study 2, -0.17) d) growth need strength (study 1 $r = 0.16$ /study 2, $r = 0.16$) e) internal locus of control (study 1, $r = -0.19$ /study 2 -0.16) f) role ambiguity (study 1 $r = -0.38$ /study 2 -0.21) g) supervisor initiating structure (study 1 $r = 0.25$ / study 2 $r = 0.19$) h) job involvement (study 1 $r = 0.21$ /study 2 $r = 0.20$) I) organisational commitment (study 1 $r = 0.18$ / study 2 $r = 0.18$).

This scale has been successful used by other researchers, such as Blau (1988, 1989) and Morrow (1993). Therefore, this scale was felt to be appropriate to use in the research. The scale is shown below.

1. If I could get another job in an area outside my career field and paying the same amount, I would probably take it.

2. I definitely want a career for myself in this career field.

3. If I could do it all over again, I would not choose to work in this field.

4. If I had all the money I needed without working, I would probably still continue to work in this field.

5. I like this career too much to give it up.

6. This is the ideal career for a life's work.

7. I am disappointed that I ever entered this field.

8. I spend a significant amount of personal time reading career-related journals or books.

Need for Diversity

Need for Diversity was measured using a 5 item, 5 point Likert-style scale, based on Kossek and Zonia's (1993) 'value efforts to promote diversity' scale (adjusted for this research). Cronbach's alpha coefficient score for the original scale is 0.90. Mean values are presented by Kossek and Zonia for ethnic minorities (4.65), whites (3.74), men (4.05) and women (4.35). The scale is used to measure managers' attitudes and perceptions towards the need for diversity in their organisation. This scale was used in the original research on academics in an American university. It was felt that the reliability statistics were good enough, and the original respondents close enough to managers, to use in this research.

1. If this organisation is to remain a high performance organisation, it must recruit and retain more ethnic minority employees.
2. If this organisation is to remain a high performance organisation, it must recruit and retain more women employees.
3. If this organisation is to remain a high performance organisation, it must recruit and retain more employees with disabilities.
4. Increasing the number of women in the organisation is important if the organisation is to promote greater understanding and co-operation between men and women.
5. Increasing the number of ethnic minority employees is an important way to achieve multi-cultural understanding and co-operation.

3.4.2.5 Section Five

Support for Diversity

Support for diversity was measured using a 5 item, 3 point Likert-style scale, based on Kossek and Zonia's (1993) 'equality of department support of racioethnic minorities' and 'equality of department support of women' scales (adjusted for this research). It is used to measure managers' attitudes and perceptions towards support for diversity in their organisation. As with the above scale, it was felt that this would be useful to include in the questionnaire. Its reliability was an acceptable level, with Cronbach's coefficient alpha score of 0.72, (for support for ethnic minorities) and 0.74 (for support for women). Mean scores are given for the following; equality of support for racioethnic minorities, ethnic minorities 1.78, whites 2.08, men 2.08, women 1.97, ethnic minority women 1.57, white women 2.02, ethnic minority men 1.88 and white men 2.13, showing that white men were most likely to believe that the organisation supports ethnic minorities. In terms of support for women, the mean scores were as follows; ethnic minorities 1.82, whites 1.91, men 2.05 and women 1.72. Interestingly, once again men tended to believe that women were supported in the organisation more than women or ethnic minorities did.

The scale was as follows:-

1	2	3
less chance	the same chance	a better chance

1. Compared to men, women have _____ chance of receiving management support to help them perform their job effectively.
2. Compared to non-ethnic minority employees, ethnic minority employees have _____ chance of reaching management positions, in this organisation.
3. Compared to non-ethnic minority employees, ethnic minority employees have _____ chance of receiving salary increases through performance bonuses.
4. Compared to male employees, women have _____ chance of reaching management positions in this organisation.
5. Compared to male employees, women have _____ chance of receiving salary increases through performance bonuses.

3.4.2.6 Section Six

Demographic Details

Demographic details are measured with closed questions. Kossek and Zonia (1993) in their research used demographic details to relate individual classifications to respondents' attitudes and perceptions. The ethnicity categories were based on the categories used in the UK census.

1. Are you male ___ or female ___

2. How old are you?

Under 21__ 21-30__ 31-40__ 41-50__ 51-60__ Over 60__.

3. Which of these categories best describes your ethnicity?

White __ Black:-Caribbean __ Black:-African __ Black:-Other __ Indian __
Pakistani __ Bangladeshi __ Chinese __ Other(*please specify*)__

4. Are you married or living with a partner?

5. Do you have any childcare or other domestic care responsibilities?

6. Are you:-

Not disabled __ Registered disabled __ Disabled but not registered __

7. At which level of management would you describe yourself?

Junior (managing other staff)__ Middle (managing other managers) __

Senior (reporting to or on the board) __

8. Do you work full-time in your current job?

Yes __ No __

3.4.3 The Order of the Questionnaire

The reason for putting the closed questions and scales in this particular order was to make the questionnaire easier for the respondents to complete. Section One consisted of closed questions. Section Two contained all statements with 7-point Likert-style measuring scales. Section Three contained statements which required a 6-point

Likert-style measuring scale. Section Four had a 5-point scale. Section Five used a 3-point scale. The final part of the questionnaire, Section six, contained closed questions on the respondents' demographics. As mentioned earlier, it is often suggested that such questions of a personal nature, that individuals may be unwilling to answer, should be placed at the end of the questionnaire.

Once the questionnaire had been designed, then pre-testing and piloting could take place. The following section explains this process.

3.4.4 The Pre-test

The questionnaire instrument was designed to investigate the PCFD model and the hypotheses that were extrapolated from it. Once the initial questionnaire had been drafted, a pre-test was conducted by distributing the questionnaire to 7 staff and research students at Liverpool John Moores University Business School with experience in questionnaire design. They answered the questions and returned the questionnaire with comments. The questions and their order were adjusted in the light of these comments, and the questionnaire was then ready to pilot.

3.4.5 The Pilot Study

The pilot study was conducted for a number of reasons. Firstly, to ascertain if there were any problematic questions which needed clarifying. Secondly, to ensure that the questions asked gathered the information required for the research. Thirdly, to discover how long respondents took to complete the questionnaire and ascertain what its correct length should be in order to gain all the information required for the research. It was also important that the questionnaire flowed logically, was easy to understand, and inviting enough for managers to want to complete and return it.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, Kossek and Zonia (1993) examined the climate of diversity in a US university. It was felt that their research was a very useful starting point for examining PCFD in the NHS. Therefore the pilot study was conducted in 2 NHS organisations, both in the north-west of England. Trusts are the type of organisation in which Maddock and Parkin (1993) argued that the Smart Macho culture existed. For this reason, one of the organisations chosen was an NHS Trust. Organisation 'A' had become a Trust a few years before the research took place. It was quite a large organisation, incorporating several hospitals. The pilot research was conducted in one unit of one of the hospitals, a large general hospital. Organisation 'B' was a Directly Managed Unit still controlled by the local Health Authority. The two organisations were approximately 150 miles apart. They both served the needs of the local community. It was felt that the organisations differed enough to provide some useful comments on the questionnaire.

Each organisation was sent 15 questionnaires. The questionnaires were posted to the human resources (HR) manager of the sample organisations. The HR manager then chose who to distribute them to, without further reference to the researcher. However, the HR manager was aware that the research required a range of managerial levels and demographics. An explanatory letter was included, asking managers to make comments on any questions which they thought needed clarifying or questions they would not answer. Managers were also asked to comment on the total length of the questionnaire. Comments were also elicited on how to improve it overall. The managers who took part ranged from Junior (defined as managing other staff) to Middle (managing other managers) to Senior (reporting to the board). In all, 14 questionnaires were returned, eight from Organisation A and six from Organisation B, a response rate of 46.6%.

3.4.6 Widening the Study to Include a Retail Organisation

Initially, as discussed above, Trusts and Non-Trust NHS organisations in the north-west (NW) were sought. However, after the organisational pilot had been completed, the non-Trust NHS organisation (B) became part of a Trust and was unwilling to continue in the study. At this point, consideration and reflection took place. It was then decided that for the study to progress, and differences that climates presented in Trusts to be fully explored, it was important for an organisation other than NHS Trusts to be included. When the study was first conceived, it was felt that, by considering climate and MD initiatives in those organisations, it was possible to see if the new Trust system had led to a distinctly different environment surrounding diversity in management, as Maddock and Parkin (1993) had suggested. Once the only available non-Trust organisation in the NW willing to take part in the study became part of a trust, the transformation to Trust status of the vast majority of NHS hospital and other institutions had taken place. There was at this time much talk in the media and academic press (see Maddock and Parkin, 1993, for example) of the requirements for NHS Trusts to run like commercial, non-governmental organisations. In particular, it seemed healthcare was to become an internal market where the customer (patient) was king. This led the researcher to think of other types of organisation that it seemed the Trusts were attempting to emulate. With terms such as 'market' being bandied around, and the thought of the patient as a customer choosing which organisation to visit (via his or her GP), it seemed as if the Trusts were becoming more like large retail shops, offering different services to the customer who was free to shop elsewhere if s/he chose. When comparing the NHS self-governing Trusts with larger

retail organisations, the first question which sprung to mind was, “Is this the way Trusts are going, and if so, what are the implications for diversity climate in Trusts?” It seemed helpful then to seek out a retail organisation which appeared to represent to many people, a fair and just employer, as well as one that was very commercially successful. Consequently, a large retail organisation was also selected in which to conduct research. Both the NHS and retail are service organisations, employing large numbers of women; and both are sectors where business benefits of diversity arguments might seem persuasive. In addition, the NHS Trusts and the retail company had, at least in their own eyes, reasonably well-developed EO policies.

3.4.7 Pilot Number Two

Once the initial pilot had taken place, and comments provided by the pilot sample managers had been incorporated, the amended questionnaire was distributed to 11 members of the Liverpool John Moores University Business School staff and research students for their feedback. Also, at this time, the amended questionnaire was presented to the NHS Trust 1 Chief Executive for her completion, perusal and comments. Following on from this, it was decided to clarify and adjust the wording of some questions. A change of questionnaire title was required, so that individual managers in both the NHS and retail industry would be more likely to respond to it.

3.4.8 Choosing the Postal Questionnaire Sample

Various sampling techniques were available to the researcher. It was considered important that the appropriate method chosen ensured the sample was representative of the whole population under investigation. So, in this study, a random stratified sampling method was deemed appropriate. This was selected as the research

concerned the attitudes and perceptions of various grades of management, taking into account gender, ethnicity, disability, age, domestic care responsibilities and work hours. Using stratified sampling meant that all of these groups could be represented in their appropriate proportions.

However, a major hurdle was encountered at this point, as the organisations did not categorise their management staff under the variables that were to be investigated. Information on ethnicity, gender, managerial level, disability, work hours, domestic care responsibilities and age was not categorised in any usable form. So it was not possible to stratify the population along those lines. In discussions with the organisations, it became clear that they were not willing to undertake the large amount of work required to provide the information in the form requested. One organisation (Trust 4) did provide some information on their employees; however it was on the whole workforce, and could not be broken down into managerial and non-managerial staff. Therefore, unfortunately it could not be used in devising a stratified random sample.

After lengthy discussions with the organisations involved, and reflection on the part of the researcher, it was agreed that 540 postal questionnaires would be distributed to the organisations. They, for their part, would issue them to staff, taking into account the stratification that was required by the research. Thus, an organisationally selected stratified sample was obtained.

Once the questionnaires had been distributed, there was very little that could be done to trace them, as at that time the organisations were not prepared to provide a list of individuals who received them. However, it was agreed that, on the back of the questionnaire, space would be included inviting individuals to provide their details with a view to taking part in later interviews.

3.4.8.1 Limitations of the Sample

As can be seen from the above, the preferred sampling method could not be used, due to restrictions imposed by the organisations involved. This highlights possible conflict of interest between the needs of the academic researcher and the concerns of the organisation about the added workload associated with being involved in an academic study, despite any benefits the organisation may gain from the study.

If similar research was to be repeated, then considerable emphasis should be given to the sample extraction. This could be done by ensuring at an early stage that the organisations under consideration do maintain data in the detail required for the research. An agreement should also be elicited to have access to this information. By its very nature, the research would require delicate handling, since personal details as well as attitudes and opinions were being sought. Therefore, it is perhaps understandable that organisations were not willing to provide the researcher with all of the information requested. Furthermore, requirements for the organisations to keep such information confidential may have hindered the research. Despite the organisations being given a report on the confidential findings, it seemed that they viewed the study as being of a sensitive nature. They were made aware that the research intended to investigate other NHS Trusts and branches of the retail organisation, and may have considered that a comparison would be drawn between each organisation. Therefore, it is possible to argue that they were not willing to be seen in a 'bad light' when compared with other organisations, despite organisations being identified in the thesis as numbers (and not their real names), and despite organisations not receiving information on any other organisation.

It was clear in some organisations, for example Trust 1, that the image of the organisation was very much bound up with the Chief Executive's image, and although

Trusts were interested in the research and wished to see a report of the views of their managers, they did not want any managers to ‘discredit’ the organisation or the Chief Executive’s image. It may be that the researcher began the research rather naively, expecting that all the organisations would be open and want the best for all members of their staff and potential staff. The issue of image and public face was not fully appreciated; nor was the possible legal aspect of keeping private information on staff confidential. If managers were to get access to information regarding diversity in their organisation, they may have used it to press for more diversity initiatives, which could cost the organisation money, and also cause some unrest. The business case for diversity, although popular in theory, may not be so popular in practice with organisations who may not have yet related the benefits of diversity to positive (and often financial) outcomes.

The diversity initiatives that are in place in the study organisations, (and helping to create a positive climate for diversity) may be seen as a by-product of the organisations’ policies, created in different times: in the case of the NHS, perhaps when it was not under market conditions. In the case of the RC, perhaps when it could afford to instigate such policies, almost with a ‘social conscience’. An equal opportunities perspective may have seen such policies as expensive, and not as having a direct benefit to the organisation.

3.4.9 The Sample Organisations

The original sample was selected by contacting all NHS Trusts within a geographical area to see if they would participate in the research. Four Trusts of different types of backgrounds and areas were identified, and they agreed to participate.

With regard to the retail company (RC), after initial discussion with the north-west regional co-ordinator for equal opportunities, and an explanation of the requirements of the research, she wrote enclosing a description of the research to stores in the areas. Five agreed to be involved in the research. Two were unable to commence research, and two more stores were sought and found in the area.

The samples are not representative of all trusts in the north-west, nor all of the particular RC's stores in the north-west. Rather they represent only the samples within them.

Managers are used in the sample, as it has been argued that they are the ones who influence climate in an organisation (e.g. Moxnes and DeEilertsen 1991). As diversity in management has traditionally been low, it was felt that management was the appropriate group to use.

The research sample consisted of four NHS Trusts based in the north-west and five branches of a retail company (RC) based in the north-west. The sample consisted of managers at three levels: junior, middle and senior. To be able to standardise the categorisation of managers between different organisations, a definition of each category of manager was given, as mentioned above. However, the senior manager category was now to include not only managers reporting to the board but also those on the board, as the sample in Trust 1 comprised board members only.

A range of type of NHS Trust was sought, in order to include different types of climate. The sample group was based in one area, which affected the type of individuals using the Trusts' services and type of function the Trusts provided. A similar view was taken with the retail stores' sample. Although five stores were involved in the research, the sample, in terms of individuals within the organisation able to respond, is lower than the NHS Trusts. Two of the original stores in the

sample had to be excluded, due to circumstances beyond the researcher's or organisation's control. These were parent and child stores, both in the same area; one in the city centre and the other in a particular district of the city. The management team of the child store was responsible to the manager of the parent store. These stores were replaced with other parent and child branches which could be involved in the research.

The RC stores sample comprises: a large branch which was quite new and based on a retail park and thought of as a flag ship store (Retail Branch 5); a parent store in an economically deprived city centre (Retail Branch 8); and its child store (Retail Branch 9) in an even more economically deprived area of the city. A fourth store, (Retail Branch 7) is based in a seaside town which has a large number of retired individuals living there. It is also a relatively affluent area. The fifth store (Retail Branch 6) is based in a working town in the north-west. In this research, the parent and child stores are largely analysed as one branch.

3.4.10 The NHS Trusts Sample

One NHS Trust (Trust 2) included in the sample is based in an affluent seaside town with a high percentage of retired people living in it; the same town as RC Branch 7. Another (Trust 3) is a hospital serving an economically deprived city, used as a training base for doctors (RC Branches 8 and 9 were based in this city). A fourth (Trust 4) is based in the same city, but is a community Trust. Finally, a small sample (board members only) has been obtained from a hospital Trust based in an affluent town in the North West (Trust 1).

The original research concern had been to use as a sample as many managers in the organisation as possible. This came with particular caveats; the sample was to include

women and men at all levels of management quoted above; also individuals who had disabilities; and managers of ethnic minority backgrounds. Due to the limiting nature of access to the NHS organisations, the HR managers distributed the questionnaires to all interested managers, with the above caveats in mind. However, in one organisation, due to organisational changes, the Chief Executive was not able to allow the questionnaire to be sent to all managers, and therefore agreed it could be distributed to all board members only (Trust 1). A further problem became obvious once the questionnaires were returned. Very few of the sample managers were from ethnic minority backgrounds, or had disabilities. On speaking to HR managers in the organisations, they confirmed that few of the managers in the organisations, in particular at higher levels, came from ethnic minority backgrounds, or had disabilities. Therefore, statistical assessment of these groups is not possible.

3.4.11 Returned Questionnaires

Five hundred and forty questionnaires were sent out, and 272 were returned, a response rate of 50.3%. Questionnaires were returned via a freepost envelope direct to the researcher, ensuring that the information was treated as confidential. Names were not required to be added, except if individuals wished to be interviewed; then a contact telephone number was also required. As this approach did not provide enough individuals to interview, the organisations were asked to provide a list of managers who received the questionnaires. Largely they were unable to do this, so they were asked to provide names and contact numbers of interested managers who fell into the quota categories required and had received a questionnaire. One limitation of the research in general was its lack of response from individuals from ethnic minority backgrounds and from disabled managers, as mentioned above. Perhaps response rates may have been increased from individuals from diverse backgrounds if they had

been aware that the research was related to diversity. This may also have affected the number of men who responded. Men may have been less willing to reply had they been fully aware that the research related to diversity. A further limitation was the lack of control the researcher had over choosing the research sample.

All organisations were provided with a report on their particular organisation at the end of the research. This encouraged some organisations to participate in the research, particularly in the retail organisation, which also wished to conduct further research using the report and climate questionnaire as a basis.

Completed questionnaires were returned over a number of months, and as each was received, it was input into the computer package SPSS for statistical analysis.

3.4.12 Data Analysis of Postal Questionnaires

As mentioned above, statistical analysis was conducted on the resulting statistics. Frequency analysis was used to ascertain the frequencies of certain occurrences in the data.

To test the reliability of ordinal scales within the questionnaire, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was used.

Factor analysis was conducted on the various scales in order to "determine the dimensions" of the scales (SPSS help section).

Descriptive statistics, in the form of the mean responses, were obtained for each scale with reference to each organisation, each managerial level, each gender and also each age group, as defined by the questionnaire. Mean scores for each scale were also obtained for the sample as a whole.

Analysis of variance, regression analysis and correlation coefficient analysis were also conducted on the data. These were used to see how the dependent and independent

variables related to one another. Further details of these procedures can be found in Chapter 4.

3.5 The Interview Study

The questionnaire was a useful instrument to use in this research, as it provided much relevant information. However, as mentioned earlier, it does have some weaknesses. For example, it does not gain the richness of information which an interview could gather. Therefore interviews were also conducted, so as to research the PCFD more fully.

Respondents may well have differing depths of knowledge and experience of organisational policies, and this may not be fully expressed in their questionnaire responses. For example, having seen a copy of the equal opportunities policy may mean different things to different respondents. In this research, it is taken that a positive response to the question means that individuals have read and understood the policy. However, it is possible that not all respondents took it to mean this.

When analysing the questionnaire, it became noticeable that some of the questions used could have been more clearly stated; this was despite an extensive pilot study. This shows how difficult it can be to design a completely clear and concise instrument to use in research. In particular, the policy and procedure section of the questionnaire did appear to have some weaknesses, which would need to be rectified in future research. Questions assessed the knowledge level of respondents concerning policies and procedures within their organisations. However, it would have been interesting to discover not only if the respondents knew about the policies and procedures, but also if they had experienced them. These weaknesses were rectified in the interview, where individuals discussed the policies and procedures which related to them and to

others at managerial grades in the organisation. This shows the advantage of using different research methodologies when conducting studies such as this.

As mentioned above, the main research study had two stages: firstly, distribution of the postal questionnaire; and secondly, focused, in-depth interviews.

In-depth interviews were conducted as they can provide useful information and help rectify some of the problems encountered when using postal questionnaire. The advantages and disadvantages of such interviews are discussed below.

3.5.1.1 The Advantages of Interviews

The disadvantages of the postal questionnaire can be limited by using the interview research method in conjunction with the questionnaire. Interviews do have a number of advantages over other research methods. A richer source of information can be gained through interviewing compared to questionnaires. Increased response rates can also be gained through the use of an interview.

Chisnall (1996) p. 162 defines the interview as “a conversation directed to a definite purpose other than satisfaction in the conversation itself”. He draws here on Joyce’s (1963) work.

Chisnall (1996) asserts that there are three particular types of interview. Firstly, the ‘limited response interview’, where the respondent is expected to answer generally fixed questions in a limited manner. This method is too similar to the postal questionnaire to be able to get much extra information by using it as well as such a questionnaire, so it was not used in this research.

In the second type of interview, the ‘free response interview’, the respondent will reply largely to open questions and take a more active role. This is an open and in-

depth approach to interviewing. It was felt that this was the most appropriate method for this research.

The third type is the 'defensive interview', in which respondents are challenged and "expected to defend himself or herself by refusing to be forced into any situation which is not really agreeable" p. 163. This method has been criticised, as it does not create rapport between the interviewer and interviewee. It therefore challenges the traditional wisdom on how to interview people. This third approach was thought to be unacceptable to the researcher in this particular research, as information of a personal nature was required. Therefore, during interviews, attempts were made to build up a rapport. The interviewer (the researcher herself) had been trained in interview techniques, and had much interview experience to draw on.

The in-depth interview which uses an interview guide can be used to ask both factual and attitudinal questions. An interview guide is a list of points on which the interviewers would like to ask the interviewee's views. Such guides are used as pointers, rather than direct questions, and allow for more detailed probing of responses. Krausz and Miller (1974) call this approach a focused interview. They describe the interaction between the interviewer and interviewee as flexible. Merton et al (1956) argue that three levels of structure can be present in a focused interview. Firstly, unstructured questions; secondly, semi-structured questions; and thirdly, structured questions. However, they argue that fully-structured questions should rarely be used in such a method. They contend that the interviewer should have some situational knowledge in order to be able to relate to the subject under discussion.

Chisnall (1996) recommends summarising all information provided by the interviewee during the interview and reading it back to them. This allows the respondent to confirm or change any information gathered. In this research, the use of echoing or

repetition of responses was found to be useful. For example when a respondent said “I like working here”, the interviewer would then say, “You like working here.....?”, with a pause to wait for the respondent to continue with why they like working in the organisation. Summarising as echoing or repetition usually leads to more information being given by the interviewee. It also meant that the respondents felt that the researcher was really listening to them, and understanding what they were saying.

3.5.1.2 Disadvantages of the Interview

It could be argued that most of the disadvantages of interviews are the advantages of the postal questionnaire. The disadvantages of interviews include the amount of time it takes to conduct them, and they tend to be relatively expensive. An important point to note, which Moser and Kalton (1997) p. 270 mention, is that interviews are not conducted in order to “help the informant nor educate him”. A similar theme is picked up by Krausz and Miller (1974), who argue that it is important not to fall into this trap when conducting focused interviews. Unlike postal questionnaires, Krausz and Miller (1974) p. 49 assert, rapport is “required between the interviewer and interviewee” and “subliminal cues” between interviewer and respondent affect the responses and the interviewer’s understanding of those responses. They assert that respondents in interview situations moderate their views to make them ‘socially desirable’.

Usually, it is not possible to interview as many respondents in the time available and with the money available as could be conducted through postal questionnaires.

The gender of the interviewer and interviewee may also affect rapport and the responses given. For example, male respondents may become defensive when asked

certain questions by a female, and vice versa. However, Sheatsley (1951) argues that women make better interviewers than men. The interviewer in this case is female.

Loyalty to the organisation may mean that respondents do not feel they can answer some questions honestly. Linked to this issue is the concern of respondents that the interview may not be confidential, which may affect responses.

In this particular research interviewees were informed that all information would be treated as confidential. They were also advised that a report would be written in which no individual would be identified. This report would be for the chief executive in the NHS Trusts and the regional equal opportunities co-ordinator in the retail organisation.

Moser and Kalton (1997) quote Connel and Kahn in Lindsey and Aronson (1968) p. 271 as stating that there are three requirements for interviewing effectively. Two are “accessibility”, which refers to accessibility of the knowledge required by the interviewer, and “cognition”, which refers to the interviewee realising what s/he needs to provide for the interviewer in terms of information, length and type of answer etc. Finally, the respondent needs to be “motivated” to take part fully in the process, and to be open and honest in his or her responses. By the very nature of an interview involving two people, bias may creep in. Moser and Kalton (1997) contend that this is particularly so if attitudinal questions are part of the interview. The researcher who conducts interviews needs to be aware of this, and attempt to limit it. For example, allowing the individual to be able to speak freely without appearing to make value judgements on what is being said would lead to a truer representation of the interviewee’s attitudes.

An interview guide was used in this research, in order to refer to a list of areas to be covered (see Chapter 5). An interview guide is less rigid than a postal questionnaire, and provides more flexibility to the researcher.

With careful planning and design, the advantages of both postal questionnaires and in-depth interviews can be harnessed and the disadvantages reduced.

Interviewers can affect the answers that respondents give; this is referred to as the interviewer effect. However, this was hopefully kept to a minimum, as the researcher who conducted the interviews was trained in interview techniques and was aware that bias could creep in. Interviewer variance was avoided as only one interviewer (the researcher) conducted interviews.

3.6 Framework Methodology

Literature discussing the actual process of analysing qualitative data seems hard to find. Often, when the actual process of analysis is identified, it is not done so in enough detail to provide other researchers with a clear view of how it took place. This can be a problem when deciding on different and appropriate methods of analysis to use in qualitative research. However, Ritchie and Spencer's (1994) framework approach is clearly laid-out, adaptable for different research studies, rigorous and open. Therefore, analysing the interview data gathered in this study using this method was felt to be most appropriate. This method is particularly useful for the interview data gathered in this research, as it provides a structured way of analysing data via a number of steps through which the researcher progresses. The five stages in this methodology are: familiarisation with the data, identifying a thematic framework, indexing the data, charting the data, and mapping and interpreting the interview data. These are discussed in more detail in the interview results chapter.

3.6.1 The Interview Design

Areas of interest to be discussed were determined prior to the interviews, in accordance with framework methodology. These were set out in the form of prompts, as certain topics were related to the climate for diversity which had been established by the quantitative research. Therefore, it was expected that the areas of interest would relate to climate for diversity. A pilot, using university research students, was conducted; this enabled the prompts to be refined. Unlike other researchers using qualitative data, e.g. Potter and Wetherell (1994), categories of interest through the quantitative research had already been established (see Ritchie and Spencer 1994). A willingness to explore areas which came up in an open manner was extended to this research. Conducting the research this way round, rather than starting with focus groups or interviews to establish areas of concern and interest to the respondents, was borne out of choice, but also necessity in that organisations were largely at first very unwilling for managers to be interviewed. However, once the questionnaire research had been conducted, and the organisations perhaps realised that it was not as daunting a prospect having a researcher involved in the organisation as they thought, they were more willing to let interviews take place. That said, some individuals, following consent by the organisation for the research to ask for details, did complete their details at the end of the questionnaire. This enabled interviews to take place with individuals without having to seek further consent with the organisation.

Another reason why categories were defined before the interviews were conducted was to see if the qualitative data matched the quantitative categories postulated. Individual respondent's opinions were sought on the areas that were used as prompts. The advantage of this was that the interview already had some form of structure, which could be dismissed if necessary. In terms of qualitative research, compared to

researcher such as Okely (1994) in her discussion of researching gypsy lifestyle, it was not possible to spend a long period of time with the managers in the organisations. However, a real attempt was made to create rapport and an open dialogue between the researcher and the interviewee. Despite the situation being artificial, little could be done to make it any more 'real', because of the organisational limitations already discussed. Research is often a case of making the most of what is offered to the research by a situation; in this case the organisations limited access to managers. Because of the limited time and access available to the researcher, a structure which echoed the quantitative questionnaire concepts of climate for diversity was thought appropriate and indeed useful, with the proviso that it would not be seen as rigid or a 'second questionnaire'. Interviewees were free to talk about any areas surrounding diversity, management and, most importantly, their experiences in and opinions of the organisation. The categories, created by the researcher, did serve to make the most of the time available with each interviewee. Although agreeing to take part, managers were willing to give only a limited period of their busy day. To avoid having to overstay a welcome or having to ask to return (which would not have been acceptable to the organisation, or indeed the managers within it being interviewed) these categories served the function of achieving the most information from an interview in the limited period of time.

3.6.1.1 How Data was Ascribed to each Category

Each prompt was related to an area or category of the PCFD model, in terms of the outcomes of the model and also the climate variables (i.e. the scales used to create the PCFD model). This enabled an analysis of the questionnaire and interview data to take place, and comparisons to be drawn. Climate tends to be researched using

quantitative methodology, as discussed earlier in Chapter 2. This method gave both structure and freedom for development of the concepts relating to PCFD. The interview was more of a directed conversation than an interview. Respondents were aware of the area of research interest, and this may well have had some influence on their response, but there is really little way of finding out. Indeed Oakley, (1981) argues that it is very difficult to actively engage with someone in a research situation without influencing them to some degree; that is, the very nature of managers considering areas they had not previously considered may have influenced them. Oakley's (1981) area of research was concerned with childbirth, and it is possible to argue that such a deeply personal area is likely to be more easily influenced by researcher interest than climate for diversity. That said, climate for diversity is also an area of some sensitivity, though of course not quite in the same way as childbirth. Oakley found in her research that when asked 'has the research affected your experience of becoming a mother', 73% of women interviewed felt it had influenced them and led them to "reflect on their experiences more than they would otherwise have done" p. 50. So would this research affect women more than men? It is impossible to say if climate for diversity research would influence women more than men, or vice versa. Perhaps climate for diversity and the issues that surround it would influence individuals differently, regardless of whether they were male or female. Certainly, the organisations seemed concerned that the research, and managers being possibly influenced by it, may have had an unbalancing affect on the members of staff interviewed, more than an 'impersonal' postal questionnaire would have had. Indeed, in Trust 1, the female Chief Executive was so concerned that it might affect morale after a recent spate of redundancies due to re-structuring that she refused to allow any staff to be interviewed, and only the board members to return questionnaires. The

questionnaires she herself insisted on handing out to the board members. Therefore, it is fair to say that organisations themselves were concerned about the potential of this research to unleash views and opinions which managers may not have fully formed in their own minds, or which they may not have felt able or permitted to express until the research (with the organisation's consent) took place. Follow-up research in these organisations would be interesting, to see if any change had occurred in the organisational climate.

It appeared from the interviews that women had tended to consider the areas relating to climate for diversity already, whereas it appeared that men had not done so in such depth, unless they had a partner working in the organisation with whom they had children. In such circumstances, men tended to view the organisation more from their female partner's point of view, that is, seeing problems relating to lack of opportunities for women and problems with childcare. However, it appeared that men somehow viewed this almost as a problem for women, and not one which they felt was something that should be tackled by them, or even be a real concern for them, almost as if women had problems in the organisation, and that was a shame, but they did not have any problems, so it was alright. This of course, is the assessment of a female researcher, and therefore a male researcher looking at the same area and reviewing the same interview data may have come to a very different opinion. Indeed, had a male researcher considered this area for research, he may have looked at very different research questions and used very different research methodology. We are however, all bound by our gender, and there is little that the researcher can do, other than recognise these possible differences in interpretation. Therefore, the claim to neutrality which quantitative data often asserts cannot be made so easily by qualitative researchers using interviews as research methodology. Oakley (1981) argues that

neutrality is an impossible aim, and one perhaps that should not be attempted in an interview situation. Another point raised by Oakley (1981) is that interviews are themselves conducted in a context which cannot be repeated for each subsequent interaction via interview with different subjects. Therefore, the idea of comparison between interviews is a difficult one to defend. However, it was felt in this research that comparison could and should be made between interviews. The use of a structure, however free-flowing and adaptable, enabled the researcher to use a comparative technique for data analysis. During the research it was hoped that the research process itself would enlighten the researcher on the very nature of positive climate for diversity and its outcomes. As Bryman and Burgess (1994) point out, qualitative methodologies are extensive and varied in approach and technique. The advantage of qualitative methods is that they allow a freedom to the researcher not experienced by those using only quantitative methodology. Through the use of qualitative methodology, one is constantly learning about the subject area, the methodologies that work, and those which need refining for particular subject groups. In this way, the openness of qualitative methods can give a boost to the researcher experienced in gathering facts and figures in the interpretation of such data.

3.6.2 Sampling for Interviews

The organisations provided incomplete lists of those who had been given a copy of the questionnaire to complete. The interview sample was chosen from respondents who had completed the postal questionnaire. It was intended to be selected by a quota-type method, to include managers from different hierarchical positions and of different genders. Because no disabled managers could be identified within the organisation, it was not possible to include any. Similarly, managers from ethnic minority backgrounds could not be included, even though an attempt was made to identify them

by using surnames from a list of those who had received questionnaires, as suggested by a supervisor. It was found that no names on the lists given by the organisations appeared to be from ethnic backgrounds (e.g. of Asian or African origin).

As some managers were not willing to take part in an interview, (particularly as it could last more than an hour) the sample process had to be changed. To obtain sufficient interviewees, the researcher decided to telephone all respondents included on the lists provided by the organisations, and also those who had placed their details on the back of the questionnaire. As far as the researcher was able to determine, explaining the reasons for the research did not appear to influence the number of managers prepared to be interviewed. Interviews were then arranged with those managers who were interested in participating.

The interviews were conducted by the researcher. The researcher has had extensive interviewer training during her Post-graduate Diploma in Human Resources and also during her job as an Employment Advisor/Counsellor. There can be errors made due to interviewers not having appropriate experience and leading respondents to particular answers. Interviewers may also misinterpret responses given by respondents. However, in this study errors were hopefully kept to a minimum, as the researcher had, as mentioned, interview training and experience. Training and experience meant that the interviewer was very aware of potential interview bias and influence. Also she was aware of the importance of the neutral framing of questions, and the importance of building rapport with respondents. As only one person conducted the interviews, bias through different interpretation of responses and possibly leading questions was eliminated. Another reason for using only one interviewer was that she was intimately aware of the research being conducted. Employing others to conduct interviews would have been too expensive. Not only

would they require a wage, but they would also need training and supervising, which would add to the cost.

Moser and Kalton (1997) advise that those who have particular views on the area being investigated should not interview subjects. In this case, as mentioned, the researcher tried to take a neutral approach, and was interested only in the respondents' views. The interviewer tried to gain natural responses and tried to build rapport, so that respondents felt comfortable enough to express their views, whatever they might be. A tape recorder was not used, as it was felt that respondents may feel unhappy at having their answers recorded; especially as they were made aware that a confidential report would be sent to top management.

When interviewing, as much time as possible was left for the respondent to speak, rather than the interviewer. At the end of the session, the interviewer read out the notes taken to check she had gained the right insight. Respondents at this point were able to add or change the interviewer's interpretation, and state things in a different way. This ensured that respondents were reassured that an accurate account of their views, attitudes and perceptions had been noted.

Interviews were recorded on paper. Permission was sought initially for recording responses in this way. All participants agreed, once they had been assured that no individual's name would be used in the report. Informal interviewing like this (Moser and Kalton (1997), can be categorised on a scale of increasing formality, depending on the type of interview taking place. Moser and Kalton (1997) p. 298 argue that the "focused" or "guided" interview "aims to cover a given set of topics in a more or less systematic way". They state that questions are mostly open, "interviewers... are free to choose when and how to put their questions and how much to explore and probe, all the time keeping within the framework imposed by the topics gathered". Moser and

Kalton (1997) assert that guided or focused interviews are particularly useful if the information required is concerned with attitudes.

3.6.3 The Interview Sample Limitations

In-depth interviews were conducted in some of the Trusts and RC; these were limited to the organisations that wished to take part. Once individuals were contacted, some respondents were not willing to give up the time needed for the interviews.

When analysing the data, the results did seem to show some difference in attitudes and perceptions in terms of gender and managerial level. These differences appear to be greater than shown with the statistical data. This may have been due to people feeling that they could be more open when discussing their perceptions and attitudes. Interviews give more scope for individuals to state opinions, compared to a closed, Likert-style postal questionnaire. Alternatively, those willing to be interviewed may be unrepresentative of those who completed the questionnaires.

The interviews were conducted with a range of managers. An interview schedule was devised in order to have a note of points to be covered during the interview. The main aim of the interviews was to enable the respondents to discuss their attitudes and perceptions in an open way, where the interviewer acted more as a prompter than an a questioner. Moser and Kalton (1997) call informal interview schedules an interview guide. The interview schedule or guide is presented in Chapter 5, where it is more fully explained.

3.6.4 The Interview Structure

In all, 28 interviews were conducted. A fuller analysis and explanation of the interviews is included in Chapter 5.

The interviews generally lasted approximately 3/4 of an hour, although this varied from 1/2 an hour to over 1 hour. However, some respondents who initially agreed to

take part then changed their minds, or were not able to be interviewed within the time limit allowed - a six month period. It had been requested that the researcher should visit the interviewees in their place of work, and interview them in private. This was arranged in most, but not all, interviews. Even when a private office was used (often the interviewee's own), telephones ringing and other interruptions did occur in some cases. Other problems included having to re-schedule interviews, and the organisation replacing listed interviewees with others when one was unavailable. In most cases, it was a person of the same gender and organisational level.

3.7 Conclusions

Careful consideration was given to finding appropriate methods for this research. The methodology chosen, that of postal questionnaires using closed and Likert-style questions and in-depth interviews, was felt to be the most appropriate method of investigating the PCFD model. By using both postal questionnaires and interviews, some of the limitations of each type of method could be eliminated. Postal questionnaires gave a larger sample, and wider information was gained. In-depth interviews meant that more detail could be obtained from respondents.

Problems were encountered in this research. These problems mainly related to gaining access to organisations and individuals within those organisations. Therefore, the research sample could largely only be representative of itself, and not the whole management of each organisation. However, it is hoped that this work can be replicated by future researchers using a different research sample.

If these research constraints were not in place, it would be useful to establish a representative sample of the organisation's management, then to send a questionnaire

to each member of that sample. This would enable the researcher to be able to draw conclusions from the sample and apply them to the whole of management in the organisation.

The next chapter presents the results obtained from the postal questionnaire.

CHAPTER 4

QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

4. QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and examines the results of the postal questionnaire.

Data from 272 managers in the health and retail sectors have been analysed, using various statistical methods. Reliability analysis, using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, was conducted on the measurement scales. Factor analysis was also conducted on all the questionnaire scales to identify underlying constructs or factors that might explain the correlation among a set of variables. Factor analysis was conducted using oblique rotation, as Kossek and Zonia (1993) had carried out in their study. This method was chosen as it replicated Kossek and Zonia's method, and therefore a comparison between their work and this research could be made. Kossek and Zonia (1993) chose this method of factor rotation as "...it was assumed that several dimensions of diversity climate are likely to be correlated" p69.

Means and percentages were gathered for each sample group, to identify the similarities and differences between the groups.

Multivariate analysis of variance was used to test hypotheses about the relationships between a set of interrelated dependent variables and one or more factors or groupings of variables. Pearson's chi-square was used to test whether the variables were independent.

Independent t-tests were also used to analyse the data. They were used to test if two unrelated samples came from populations with the same mean.

Correlation coefficient analysis was conducted to measure any linear association between variables.

Finally regression analysis was also used to identify the relationships between different variables.

4.2 Organisational Samples

Analysis took place on both an individual organisational basis and on a whole sample basis.

Four NHS Trusts were used in the research. Details on the number of men and women Trusts had at managerial level or the ethnicity of management were not kept (see chapter 3 for more details). That is ethnic and gender monitoring was not normal practice in the organisations. Therefore, the researcher was unable to consider, as Kossek and Zonia (1993) did, a comparison between the gender and ethnicity of all the management staff in the organisation and the responses given on the questionnaire. Instead, an attempt was made to distribute questionnaires to as many managers as possible in all sections and at all levels of the organisations. The organisations wished to distribute the questionnaires themselves, and to limit distribution. Negotiation had to take place with regard to how many could be expected to be distributed. Because of this, a full survey of the whole management team was not possible. However, organisations were willing to ensure that all levels of management were included (that is junior, middle and senior as defined by this study). Further, the analysis could only take place in terms of gender and managerial level, and not ethnicity (as Kossek and Zonia (1993) had done) as 98.5% of respondents classified themselves as white. This

was echoed with disability, as 97.7% of respondents classified themselves as able bodied. Therefore, there were too few disabled respondents to be able to analyse their responses separately.

In one organisation (Trust 1) only board members were permitted by the Chief Executive to answer the questionnaire. This was due to structural changes in the organisation. All board members responded to the questionnaire, making it possible to analyse the whole group in terms of their responses.

Therefore, PCFD has been assessed in terms of overall questionnaire responses only. This is of course open to some criticism, due to the methodology differing from Kossek and Zonia's (1993), where they examined the whole section or department that they were interested in, to assess the numbers of women and ethnic minorities. However, this research also differs in other ways from Kossek and Zonia (1993). Weaknesses were identified in their methodology and conceptual framework. These weaknesses are more fully discussed in the Literature Review in Chapter 2. So changes to Kossek and Zonia's (1993) methodology and conceptual framework have been made in this research. Other measures of a PCFD have been used. Outcomes are also predicted, which they do not attempt in their research.

4.3 Analysis of the Core Sample Group

An analysis was made of the whole or core sample. In much of the analysis, Retail Company (RC) data was amalgamated with NHS data to gain an acceptable sample size in which useful analysis could take place.

The number and percentage of respondents in each organisation is shown in tabular form below:

Table 5 Organisations and Number of Respondents in Each Sample Group

Organisation	No. of Respondents	Percentage of All Sample
All NHS Trusts	245	90.1
NHS Trust 1	5	1.9
NHS Trust 2	82	30.2
NHS Trust 3	72	26.4
NHS Trust 4	86	31.6
All RC Branches	27	9.9
RC Branch 5	9	3.3
RC Branch 6	6	2.2
RC Branch 7	4	1.5
RC Branch 8 & 9	8	2.9
Total	272	100

As can be seen from the above Table 6, the NHS Trusts provided 90.1% of the sample; 9.9% were provided by the retail organisation (RC).

Retail branches 8 and 9 are analysed together, as 9 was a sub-branch of 8, and therefore included as part of branch 8 by RC for statistical purposes, such as analysing selling trends.

Table 6 The Distribution of Responses to the Questionnaire by Organisation, Gender and Level

Organisation	Junior Male	Junior Female	Middle Male	Middle Female	Senior Male	Senior Female
All Trusts	28 (11.6%)	101 (41.9%)	17 (7.0%)	59 (24.5%)	12 (5.0%)	24 (10.0%)
NHS Trust 1	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (40.0%)	3 (60%)
NHS Trust 2	3 (3.9%)	44 (56.4%)	6 (7.7%)	20 (25.6%)	4 (5.1%)	1 (1.3%)
NHS Trust 3	12 (16.7%)	17 (23.6%)	6 (8.3%)	25 (34.7%)	4 (5.6%)	8 (11.1%)
NHS Trust 4	13 (15.1%)	40 (46.5%)	5 (5.8%)	14 (16.3%)	2 (2.3%)	12 (14%)
All Retail	3 (11.1%)	8 (29.6%)	5 (18.6%)	8 (29.6%)	3 (11.1%)	0 (0%)
Branch 5	1 (11.1%)	1 (11.1%)	2 (22.2%)	4 (44.5%)	1 (11.1%)	0 (0%)
Branch 6	0 (0%)	2 (33.3%)	1 (16.7%)	1 (16.7%)	2 (33.3%)	0 (0%)
Branch 7	0 (0%)	2 (50%)	0 (0%)	2 (50%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Branch 8&9	2 (25%)	3 (37.5%)	2 (25%)	1 (12.5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Total No.	31	109	22	67	15	24

Table 6 shows the sample divided by organisation, gender and managerial level. Not all respondents identified their gender or management position; therefore the above results refer to those who did provide this information, that is 268 respondents.

As can be seen from table 7, the highest percentage single group in the NHS sample was junior female managers representing 41.9%. In RC, two managerial levels have the same high percentage; junior female managers and middle female managers, each representing 29.6% of the total. No women were classified as senior female in RC, compared to 10% of the NHS sample classified as such. Only 5% of the NHS sample were senior male managers.

Table 7 A Breakdown by Gender of All Respondents in the Sample Organisations

Variable	Male (%)	Female (%)	Total
Gender	25.3	74.7	100

In all, as can be seen from Table 8, the majority of respondents to the questionnaire were women. This may not be so hard to understand, as the NHS provided the majority of the sample and the majority of the NHS employees are female (approximately 70%). It may also be related to the organisations seeking out women to be part of the sample, as they understood that gender was one of the interests of the study. Perhaps women were also more likely to answer the questionnaire than men when they considered the questions. With regard to gender in the sample, women are over represented compared with the total UK population, in which Iles et. al. (1994) assert that over 60% of women work, making over 40% of the workforce. All the female sample are managers, (which nationally represent 12.3% of all managers).

Table 8 Distribution of Respondents by Age Group

Variable: Age (years)	Percentage
21-30	10.8
31-40	41.8
41-50	32.8
51-60	14.2
Over 60	0.4

The highest percentage of respondents fell into the 31-40 year category (41.8%), followed by the 41-50 year category (32.8%).

Table 9 Distribution of Respondents by Ethnicity

Variable: Ethnicity	Percentage
White	98.5
Black	0.7
Chinese	0.4
Other	0.4
Total	100

Table 9 shows that the vast majority of respondents (98.5%) classified themselves as white. There were just 4 non-white respondents. Therefore, the increase in diversity as a whole in the UK (Social Trends 1997) is not reflected in the sample group. However, this may reflect the ethnic make-up of Britain, in that the ethnic population “has a younger age structure” Social Trends (1997) and those in management positions in organisations tend to be older individuals (see table 9). Despite these provisos, the number of people from ethnic minority backgrounds in management in the sample organisations is very unlikely to reflect the people using the services.

Table 10 Analysis of Respondents by Marital Status

Variable: Marital Status	Percentage
Married or Living with Partner	79.3
Single	20.7
Total	100

Table 10 shows that most of the sample (79.3%) were married or living with a partner.

Table 11 Categorisation of Respondents by Childcare and Domestic Care

Responsibilities

Variable:	Percentage
Childcare or Domestic Care Responsibility	
Responsibility	58.3
No Responsibility	41.7
Total	100

The above table shows that 58.3% of respondents had childcare or domestic care responsibilities.

Table 12 Categorisation of Respondents by Disability Status

Variable:	Percentage
Disability	
Able-bodied	97.7
Registered Disabled	0.4
Disabled but not Registered	1.9
Total	100

Table 12 shows that 97.7% of the sample were able-bodied.

Table 13 Categorisation of Respondents by Managerial Level

Variable:	Percentage
Managerial level	
Junior	52.2
Middle	33.1
Senior	14.7
Total	100

The above table shows that of the whole sample, the greatest number of respondents were junior managers (52.2%), followed by middle managers (33.1%) and then senior managers (14.7%).

Table 14 Categorisation of Work Hours of Respondents

Variable:	Percentage
Full-time/Part-time work	
Full-time	95.9
Part-time	4.1
Total	100

Table 14 shows that 95.9% of all respondents worked full-time. This figure is lower than the national and regional average (see chapter 2).

4.4 Summary of Above Results

The above results show that the majority (74.7%) of the sample were female. The most frequent age group was 31-40 years (41.8%), followed by 41-50 years; no-one was under 21 years (not perhaps surprising, as the sample was of a management group). As shown above, 98.5% of the sample were white, and the majority of respondents (79.3%) were married or living with a partner; over half (58.3%) had either childcare or other domestic care responsibilities. The majority of the sample (97.7%) were able-bodied. Approximately half (52.2%) of the sample were junior managers and the majority of the sample worked full-time (95.9%).

4.5 PCFD Indicators

4.5.1 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient Scores for PCFD Measurement Scales

Reliability analysis was conducted (using Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for the PCFD measurement scales used in the questionnaire. SPSS refers to reliability analysis as performing "item analysis on additive scales" (SPSS help section, no page number given). It goes on to explain why one might need to use reliability analysis as well. "When you have a scale which is obtained by summing responses to individual items, you want to know how closely the items are related to each other."

For all scores, the measurement scales were judged reliable. Support for ethnic minorities, and for career planning, had lower reliability levels than the other scales (alpha coefficients score 0.4965 and 0.3215 respectively). Although both scores were over 0.3000, it was felt that some consideration of the relationship between the items in the career planning, scale should be made. Therefore, factor analysis was conducted on career planning and one item was removed. This led to a much higher alpha coefficient score. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients are tabulated below.

Table 15 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for Organisational Justice, Need for Diversity and Support for Diversity

Organisational Justice	Need for Diversity	Support for Diversity	Support for Women	Support for Ethnic Minorities
0.8168	0.8380	0.6593	0.7708	0.4965

Table 15 shows the alpha coefficients for the individual scales in the equity recognition scale. Need for diversity and organisational justice have particularly high alpha scores.

Table 16 Alpha Coefficients for PCFD Outcomes

Career Commitment	Commitment to the Organisation	Job Satisfaction	Satisfaction with Manager	Career Satisfaction	Career Future Satisfaction	Career Planning
0.6800	0.8410	0.7861	0.8962	0.6976	0.8294	0.3215

Table 16 shows the alpha coefficients for the PCFD outcomes predicted in the model. Satisfaction with manager, career planning, commitment to the organisation and career future satisfaction have particularly high alpha scores. Career planning here is shown before item removal.

Table 17 Alpha Coefficients for PCFD Outcomes Career Commitment and Career Planning after removal of scale items

Career Commitment (with factor 2 removed)	Career Planning (with factor 2 removed)
0.7156	0.8588

Table 17 shows the results of Cronbach's alpha for career commitment and career planning once factor analysis had been conducted and items loading on different factors removed. The alpha score of both scales improves to 0.7156 for career commitment and 0.8588 for career planning. The career planning scale shows a considerable increase of (0.5373).

4.5.2 The Model Variables

PCFD is partially indicated by the organisational policies and procedures measures, referred to as the policy support scale. Organisational justice and an amended form of Kossek and Zonia's (1993) scales are included and classified within the equity

recognition scale, as are the support for diversity scale (sub-scales, support for women and support for ethnic minorities) and need for diversity scale. Schneifer et al (1996) assert that the climate in an organisation is created by perception of organisational policies and procedures.

Analysis of the indicator (independent variable) scales is presented below.

Table 18 Categorisation of Responses to the Question, ‘Does the Organisation have an Equal Opportunities Policy?’

Equal Opportunity Policy	Percentage
Yes	98.9
Don't know	1.1
No	0.0
Total	100

Table 18 shows that most respondents (98.9%) were aware that their organisation had an equal opportunities policy. This shows that the majority of individuals knew that equal opportunity was an organisational issue.

Table 19 Categorisation of Responses to the Question, ‘Has the Respondent seen a Copy of the EO Policy?’

Equal Opportunity Policy Seen	Percentage
Yes	81.8
Don't Know	1.2
No	17.0
Total	100

As can be seen from the above table, most respondents (81.8%) had seen a copy of the EO policy, which we take here to mean read. Again, this result shows that the majority of respondents were aware of the issue of equal opportunities, even if they had not fully considered what the issue was.

Table 20 Categorisation of Responses to the Question ‘Does the Organisation have Flexible Working Hours?’

Flexible Working Hours	Percentage
Yes	47.2
Don't Know	5.6
No	47.2
Total	100

The percentage of individuals who stated that their organisation practised flexible working hours (47.2%) was interestingly the same as those who stated that it did not.

This may well relate to the different sectors being researched. In some organisations and individual departments, flexible working hours were officially agreed; in others, they were unofficial, and in others still they were not available at all.

Table 21 Categorisation of Responses to the Question ‘Does the Organisation have a Mentoring System (formal or informal) in Practice?’

Mentoring System	Percentage
Yes	63.6
Don't Know	12.4
No	24
Total	100

The majority of respondents (63.6%) perceived that their organisation had a mentoring system in place. Mentoring is seen by many authors (see Kanter 1977 for example) as a particular method of progress in organisations.

Table 22 Categorisation of Responses to the Question ‘Does this Organisation Provide Childcare Vouchers?’

Childcare Vouchers	Percentage
Yes	0.7
Don't Know	23.9
No	75.4
Total	100

Most respondents (75.4%) stated that their organisation did not provide childcare vouchers.

Table 23 Categorisation of Responses to the Question ‘Does this Organisation Provide Career Breaks?’

Career Breaks	Percentage
Yes	52.6
Don't Know	23.0
No	24.4
Total	100

The majority of respondents (52.6%) stated that their organisation provided career breaks. ‘Family friendly’ policies such as this are said by Schwartz (1996) to benefit women’s careers.

Table 24 Categorisation of Responses to the Question ‘Does this Organisation have Organisational Justice?’

Organisational Justice	Percentage
Yes	34.3
No	25.5
Neutral	40.2
Total	100

The main response regarding organisational justice was neutral (40.2%), as can be seen from the above table.

Table 25 Categorisation of Responses to the Scale, Need for Diversity in the Organisation

Need for Diversity	Percentage
Yes	24
No	18.9
Neutral	57.1
Total	100

As with the previous table results (shown in table 25), most respondents were neutral in their response to the need for diversity in the organisation (57.1%).

Table 26 Categorisation of Responses to the Scale, Support for Diversity in the Organisation

Support for Diversity	Percentage
More Chance	0
Same Chance	87.8
Less Chance	15.2
Total	100

The majority of respondents (87.8%) believed that women and ethnic minorities had the same chance of management support as white men.

4.6 Summary of the Above Results

4.6.1 PCFD Scales

The PCFD scale results were used to attempt to measure a PCFD.

The majority of the sample (98.9%) was aware that their organisation had an equal opportunities policy (EO policy). Indeed, all sample organisations did have an EO policy. Of those who answered the question regarding the EO policy, 81.8%, had seen it. In the case of flexible working hours, the figure was more evenly split, with some 47.2% stating that the organisation did provide it and the same amount stating it did not. This may reflect the situation that many of the managers encounter, and the professional make-up of the sample. Nurse managers who worked for the NHS did not have access, by and large, to flexible working hours, due to the nature of the work and the need for cover on the wards. However, in other departments, managers were able to operate flexible working patterns. In RC, junior managers on the shop floor were not able to work flexible hours, due once more to the nature of the need for staff during opening hours. However, some middle and senior staff who were not on the shop floor were able to operate a form of flexible working hours. Although these flexible working hours were largely not enshrined in a formal contract, they were recognised by the organisations as taking place.

On the question of mentoring, 63.6% of respondents considered their organisation to have a mentoring system. Only in the RC did a formal type of mentoring take place; this was for graduate trainees, seen to be the store managers of the future. Informal mentoring did take place, however, for some managers in the NHS sample.

Childcare was provided in a piecemeal way in some of the NHS Trusts, and provided quite comprehensively in one, Trust 2. During interviews with staff, it became apparent that some of the nurse managers were not able to take as much advantage of the childcare facility as they would like. Firstly, it ran during office hours; secondly, places were limited; and thirdly, it was still seen as quite expensive, although it was subsidised by the Trust. Fourthly, it was only available at the main site, although staff from other sites wishing to use it could. Needless-to-say, not everyone was aware of the childcare facilities being provided; 52.4% stated childcare was available in their organisation, and 22.9% did not know if it was available. RC did not provide childcare at all.

With regard to childcare vouchers, no organisation provided them, though one was considering carrying out a trial on their use (Trust 2). Only a small percentage (0.7%) thought that their organisation provided them.

4.6.2 Support For and Need for Diversity

Kossek and Zonia (1993) argue that the scales support for diversity and need for diversity help to measure the diversity climate in an organisation. They are taken here as adding to the overall indicator variables and referring to whether a PCFD is present or not in an organisation. The statements referred to whether the recruitment and retention of women and minorities, as well as those with disabilities, will increase the co-operation between different diverse groups and help the organisation to become more effective. Of the whole sample, by far the largest group when asked about the need for diversity in the organisation gave a neutral response (57.1%); 18.9% stated that there was not a need for diversity and 24% agreed there was a need for diversity

in the organisation. With regard to support for diversity, no respondents thought that individuals from diverse backgrounds had more chance of receiving support; 87.8% thought they had the same chance, and 15.2% thought they had less chance.

The support for diversity scale was then divided into two sub-scales; support for women and support for ethnic minorities (factor analysis). When these two scales were then analysed, it was found that 18% of respondents felt that women had less support than men (support for women scale); 78% thought they had the same chance of support; and 4% thought they had more support. Using the support for ethnic minorities scale, the following percentage scores were found; 5.9% thought ethnic minorities had less support, 93.7% thought they had the same support; and 0.4% thought they had more support. These are very interesting results, as they show that there was a difference in opinion regarding minority opportunities, with women being seen as having less support than ethnic minorities by 18%. However, they were also seen as having more support by 4% of respondents. Generally speaking, there was more consensus with regard to the support for ethnic minorities, as 93.7% thought they had the same support as others, compared to 78% of respondents feeling that women had the same support. It appears that views are more diverse when it comes opinions on support for women in the sample organisations.

4.6.3 Organisational Justice

When the whole sample of managers is considered, 34.3% agreed or strongly agreed that their organisation practised organisational justice. Respondents with neutral responses represented 40.2%, and those who thought that their organisation did not practise organisational justice represented 25.5% of respondents.

4.7 Outcomes of the PCFD Model

The outcomes of the model were analysed using percentage scores.

4.7.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using a 4 item 7 point Likert-style scale. A neutral option was included.

The job satisfaction scale shows that the majority of respondents (46.2%) are satisfied with their current jobs; 38.8% are strongly satisfied with their current job; and 6.2% are very strongly satisfied with their current job. However, 8.8% are dissatisfied. Job satisfaction is an important variable, as Morgan et al (1995) assert that low job satisfaction leads to absenteeism and labour turnover.

4.7.2 Career Satisfaction

This scale was measured using a 3 item, 7 point Likert-style scale. This scale had a neutral option.

47.7% of respondents who answered this scale are satisfied with their career. 35.2% are neutral with regard to satisfaction, that is, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied; and 17.1% are strongly satisfied.

4.7.3 Career Planning

Career planning was originally measured on a 6 item, 6 point Likert-style scale, ranging from very strongly disagree to very strongly agree, with no neutral option. Once factor analysis had been conducted, one item was removed from the scale. Once the item had been removed, percentage values were calculated. It was found that

72.3% of managers used career planning and 27.8% did not. Career planning is often linked to individuals having successful careers.

4.7.4 Future Career Satisfaction

This scale was measured using a 3 item, 7 point Likert-style scale, which included a neutral option.

In response to this scale, 42.1% of respondents gave a neutral reply; 34.2% a positive response; and 23.7% a negative response, indicating that 34.2% were likely to be satisfied with their career in the future.

4.7.5 Career Commitment

Career commitment was originally measured using an 8 item, 5 point Likert-style scale, with a neutral option. Once factor analysis had been conducted, one item was removed from the scale. After the item had been removed, the following responses were found. A neutral response was gathered from 38.2% of respondents. 19.7% were not committed to their careers, and 41.8% were committed.

4.7.6 Satisfaction with Manager

This was measured using a 2 item, 7 point Likert-style scale, which included a neutral option.

By far the largest group (43.5%) were satisfied with their current manager; 24.7% were neutral with regards to satisfaction; and 16.5% were strongly satisfied. 15.3% however were dissatisfied with their managers.

Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment was measured by a 9 item, 7 point Likert-style scale. 40.7% of respondents stated that they had organisational commitment; 25.9% had strong organisational commitment; and 20.5% were neutral in their response, that is, they were neither committed or not committed to the organisation. It is an important variable for the organisation to ensure that staff turnover and absenteeism are kept low. It is particularly important in times of organisational turbulence, such as the period that the NHS has recently experienced.

4.8 Factor Analysis of Scaled Indicator Variables and Outcome Variables

Factor analysis was conducted to “identify underlying constructs or factors that explain the correlation among a set of variables” (SPSS help section, no page number given). In this research a number of items have been brought together in order to measure one variable; for example career commitment is measured using 8 questions or items, each identifying different aspects of career commitment. Factor analysis is able to reduce these 8 items to underlying factors, which create the career commitment variable. Factor analysis is conducted on multi-item scales, that is scales which determine to measure one particular variable, but have many individual questions making up that scale. So, factor analysis is not carried out on single item questions which do not create a scale. For example, the question ‘Does this organisation have an Equal Opportunities Policy?’ could not be factor analysed. Therefore in this case, factor analysis is used to determine how many different aspects of a particular scale the questions measure.

4.8.1 Organisational Justice

One factor, referred to as organisational justice, was extracted, accounting for 55.9% of the variance, with an Eigenvalue of 4.47. Factor loading is shown below.

<u>Organisational Justice Factor Matrix:</u>	Factor 1
Getting on in organisation depends on performance in job	.69161
Organisation appraises job performance in a consistent manner	.76464
Organisational timely feedback on pay, performance and promotion	.79181
Organisation open and honest on decisions regarding employees	.83318
Employees treated with courtesy and respect	.82137
Communication with employees is characteristic of organisation	.48161
Employees given opportunities to challenge/review decisions taken about them	.82324
Procedures used in this organisation helpful to all employees	.70832

The loadings on factor one are all high enough for the scale to be a reliable one (that is, over 0.30). Factor 1 was defined by the following factors: organisation open and honest on decisions regarding employees; Employees given opportunities to challenge/review decisions taken about them; employees treated with courtesy and respect; organisation gives timely feedback on pay; organisation appraises job performance in a consistent manner; procedures used in this organisation are helpful to all employees; getting on in the organisation depends on performance in job; and communication with employees is characteristic of the organisation.

4.8.2 Support for Diversity

Two factors were identified, accounting for 69.1% of the variance; Factor 1, management support for women (Eigenvalue 2.21), Factor 2, management support for ethnic minorities (Eigenvalue 1.24). Factor loading is shown below. It is interesting that despite the alpha statistics showing that the support for diversity scale is reliable,

two factors have been identified in this scale. It appears that in some cases support for ethnic minorities does not mean support for both women and ethnic minorities. Therefore, where the support for diversity scale shows statistically significant relationships, further analysis is conducted in order to establish what contribution support for women and support for ethnic minorities scales makes.

<u>Support for Diversity Factor Matrix:</u>	Factor 1	Factor 2
Management support for women	.75263	-.18351
Ethnic minority's chance of reaching management positions	.36447	.74893
Pay increases for ethnic minorities through performance bonuses	.42931	.70290
Chances of Women reaching management positions	.82102	-.34664
Pay increases for women through performance bonuses	.80967	-.18775

As mentioned above, the support for diversity scale can be defined by two factors: factor 1, chances of women reaching management positions, pay increases for women through performance bonuses, and management support for women; and factor 2, ethnic minority's chance of reaching management positions and pay increases for ethnic minorities through performance bonuses. Although both ethnic minority chances of reaching management positions and pay increases for ethnic minorities through performance bonuses do register on factor 1 at over 0.30, they register more highly on factor 2. Therefore, it was decided to use 'support for ethnic minorities' within the overall scale and a separate scale where significant differences in statistical analysis were found.

4.8.3 Need for Diversity

One factor was extracted (accounting for 62% of the variance): need for diversity (Eigenvalue 3.10). Factor loading is shown below.

<u>Need for Diversity Factor Matrix:</u>	Factor 1
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Organisation must recruit more ethnic minorities	.80905
Organisation must recruit more women	.79356
Organisation must recruit more employees with disabilities	.83269
Gender diversity is important in the organisation	.75525
Ethnic diversity is important in the organisation	.74378

All the factor loading were over 0.30. Factor 1 was defined by the following: organisation must recruit more employees with disabilities; organisation must recruit more ethnic minorities; organisation must recruit more women; gender diversity is important in the organisation; and ethnic diversity is important in the organisation.

It is interesting that, unlike the support for diversity scale, the need for diversity scale does not show sub-scales, as all items loaded well on one factor. It appears that need for diversity and support for diversity are two very different concepts in terms of factor analysis and respondents' understanding of the issues surrounding diversity.

4.8.4 Factor Analysis of Outcomes

Factor analysis was conducted on the outcomes of the PCFD model. There were 7 Likert-style scales used as outcomes.

4.8.5 Commitment to the Organisation

On initial examination there appear to be two factors identified in the organisational commitment scale. However, on closer inspection, it can be noted that there is one factor which accounts for all the statements. Commitment to the organisation (factor 1) shows all statements loading at over 0.30. Although one statement 'pleased to know contribution has helped organisation' also loads on factor 2 (Eigenvalue of 1.08), it scores highly enough on factor 1 (0.5419) to be included in that factor.

Commitment to Organisation Factor Matrix: Factor 1 Factor 2

Proud to tell people name of employer	.66996	-.01115
Sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good	.61069	-.38233
Willing to put self out for organisation	.68197	.28508
Remain with employer if organisation not doing well	.62399	-.37303
Feel part of the organisation	.82376	.01235
Like to make an effort for the organisation	.77697	.36939
Change of job not influenced by extra money	.63671	-.31708
Recommend friend to join staff	.69082	-.21635
Pleased to know contribution has helped organisation	.50419	.66141

The two factors identified accounted for 57.6% of the variance. Factor one (Eigenvalue of 4.09), was defined as the following: feel part of the organisation, like to make an effort for the organisation, recommend friend to join staff, willing to put self out for organisation, proud to tell people name of employer, change of job not influenced by extra money, remain with employer if organisation not doing well, sometimes feel like leaving employment for good (reverse scaled) and pleased to know contribution has helped organisation.

Interestingly, the scale 'commitment to the organisation' appears in particular to , show affective commitment by employees to the organisation.

4.8.6 Career Satisfaction

One factor accounted for 58.8% of the variance in the career satisfaction scale. The factor extracted was career satisfaction. Its Eigenvalue was 1.76. Factor loading is shown below.

<u>Career Satisfaction Factor Matrix:</u>	Factor 1
Receive training to do job effectively	.63165
Personal achievement in organisation	.79418

Working in organisation helpful to career .85632

All factor loadings were over 0.30. The career satisfaction factor was accounted for by; working in organisation helpful to career; personal achievement in organisation; and receive training to do job effectively.

4.8.7 Career Future Satisfaction

One factor was identified when factor analysis was conducted on the career future satisfaction scale, which accounted for 75.1% of the variance; Factor 1, career future satisfaction (Eigenvalue 2.25). Factor loading is shown below.

<u>Career Future Satisfaction Factor Matrix:</u>	Factor 1
Happy about future with organisation	.86527
Hard work worthwhile for future in organisation	.87072
Making progress in getting ahead in organisation	.86312

All items loaded on the factor, at over 0.30. The factor was defined by; hard work worthwhile for future in organisation; happy about future with organisation; and making progress in getting ahead in organisation.

4.8.8 Career Planning

Two factors were identified in the career planning scale, with Eigenvalues of over 1. These accounted for 71% of the variance: Factor 1, career planning (Eigenvalue 3.23) and Factor 2, career goals (Eigenvalue 1.02). Factor loadings are shown below.

<u>Career Planning Factor Matrix</u>	Factor 1	Factor 2
Career objectives decided	.71748	-.18146
Career plan	.88409	.06958
Strategy for career goals	.85590	.11010
Know what to do to reach career goals	.06210	.97460
Clear career objective	.87134	.02116

Career objectives stable	.66777	-.15651
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All but one of the statements loaded on to factor 1, career planning. Factor 1 was defined by the following: career plan, clear career objective, strategy for career goal, career objectives decided, career objectives stable. One statement, know what to do to reach career goals, loaded on factor 2, career goals. Therefore it was decided to remove the item which loaded on factor 2 from the scale, as it was not measuring the same variable as factor 1.

4.8.9 Job Satisfaction

One factor was identified in this scale, which accounted for 78.6% of the variance. This factor was job satisfaction (Eigenvalue of 2.35). Factors loading are shown below.

<u>Job Satisfaction Factor Matrix:</u>	Factor 1
In all, satisfied with job	.85856
Like job	.85821
Like working here	.88037
Job is stimulating	.65006

The job satisfaction factor was defined as follows: like working here, in all satisfied with job, like job, job is stimulating. All loadings were over 0.30.

4.8.10 Satisfaction with Manager

One factor was identified in this scale, which had an Eigenvalue of over 1; that was satisfaction with manager. It accounted for 90.5% of the variance and had an Eigenvalue of 1.81. Factor loading is shown below.

<u>Satisfaction with Manager Factor Matrix:</u>	Factor 1
Boss performs job well	.95155

Boss manages staff well

.95155

Satisfaction with manager was defined by boss performs job well and boss manages staff well, with both loading equally highly.

4.8.11 Career Commitment

Two factors accounted for 53.9% of the variance in the career commitment scale. The factors extracted were: factor 1, career commitment (Eigenvalue 3.26, 40.8% of variance) and factor 2, pay (Eigenvalue 1.04, accounting for 13.1% of the variance).

Factor loadings are shown below.

<u>Career Commitment Factor Matrix:</u>	Factor 1	Factor 2
Would not change career for same pay	-.08372	.82689
Definitely committed to this career	.75236	-.03454
Given second chance would choose this career	.75424	.10695
Would continue career, even if money not needed	.73176	.14114
Like career too much to give it up	.86192	.05773
Ideal career for a life's work	.77769	.08064
Not disappointed at entering this field	.36776	-.04741
Time spend reading career-related material	.32686	-.56224

The above factor analysis shows that the questions in the scales do relate to underlying factors, and can be used effectively in this research to measure the attitudes of managers. Two factors have been identified. Factor 1 is defined by: like career too much to give it up, ideal career for a life's work, given second chance would choose this career, definitely committed to this career, would continue career even if money not needed, not disappointed at entering this field, time spend reading career related material. Factor 2 is defined by one statement; 'would not change career for same

pay'. The results are very interesting, as only one statement defines factor 2, yet a similar statement regarding money (would continue career, even if money not needed) loads highly on factor 1. It was therefore decided to remove the item which loaded separately on factor 2 from the scale, as it was felt that it was not measuring the same variable.

4.9 Mean Scores

4.9.1 Mean Scores for Each Sample Group

In this section, consideration is given to the mean scale scores of both outcome and PCFD indicator scales for each sample group and for the core group.

4.9.2 Mean Values of Measurement Scales

The following shows the views of staff on the PCFD scales and their outcomes.

4.9.2.1 Effect of Gender

Differences can be seen between male and female managers' mean scores on the scale variables, that is the outcome variables and the indicator scales. T-tests were conducted in order to discover if the differences were significant. In this case, as a two-tailed t-test was used, the significance level was regarded as no more than 0.025. As there were no support for diversity scale scores which were significant, further analysis of the sub-scales of support of women and support for minorities was not considered necessary.

Table 27 Distribution of Mean Scale Scores Standard Deviation and T-test Significance of Dependent Variables Measurement Scales for Managers by Gender

Measurement Scale Dependent Variables	All Managers Mean	All Mgrs SD	All Male Managers Mean	All Male Mgrs SD	All Female Managers Mean	All Female Mgrs SD	2-Tailed Significance
Career Commitment	3.25	0.75	3.16	0.69	3.29	0.78	0.223
Career Planning	4.03	0.85	4.11	0.93	4.00	0.83	0.357
Career Satisfaction	4.99	0.99	5.08	1.14	4.92	0.93	0.138
Career Future Satisfaction	4.42	1.24	4.56	1.32	4.30	1.20	0.130
Job Satisfaction	5.34	1.11	5.43	1.17	5.26	1.08	0.994
Satisfaction with Manager	4.81	1.35	4.86	1.27	4.78	1.38	0.693
Organisational Commitment	5.13	0.95	5.19	1.10	5.09	0.99	0.436

Table 28 (above) shows there were no significant differences in the mean scores for the dependent variables.

Table 28 Distribution of Mean Scale Scores Standard Deviation and T-test Significance of Independent Variables Measurement Scales for Managers by Gender

Measurement Scale Independent Variables	All Managers Mean	All Mgrs SD	All Male Managers Mean	All Male Mgrs SD	All Female Managers Mean	All Female Mgrs SD	2-Tailed Significance
Organisational Justice	3.08	0.93	3.11	1.21	3.06	0.81	0.706
Need for Diversity	3.07	0.68	2.91	0.70	3.19	0.66	0.005*
Support for Diversity	1.93	0.45	2.00	0.21	1.86	0.50	0.027

As can be seen from the above table 29, there was a significant difference in mean scale score between male and female managers in terms of need for diversity only. This indicated that females perceived a greater need for diversity at managerial level in the organisation, which supports the results of Kossek and Zonia (1993). Female managers showed higher mean scores than male managers. All other variables are similar enough not to show any significant differences.

4.9.3 Effects of Management Level

The following tables show the effects of management level on the mean scores of the sample.

Table 29 Distribution of Mean Scale Scores and Standard Deviations of Dependent

Variable Measurement Scales for Managers by Level

Measurement Scale	All Junior Managers Mean	All Junior Mgrs SD	All Middle Managers Mean	All Middle Mgrs SD	All Senior Managers Mean	All Senior Mgrs SD
Career Commitment	3.11	0.72	3.37	0.67	3.46	0.90
Career Planning	3.92	0.76	4.11	0.89	4.27	1.02
Career Satisfaction	4.78	0.95	4.96	1.00	5.09	0.81
Career Future Satisfaction	4.11	1.17	4.40	1.37	5.58	0.89
Job Satisfaction	5.13	1.18	5.29	1.06	5.85	0.82
Satisfaction with Manager	4.72	1.40	4.73	1.39	5.21	0.99
Organisational Commitment	4.89	0.95	5.19	1.01	5.63	0.66
Organisational Justice	2.90	0.83	3.12	0.91	3.44	1.18
Need for Diversity	3.07	0.68	3.13	0.63	3.28	0.82
Support for Diversity	1.89	0.46	1.91	0.49	1.88	0.27

Table 29 shows the mean scores for the manager by managerial level. The t-test significance is shown below in table 32.

Table 30 Distribution of Mean Scale Scores and Standard Deviations of Independent

Variable Measurement Scales for Managers by Managerial Level

Measurement Scale	All Junior Managers Mean	All Junior Mgrs SD	All Middle Managers Mean	All Middle Mgrs SD	All Senior Managers Mean	All Senior Mgrs SD
Organisational Justice	2.90	0.83	3.12	0.91	3.44	1.18
Need for Diversity	3.07	0.68	3.13	0.63	3.28	0.82
Support for Diversity	1.89	0.46	1.91	0.49	1.88	0.27

Table 30 shows the mean scores for the independent variables. The t-test significance is shown in table 33.

Table 31 Distribution of T-test Significance of Measurement Scales for Dependent Variables comparing Junior and Middle Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.008*
Career Planning	0.077
Career Satisfaction	0.184
Career Future Satisfaction	0.080
Job Satisfaction	0.300
Satisfaction with Manager	0.988
Organisational Commitment	0.022*

Table 31 shows that there was a significant difference in mean scale scores between junior and middle managers in career planning and organisational commitment; middle managers are significantly more likely to plan their careers. Career planning is seen in the literature as very important to career progression (see Blau 1983 for example). This may perhaps explain to some extent why those middle managers have risen to the level of middle management. Middle managers had higher mean scores. The level of significance for T-tests in this research is 0.025 and below.

Table 32 Distribution of T-test Significance of Measurement Scales for Independent Variables comparing Junior and Middle Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.063
Need for Diversity	0.093
Support for Diversity	0.093

As can be seen from table 32 above, there were no significant differences between the junior and middle management with regard to the independent variables.

Table 33 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variables Measurement

Scales comparing Junior and Senior Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.013*
Career Planning	0.018*
Career Satisfaction	0.000*
Career Future Satisfaction	0.000*
Job Satisfaction	0.000*
Satisfaction with Manager	0.041
Organisational Commitment	0.000*

Table 33 shows that there are 6 significant scores. These are discussed below.

Table 34 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variables Measurement

Scales comparing Junior and Senior Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.001*
Need for Diversity	0.240
Support for Diversity	0.957

In the t-test scores comparing junior and senior managers, six scores are significant: career planning, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational justice. Interestingly, three of the variables are not significantly different: satisfaction with manager, need for diversity and support for diversity. In all variables, the mean score was higher for senior

managers. There appear to be significant differences between junior and senior managers on more variables than between junior and middle managers. Results show that senior managers are more likely to career plan, be career committed, have greater organisational commitment, show career satisfaction, demonstrate career future satisfaction and enjoy job satisfaction.

Table 35 Outcome Variables

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.013*
Career Planning	0.018*
Career Satisfaction	0.000*
Career Future Satisfaction	0.000*
Job Satisfaction	0.000*
Satisfaction with Manager	0.041
Organisational Commitment	0.000*

The above table shows an interesting result; as with the relationship shown between junior and middle managers, it may mean that senior managers are more successful because they plan their careers and are more committed. A possible result of this, is that they may have higher career satisfaction, career commitment, career future satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. However, it could also be that they are more committed because they are in that position and feel that the organisation has supported and rewarded them in a way which junior managers could not feel, being in a lower position in the hierarchy.

Table 36 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variables Measurement

Scales comparing Middle and Senior Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.566
Career Planning	0.380
Career Satisfaction	0.000*
Career Future Satisfaction	0.004*
Job Satisfaction	0.002*
Satisfaction with Manager	0.048
Organisational Commitment	0.014*

Table 36 shows that there are 4 significant scores. These are discussed below.

Table 37 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variables Measurement

Scales comparing Middle and Senior Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.044
Need for Diversity	0.497
Support for Diversity	0.768

When comparing mean scale scores for middle and senior management, the significant scores of 0.025 or under are represented by career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Again, the mean scores were highest for senior managers, for all significant variables. The reasons for this may be also with junior and senior managers, that is commitment increases with management level. Whether this is because position engenders such feelings (as previously mentioned) or because individuals with these attitudes and perceptions are more likely to progress, it is hard to say. However, certainly career planning is seen by many researchers (see literature chapter) as a way of aiding career progression.

Table 38 Distribution of Mean Scale Scores and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales for all Male Managers

Measurement Scale	Junior Male Manager Mean	Junior Male Mgr SD	Middle Male Managers Mean	Middle Male Mgrs SD	Senior Male Managers Mean	Senior Male Mgrs SD
Career Commitment	3.11	0.78	3.26	0.46	3.11	0.76
Career Planning	4.23	0.98	3.83	0.92	4.28	0.82
Career Satisfaction	4.77	1.27	4.89	0.83	5.73	0.96
Career Future Satisfaction	4.12	1.52	4.65	1.09	5.20	0.81
Job Satisfaction	5.14	1.33	5.33	0.94	6.21	0.69
Satisfaction with Manager	4.74	1.59	5.00	1.05	5.03	0.70
Organisational Commitment	4.80	1.20	5.24	0.90	5.88	0.77

Table 38 shows the mean scores for independent variables. The t-test scores are shown below in table 39.

Table 39 Distribution of Mean Scale Scores and Standard Deviations of Independent Variable Measurement Scales for all Male Managers

Measurement Scale	Junior Male Manager Mean	Junior Male Mgr SD	Middle Male Managers Mean	Middle Male Mgrs SD	Senior Male Managers Mean	Senior Male Mgrs SD
Need for Diversity	3.13	0.68	2.97	0.62	2.93	0.87
Support for Diversity	1.85	0.21	2.01	0.20	1.96	0.22
Organisational Justice	2.65	0.95	3.18	0.80	3.91	1.64

The above table shows mean scores for all male managers. The t-test results are shown in table 40, below.

Table 40 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales Comparing Junior Male and Middle Male Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.135
Career Planning	0.135
Career Satisfaction	0.878
Career Future Satisfaction	0.183
Job Satisfaction	0.476
Satisfaction with Manager	0.365
Organisational Commitment	0.156

Table 41 shows that from the t-test scores comparing junior males and middle males there are no scores showing a significance level of 0.025 or under.

Table 41 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement

Scales Comparing Junior Male and Middle Male Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.044
Need for Diversity	0.820
Support for Diversity	0.963

Table 42 shows that from the t-test scores comparing the significance of independent variable scales for junior males and middle males, there are no significant differences. This is an interesting finding, as there are no significant differences between junior male and middle male managers in terms of mean scores for the outcomes or for the recognition scale. Although there are obviously mean differences, none of them were significant. This may mean that the two groups are similar in terms of their attitudes and perceptions.

Table 42 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales

Comparing Junior Male and Senior Male Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.975
Career Planning	0.848
Career Satisfaction	0.010*
Career Future Satisfaction	0.009*
Job Satisfaction	0.003*
Satisfaction with Manager	0.325
Organisational Commitment	0.002*

Table 43 shows the significant scores for dependent variables. These are discussed below.

Table 43 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement Scales Comparing Junior Male and Senior Male Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.002*
Need for Diversity	0.614
Support for Diversity	0.508

A significance level of 0.025 or under is used in comparing junior male managers with senior male managers. There are significant differences in the following: career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, and job satisfaction, as well as organisational commitment and organisational justice. For all variables showing a significant difference, senior managers showed higher mean scores. It is interesting that, although there are no significant differences between male junior and male middle managers, there are significant differences between male junior and male senior managers. These differences again are similar to the overall sample differences in management level discussed earlier. However, no differences were found in terms of career planning, which one might expect, given the earlier overall sample results. Differences in terms of satisfaction and organisational commitment were shown, however. These results imply that there are differences in attitudes and perceptions between junior and senior managers, but not between junior and middle managers.

Table 44 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales for Comparing Middle Male and Senior Male Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.458
Career Planning	0.122
Career Satisfaction	0.003*
Career Future Satisfaction	0.072
Job Satisfaction	0.002*
Satisfaction with Manager	0.837
Organisational Commitment	0.026

Table 44 shows the dependent variables, which show significant differences between the mean scores. These are discussed below.

Table 45 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement Scales for Comparing Middle Male and Senior Male Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.091
Need for Diversity	0.521
Support for Diversity	0.502

Significance of 0.025 or under is represented by career satisfaction and job satisfaction in this comparison of middle male and senior male managers. Once again, for all variables which are significantly different, senior managers present higher means, in

career satisfaction and job satisfaction (as with the comparison between junior and senior managers). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment may once again relate to the senior manager's position, where they are very likely to have much more control over their jobs, the tasks that they perform, and the way they perform them, leading possibly to greater overall satisfaction and commitment to the organisation that allows these freedoms. This also shows that there appears to be an increased difference concerning attitudes and perceptions between individuals at different management levels, with junior managers being more similar to middle than senior managers. This could be due to attitudes of individuals, or the individual's position in the management hierarchy creating a different interpretation in attitudes and perceptions, and therefore leading to a different climate at each management level.

Table 46 Distribution of Mean Scale Scores and Standard Deviation of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales for Female Managers

Measurement Scale	Junior Female Manager Mean	Junior Female Mgr SD	Middle Female Managers Mean	Middle Female Mgr SD	Senior Female Managers Mean	Senior Female Mgrs SD
Career Commitment	3.10	0.71	3.43	0.73	3.71	0.93
Career Planning	3.82	0.67	4.22	0.87	4.26	1.15
Career Satisfaction	4.77	0.85	4.96	1.05	5.48	0.68
Career Future Satisfaction	4.12	1.03	4.34	1.45	5.01	0.95
Job Satisfaction	5.14	1.15	5.32	1.03	5.64	0.82
Satisfaction with Manager	4.74	1.46	4.66	1.48	5.31	1.13
Organisational Commitment	4.92	0.88	5.23	0.98	5.46	0.54

Table 46 shows the means scores for female managers. The t-test results are shown in table 47.

Table 47 Distribution of Mean Scale Scores and Standard Deviation of Independent Variable Measurement Scales for Female Managers

Measurement Scale	Junior Female Manager Mean	Junior Female Mgr SD	Middle Female Managers Mean	Middle Female Mgr SD	Senior Female Managers Mean	Senior Female Mgrs SD
Need for Diversity	3.13	0.67	3.16	0.61	3.51	0.66
Support for Diversity	1.85	0.50	1.88	0.56	1.83	0.29
Organisational Justice	2.99	0.77	3.13	0.93	3.15	0.62

The above table shows mean scores for all women managers on the independent variables. The t-test results are shown in table 48, below.

Table 48 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales

Comparing Junior Female and Senior Female Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.001*
Career Planning	0.013*
Career Satisfaction	0.000*
Career Future Satisfaction	0.000*
Job Satisfaction	0.045
Satisfaction with Manager	0.056
Organisational Commitment	0.004*

Table 48 shows the significance of means for the dependent variables. These are discussed below.

Table 49 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement

Scales Comparing Junior Female and Senior Female Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.368
Need for Diversity	0.015*
Support for Diversity	0.820

The mean scale scores of junior and senior female managers show significant differences in terms of the mean differences for career commitment, career planning, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, organisational commitment and need for diversity. In each case, the mean is higher for senior female managers.

The above results are very similar to the male manager results, showing that what appears to be particularly important in terms of PCFD model outcomes is management level. In this instance, one indicator of a PCFD, need for diversity, also shows a significant difference between junior and senior female managers, with senior female managers seeing greater need for diversity than junior managers. This is an interesting result, and may relate to the number of women in senior management in the sample organisations. Although it is not possible to say that the percentage of women in senior management in those organisations is low compared to males (due to lack of full records kept by the organisations), overall in UK organisations (see Social Trends 1997), senior managers are more likely to be male. Therefore, the women who have reached higher positions may be more aware of the lack of diversity at such management levels. They may see the need for diversity, compared with lower levels of management, where there may be more diversity present in the organisation.

Table 50 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales

Comparing Junior Female and Middle Female Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.007*
Career Planning	0.001*
Career Satisfaction	0.176
Career Future Satisfaction	0.231
Job Satisfaction	0.293
Satisfaction with Manager	0.710
Organisational Commitment	0.034

Table 50 shows the significant scores for dependent variables. These are discussed below.

Table 51 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement Scales Comparing Junior Female and Middle Female Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.288
Need for Diversity	0.723
Support for Diversity	0.800

In comparing junior and middle female managers, only one score is significantly different, that of career planning, although career commitment does have a significance of 0.027, very close to the 0.025 significance level used here. Once again the higher level managers, in this case middle managers, present a higher mean for both variables; career planning and career commitment.

Although there are fewer significant differences between female junior and middle managers than between female junior and senior managers, both career planning and career commitment do show significant differences. This result is particularly interesting, as male junior and senior managers show no significant differences in these scales. Career commitment and career planning appear to increase with management level for women in the sample organisations. It may be that this is due to women who do plan their careers and are committed to it doing better, or that those in higher positions have these attitudes, as they are in these positions already; therefore it, may be a function of personality or position, as mentioned earlier.

Table 52 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales

Comparing Middle Female and Senior Female Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.155
Career Planning	0.881
Career Satisfaction	0.028
Career Future Satisfaction	0.042
Job Satisfaction	0.172
Satisfaction with Manager	0.052
Organisational Commitment	0.268

Table 52 shows the significant differences in terms of the dependent variables. These are discussed below.

Table 53 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement

Scales Comparing Middle Female and Senior Female Management Core Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.948
Need for Diversity	0.025*
Support for Diversity	0.706

Only one variable is significantly different in the comparison of middle female and senior female management, that of need for diversity. Senior managers show the higher mean score for the need for diversity scale. This suggests that possibly they may perceive more barriers for diversity in the organisation. They may also see the value of having human resource diversity in the organisation. This is not shown in the

male samples, and therefore adds support to this thesis. There appears to be a real difference in attitudes as management level increases, with junior managers being most different from senior managers, and middle managers sitting in the middle position with regard to attitudes and perceptions.

4.10 Mean Scores and T-Tests for NHS and Retail

4.10.1 NHS Management

In this next section the mean scores and t-tests for the different organisations are shown.

Table 54 Distribution of Mean Scale Scores and Standard Deviation (SD) of Dependent

Variable Measurement Scales for NHS Management

Measurement Scale	NHS Junior Management Mean	NHS Junior Mgt SD	NHS Middle Management Mean	NHS Middle Mgt SD	NHS Senior Management Mean	NHS Senior Mgt SD
Career Commitment	3.13	0.73	3.43	0.65	3.54	0.90
Career Planning	3.89	0.77	4.12	0.89	4.25	1.10
Career Satisfaction	4.75	0.96	4.88	1.01	5.58	0.81
Career Future Satisfaction	4.04	1.18	4.33	1.40	5.10	0.93
Job Satisfaction	5.07	1.19	5.26	1.09	5.87	0.85
Satisfaction with Manager	4.75	1.42	4.81	1.44	5.28	0.98
Organisational Commitment	4.82	0.93	5.17	1.02	5.62	0.67

Table 54 shows the mean scores of the dependent variables. The t-test scores are shown in table 55.

Table 55 Distribution of Mean Scale Scores and Standard Deviation (SD) of

Independent Variable Measurement Scales for NHS Management

Measurement Scale	NHS Junior Management Mean	NHS Junior Mgt SD	NHS Middle Management Mean	NHS Middle Mgt SD	NHS Senior Management Mean	NHS Senior Mgt SD
Organisational Justice	2.86	0.83	3.08	0.93	3.42	1.22
Need for Diversity	3.07	0.69	3.14	0.55	3.26	0.83
Support Diversity	1.88	0.47	1.91	0.53	1.87	0.28

The above table shows mean scores and standard deviations of the independent variables for all NHS managers.

Table 56 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales

Comparing NHS Junior and NHS Senior Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.006*
Career Planning	0.022*
Career Satisfaction	0.000*
Career Future Satisfaction	0.000*
Job Satisfaction	0.000*
Satisfaction with Manager	0.034
Organisational Commitment	0.000*

Table 56 shows the significant scores for the dependent variables. These are discussed below.

Table 57 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement

Scales Comparing NHS Junior and NHS Senior Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.357
Need for Diversity	0.190
Support for Diversity	0.930

Differences which are significant in the above t-test are career planning, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In all but one variable, support for diversity, senior managers show higher mean scores. This result is very similar to the overall sample result, where as management level increases, so do positive job, career and organisation perceptions and attitudes.

Table 58 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales

Comparing NHS Junior and NHS Middle Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.006*
Career Planning	0.052
Career Satisfaction	0.341
Career Future Satisfaction	0.120
Job Satisfaction	0.243
Satisfaction with Manager	0.789
Organisational Commitment	0.014*

Table 58 shows the significant scores of the dependent variables for junior and middle NHS managers. These are discussed below.

Table 59 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement Scales Comparing NHS Junior and NHS Middle Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.098
Need for Diversity	0.489
Support for Diversity	0.680

Two differences in the mean are significant when comparing NHS junior and middle management. These are for career planning (with middle management making more use of it than junior managers) and organisational commitment (with middle managers being more committed to the organisation). Once again, career planning is being used more frequently by middle managers compared to junior managers, and enhanced career commitment is shown as management level increases.

Table 60 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales

Comparing NHS Middle and NHS Senior Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.465
Career Planning	0.497
Career Satisfaction	0.000*
Career Future Satisfaction	0.003*
Job Satisfaction	0.004*
Satisfaction with Manager	0.070
Organisational Commitment	0.016*

Table 60 shows the significant differences comparing middle and senior NHS managers, for the dependent variables.

Table 61 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement

Scales Comparing NHS Middle and NHS Senior Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.002*
Need for Diversity	0.395
Support for Diversity	0.693

Table 61 shows the significantly different scores for the independent variables.

When comparing NHS middle and senior management, five significant differences come to light; that is, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, job satisfaction, Organisational commitment and organisational justice. Senior managers present

higher mean scores on all the significant variables. This result reflects similar earlier results, where job, career and organisational scores are higher with increased management level.

4.10.2 Distribution of T-Test Significance of Measurement Scales Comparing Male and Female NHS Managers

This section shows the results of the t-tests comparing male and female NHS managers.

Table 62 Distribution of T-Test Significance and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales in the NHS by Gender

Measurement Scale	All Male NHS Managers Mean	All Male NHS Mgrs SD	All Female NHS Managers Mean	All female NHS Mgrs SD
Career Commitment	3.18	0.71	3.33	0.77
Career Planning	4.13	0.93	4.98	0.83
Career Satisfaction	5.00	1.20	4.88	0.94
Career Future Satisfaction	4.51	1.40	4.24	1.20
Job Satisfaction	5.44	1.22	5.20	1.20
Satisfaction with Manager	4.97	1.30	4.81	1.41
Organisational Commitment	5.18	1.10	5.04	0.90

Table 62 shows the mean scores for male and female NHS managers on the dependent variables. The t-tests scores for these are shown in table 63.

Table 63 Distribution of T-Test Significance and Standard Deviations of Independent

Variable Measurement Scales in the NHS by Gender

Measurement Scale	All Male NHS Managers Mean	All Male NHS Mgrs SD	All Female NHS Managers Mean	All female NHS Mgrs SD
Organisational Justice	3.05	1.27	3.02	0.82
Need for Diversity	2.92	0.70	3.19	0.65
Support for Diversity	2.00	0.22	1.86	0.52

Table 63 shows the mean scores for male and female NHS managers for the independent variables. The t-test significant differences are shown in table 64.

Table 64 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales

for Comparing NHS Male and NHS Female Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.182
Career Planning	0.266
Career Satisfaction	0.407
Career Future Satisfaction	0.166
Job Satisfaction	0.162
Satisfaction with Manager	0.436
Organisational Commitment	0.316

Table 64 shows the t-test results for the dependent variables. These are discussed below.

Table 65 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement

Scales for Comparing NHS Male and NHS Female Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.602
Need for Diversity	0.007*
Support for Diversity	0.041

A significant difference was found when comparing the means for men and women in the NHS in terms of need for diversity. The differences indicate that women are more likely to see the need for diversity in the organisation. This may be because there are likely to be fewer females in management overall; therefore, female managers see a need for it. Male NHS managers showed lower career commitment than female NHS managers; however, this, is not a significant difference.

4.10.3 Retail Management

Now presented are mean scores and t-test for retail management.

Table 66 Distribution of Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variable

Measurement Scales for Retail Management

Measurement Scales	Retail Junior Management Mean	Retail Junior Mgt SD	Retail Middle Management Mean	Retail Middle Mgt SD	Retail Senior Management Mean	Retail Senior Mgt SD
Career Commitment	2.90	0.55	3.13	0.77	2.54	0.51
Career Planning	4.20	0.61	4.08	0.93	4.56	1.26
Career Satisfaction	5.18	0.51	5.38	0.82	6.00	0.87
Career Future Satisfaction	4.85	0.87	4.85	1.10	5.22	0.19
Job Satisfaction	5.85	0.74	5.44	0.87	6.00	0.33
Satisfaction with Manager	4.40	0.99	4.27	0.97	4.33	0.58
Organisational Commitment	5.68	0.80	5.33	0.99	5.78	0.69

Table 66 shows the mean scores for dependent variable of the RC sample. The t-test results are shown in table 70.

Table 67 Distribution of Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Independent Variable

Measurement Scales for Retail Management

Measurement Scales	Retail Junior Management Mean	Retail Junior Mgt SD	Retail Middle Management Mean	Retail Middle Mgt SD	Retail Senior Management Mean	Retail Senior Mgt SD
Organisational Justice	3.40	0.63	3.42	0.75	3.79	0.62
Need for Diversity	3.05	0.55	3.09	1.02	2.87	0.64
Support for Diversity	1.96	0.12	1.89	0.19	2.00	0.00

Table 67 shows the mean scores for the independent variables (RC sample). The t-test results are shown in table 68.

Table 68 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales

Comparing Retail Junior and Retail Senior Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.332
Career Planning	0.543
Career Satisfaction	0.054
Career Future Satisfaction	0.488
Job Satisfaction	0.740
Satisfaction with Manager	0.915
Organisational Commitment	0.847

Table 68 shows that there are no significant t-test differences for the dependent variables in the RC sample.

Table 69 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement

Scales Comparing Retail Junior and Retail Senior Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.357
Need for Diversity	0.621
Support for Diversity	0.621

No significant differences between the means have been found in retail management.

However, as the sample is small, this may have influenced the results; perhaps a larger

sample may have produced different results. However, it is still a very interesting result, as it appears to show that male and female managers in retail are more similar to one another than male and female managers in the NHS.

Table 70 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales Comparing Retail Junior and Retail Middle Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.421
Career Planning	0.698
Career Satisfaction	0.486
Career Future Satisfaction	0.996
Job Satisfaction	0.226
Satisfaction with Manager	0.754
Organisational Commitment	0.368

Table 70 shows that there are no significant differences in the means for the dependent variables.

Table 71 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement Scales Comparing Retail Junior and Retail Middle Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.949
Need for Diversity	0.914
Support for Diversity	0.301

Both the above tables show that no significant differences were found between retail junior and middle managers. Again, this could relate to sample size or to the make up of the sample. Individuals may have similar perceptions of their work-related individual and organisational outcomes.

Table 72 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales Comparing Retail Middle and Retail Senior Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.236
Career Planning	0.486
Career Satisfaction	0.265
Career Future Satisfaction	0.575
Job Satisfaction	0.296
Satisfaction with Manager	0.915
Organisational Commitment	0.480

Table 72 shows that there are no significant differences in the mean scores for the dependent variables.

Table 73 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement Scales Comparing Retail Middle and Retail Senior Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.441
Need for Diversity	0.724
Support for Diversity	0.364

No significant differences were found in either the dependent or independent variables. Again, this may relate to the sample, or reflect the fact that respondents have similar perceptions and attitudes at all managerial levels in this organisation. These are interesting results, as management level (as with gender shown earlier) appears to have no influence on the attitudes and perceptions of managers working in the retail sample. This could be because of the nature of the organisation's climate, or the small size of the sample.

Table 74 Distribution of Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales for Retail Managers by Gender

Measurement Scales	Retail Management Male Mean	Retail Mgt Male SD	Retail Management Female Mean	Retail Mgt Female SD
Career Commitment	3.08	0.56	2.98	0.73
Career Planning	4.05	1.02	4.25	0.80
Career Satisfaction	5.45	0.65	5.31	0.79
Career Future Satisfaction	4.85	0.69	4.92	1.09
Job Satisfaction	5.36	0.91	5.88	0.63
Satisfaction with Manager	4.23	0.88	4.40	0.97
Organisational Commitment	5.26	1.09	5.70	0.69

Table 74 shows the mean scores of dependent variables for RC managers by gender.

The t-test results are shown in table 75, below.

Table 75 Distribution of Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Independent Variable Measurement Scales for Retail Managers by Gender

Measurement Scales	Retail Management Male Mean	Retail Mgt Male SD	Retail Management Female Mean	Retail Mgt Female SD
Organisational Justice	3.36	0.79	3.51	0.61
Need for Diversity	2.91	0.78	3.15	0.82
Support for Diversity	1.98	0.17	1.90	0.15

Table 75 shows the mean scores of the independent variables for RC managers when comparing gender. Table 76 below shows the t-test results.

Table 76 Distribution of T-test Significance of Dependent Variable Measurement Scales Comparing Retail Male and Retail Female Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Career Commitment	0.479
Career Planning	0.581
Career Satisfaction	0.628
Career Future Satisfaction	0.856
Job Satisfaction	0.097
Satisfaction with Manager	0.644
Organisational Commitment	0.210

Table 76 shows the t-test results for the dependent variables. The results are discussed below.

Table 77 Distribution of T-test Significance of Independent Variable Measurement

Scales Comparing Retail Male and Retail Female Management Sample

Variable	2-Tail Significance
Organisational Justice	0.603
Need for Diversity	0.451
Support for Diversity	0.060

No significant differences have been found between males' and females' mean scores in the above tabulation, comparing male and female retail managers. This contrasts with the NHS. So, from this small sample, it might be possible to suggest that male and female retail managers are more like each other than male and female NHS managers.

4.10.4 Comparison of NHS and RC

Comparing the responses regarding whether organisations give career breaks shows that the null hypothesis is not supported (significance level was 0.014). That is, there was a difference between the two organisations' perception of career breaks being present in the organisation. Those in the NHS sample were more aware of career breaks than RC were. It appeared that it was easier for those in some of the NHS Trusts to take a career break than respondents in RC.

The significance test for the scale 'career future satisfaction' also does not support the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the two groups (significance of

0.018). Managers from RC are more likely to be satisfied with their future career prospects when compared to the NHS sample.

The independent t-test has been conducted on the career satisfaction variable. A significance level of 0.023 indicates rejection of the null hypothesis. This indicates that there is a significant difference between the two sample groups. In this case, RC managers are more satisfied with their careers than Trust managers.

With regard to the childcare variable, the null hypothesis was also rejected (significance = 0.000); therefore the two groups do present a different picture. NHS Trust managers were more likely to be aware of childcare provision within their organisation than RC managers. This was due to the fact that NHS Trusts did in some cases provide it, whereas RC did not provide childcare.

Other significant differences between the two sample groups were found over flexible working hours, organisational commitment and organisational justice.

When considering gender, the t-tests presented some interesting results. Women were more likely to be aware of childcare provision than men, and were more likely to see a need for diversity in the organisation. However, men were significantly more likely to state that their organisation had a mentoring system in practice.

A summary of the results of t-test conducted on all variables is shown below.

Table 78 Results of the T-test between Organisations Showing Independent Variables in which the Null Hypothesis is Rejected

Variable	Significance
Career Breaks	0.014*
Career Future Satisfaction	0.018*
Career Satisfaction	0.023*
Childcare Provided	0.000*
Does the Org have EO Policy	0.030
Seen EO Policy	0.049
Flexible Working Hours	0.000*
Organisational Commitment	0.016*

The above table, Table 78 shows the t-test results for independent variables.

Table 79 Results of the T-test between Organisations Showing Independent Variable in which the Null Hypothesis is Rejected

Variable	Significance
Organisational Justice	0.022*

Table 79 shows the t-test results for organisational justice.

Table 80 Results of the T-test between Genders Showing Independent Variables in which the Null Hypothesis is Rejected

Variable	Significance
Childcare Provided	0.019*
Need for Diversity	0.005*
Support for Diversity	0.027
Mentoring System in Practice	0.001*

As can be seen from the Table 80, there were significant differences between male and female respondents with regard to several variables. Firstly, in terms of awareness of childcare, the female sample was more aware of it being provided than the male sample was. In terms of need for diversity, women were more aware of a need for diversity in their organisation at managerial level. Support for diversity is shown as having a significance level of 0.027, over the 0.025 level of significance used in this study. It is still useful to point out that the male sample believed that there was more support for diversity in the organisation than did the female sample. In terms of mentoring, the male sample was much more aware of mentoring taking place in the organisation than the female sample. This suggests that males were perhaps more likely to be mentored than females.

4.11 Chi-Square

The chi-square test is used to discover if there are differences between the expected and given answers of men and women. Chi-square looks for significant differences between male and female scores. Data has been pooled into two-way tables.

For the whole sample, significant differences between the scores of men and women have been detected in two areas; firstly support for diversity scale (significance level of 0.004) and support for women sub-scale (significance level 0.000) and secondly, whether the organisation had a mentoring system in place (significance level of 0.007). Men were more likely to perceive that the organisation was supporting diversity than women. Men were also more likely to perceive a mentoring system to be in place. These results support the t-test results; that is, gender is an important factor in moderating the model variables. Mentoring was also supported by the analysis of variance result; that is, there was a difference between men and women on whether they were aware of mentoring in the organisation. Men were more aware of mentoring than women.

4.11.1 NHS Versus Retail

A comparison using chi-square was conducted between the NHS sample as a whole and RC. The results for the NHS show that support for diversity and mentor variables both show a significant chi-square score, significance level of 0.005 and 0.001 respectively; similar to the difference recorded in gender, with the support for women sub-scale at a significance level of 0.000. NHS respondents showed more need for diversity and more awareness of mentor systems. In the NHS, women were more likely to perceive a need for diversity and men were more aware of mentoring system. There are no significant differences in scores for RC, much as the t-test results show. Interestingly, RC shows no difference between men and women as a whole when investigated using chi-square analysis.

4.11.2 Managerial level in the Whole Sample

Chi-square scores on managerial level show that there are significant differences for the following variables; career breaks (score of 0.01), career satisfaction (0.005) copy of EO policy (0.004) and flexible working hours (0.02). The higher level of the manager, the more likely he or she is to perceive or experience these.

4.11.3 Gender and Level of the Whole Sample

4.11.3.1 Senior Management

Chi-square scores for gender and hierarchical level show that there is a difference for men and women at senior managerial level with regard to the mentor variable (0.01), and the particular organisation in which an individual was employed (the sample organisation). Once again, men were more aware of mentoring being present than women.

4.11.3.2 Middle Management

Chi-square scores show differences between men and women in middle management with regard to the mentor variable (0.005), with men more likely to be aware of mentoring than women.

4.11.3.3 Junior Management

Chi-square scores show significant differences between men and women with respect to the following variables (significance levels are in brackets): career planning (0.02), career satisfaction (0.09), support for diversity (0.03), with support for women (sub-

scale significance level at 0.000), organisational justice (0.03), and childcare vouchers (0.08). Men scored more highly on all variables except organisational justice.

4.11.3.4 Differences between Men and Women

The above results are very interesting, as they show significant differences between men and women in the sample, particularly at the junior managerial level. This may be due to many women being in the junior management sample compared to the more homogeneous middle and senior management groups. However, results appear to agree with the t-test results.

4.12 Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management

Sample

Pearson's correlation coefficient which is a "measure of linear association between two variables" (SPSS help section, no page number given), was used in this research. In this section, the PCFD and outcome variables were measured against each other to see if there were any relationships between them. As can be seen from the tables in Appendix B, correlation coefficients were obtained for variables in the PCFD model.

4.12.1 Correlation Coefficients and Association Between Model Variables of the

Whole Sample

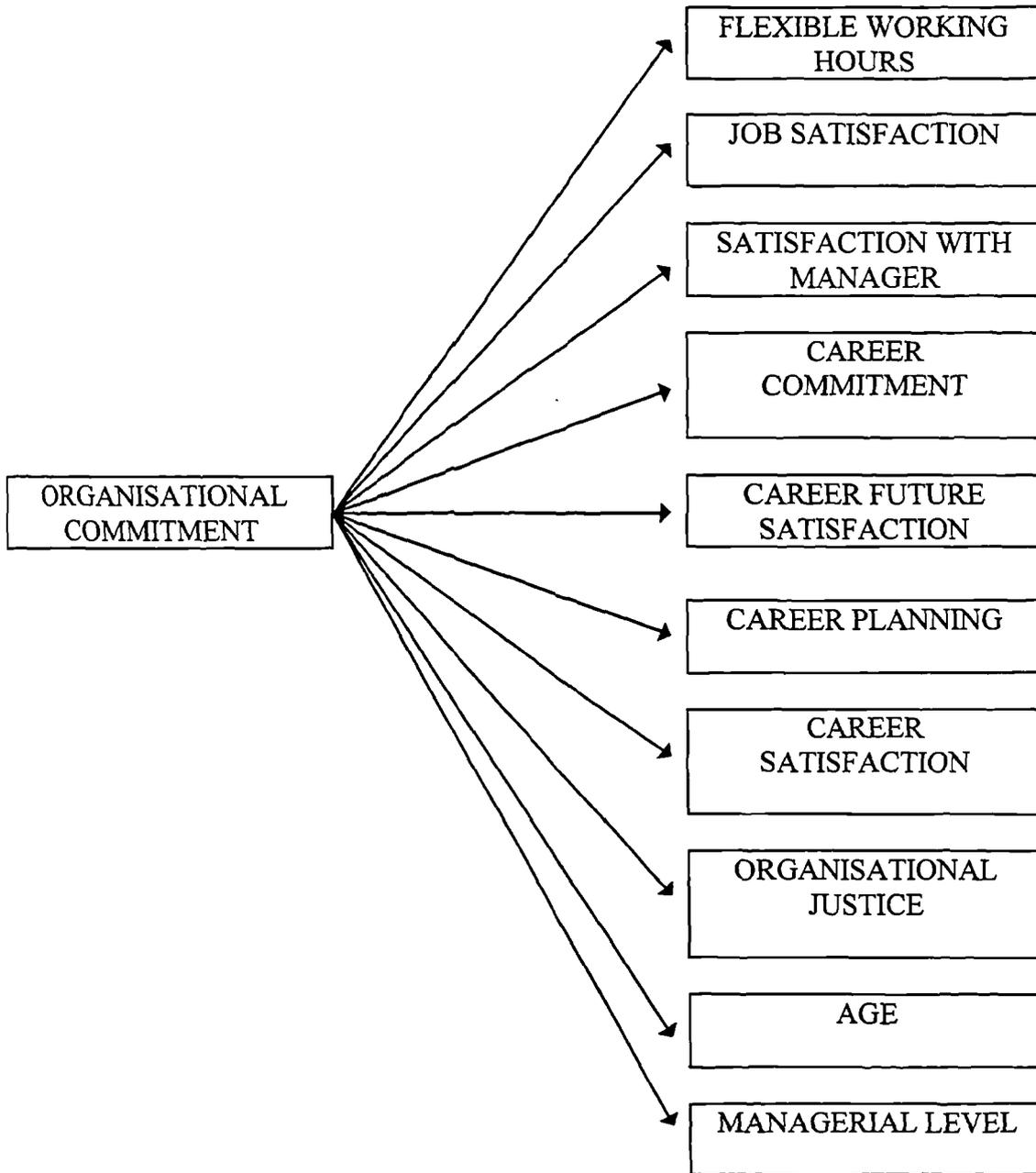
Association between variables is strongest if the correlation coefficient, that is, 'r', = 1; this is perfect association. In this instance, the majority of correlations are weak. However, some associations show stronger correlations than others; for example satisfaction with manager and career future satisfaction, $r = 0.5490$.

A summary of the correlation coefficient matrix relationships, given in written and diagrammatic format, is shown below.

4.12.2 Organisational Commitment

Linear associations were found between organisational commitment and the following variables: flexible working hours, job satisfaction, satisfaction with manager, career commitment, career future satisfaction, career planning and career satisfaction, organisational justice, age and managerial level. Figure 4 below shows this in diagrammatic format.

Figure 4 The Correlation between Organisational Commitment and Model Variables

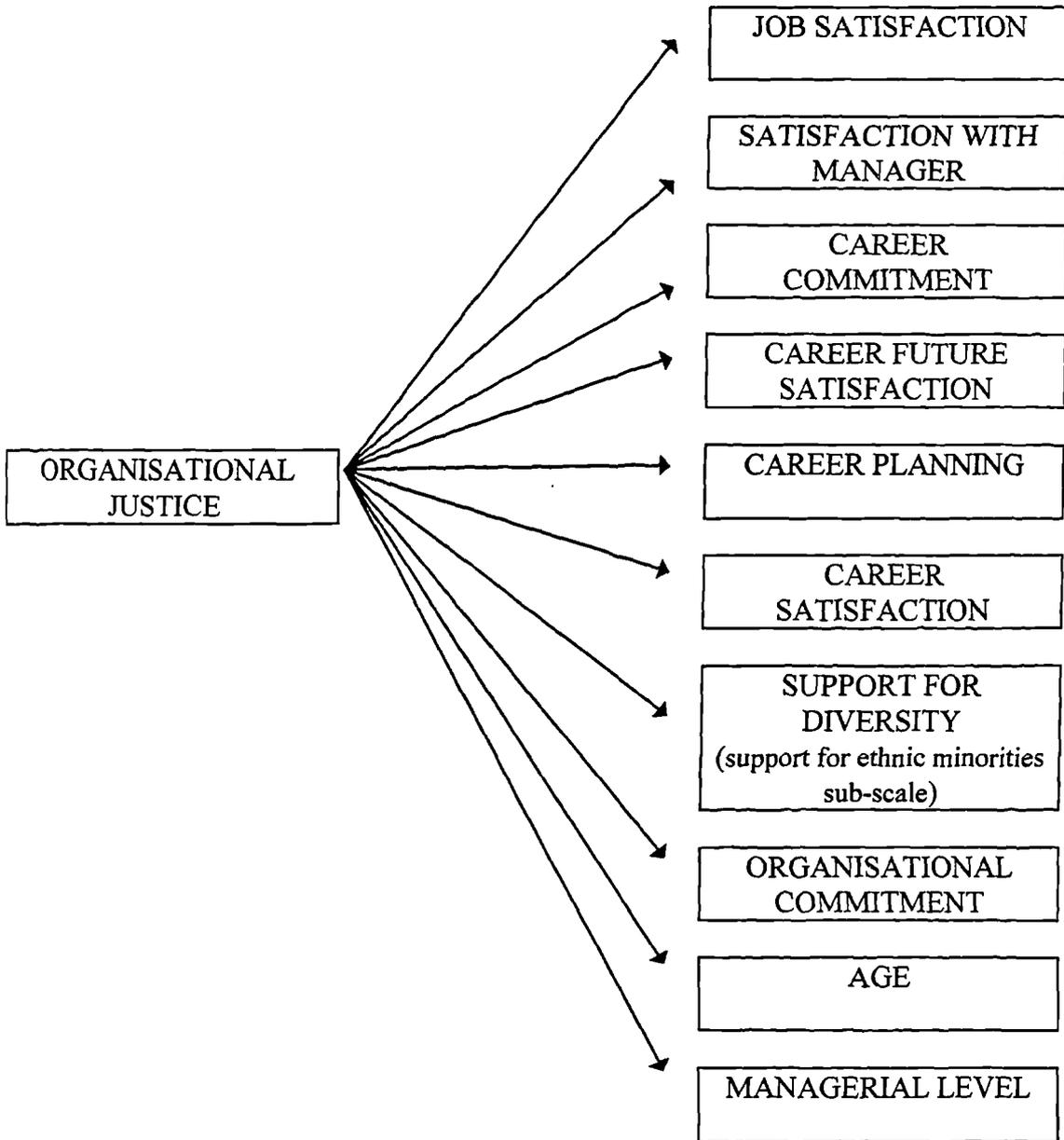


It appears that the relationships shown support the PCFD model. Interestingly, there are relationships shown here between the model outcome variables. This may be an area for future research to consider.

4.12.3 Organisational Justice

Linear associations were found between organisational justice and the following variables: job satisfaction, satisfaction with manager, career commitment, career future satisfaction, career planning and career satisfaction, support for diversity (sub-scale support for ethnic minorities $r = 0.2940$, $p = .000$. Support for women $r = 0.1128$, $p = 0.66$), organisational commitment, age and managerial level. Figure 5 below represents these relationships in diagrammatic format.

Figure 5 The Correlation between Organisational Justice and Model Variables



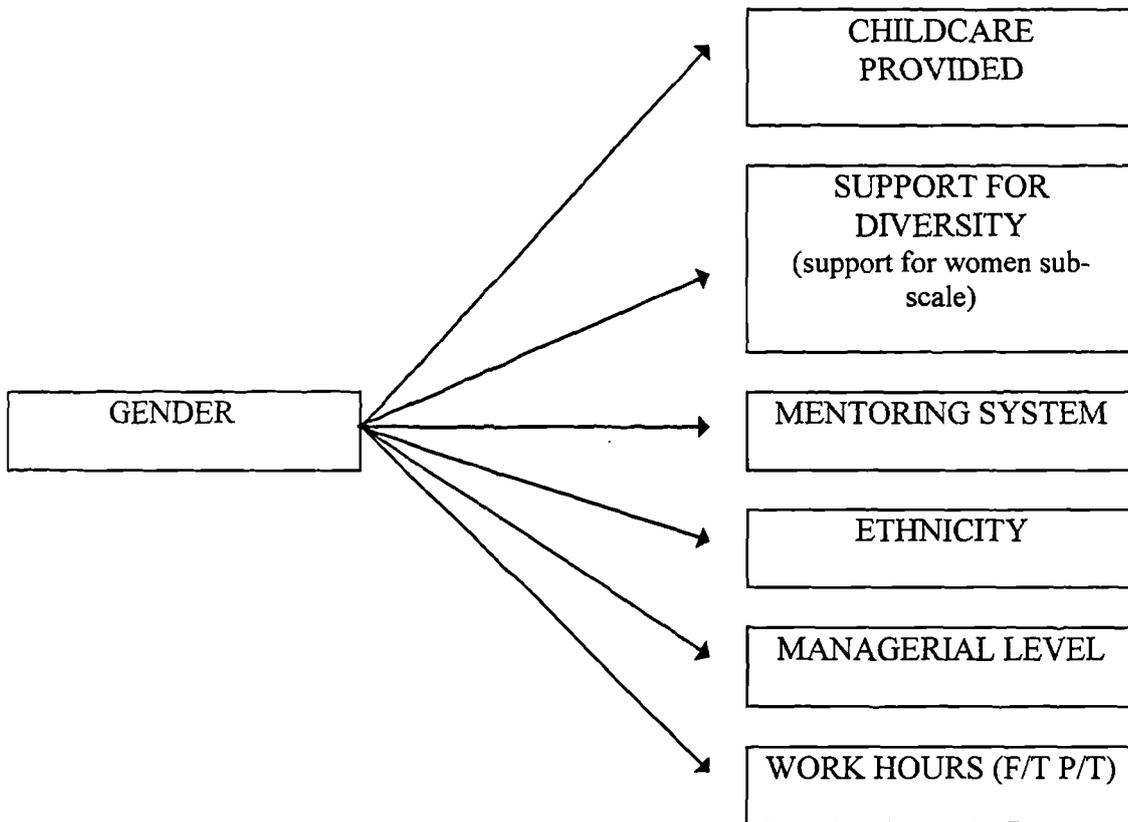
Organisational justice is an independent variable in the PCFD model. It appears to have a relationship not only with the outcomes, but with the moderator variable of support for diversity, and with the sub-scale, 'support for ethnic minorities'. The hypothesis one could make from this relationship is that, if ethnic minorities are

supported in the organisation, then it is seen as having organisational justice. It appears that organisational justice may increase with age and management level.

4.12.4 Gender

Linear associations were found between gender and the following variables: childcare provided, support for diversity (support for women $r = -0.3324$ $p = 0.000$ showing a negative correlation between the variables), mentoring system, ethnicity, managerial level and work hours (full-time - F/t or part-time - P/t). Figure 6 represents these relationships in diagrammatic format. Gender shows some interesting relationships, replicating some of the chi-squared results. Gender influences awareness of mentoring. As Kossek and Zonia (1993) found, gender also shows a positive relationship with support for diversity, in particular the sub-scale, support for women. As one may expect, gender also influenced knowledge of childcare. As women are often the main child-carers, this result is not surprising.

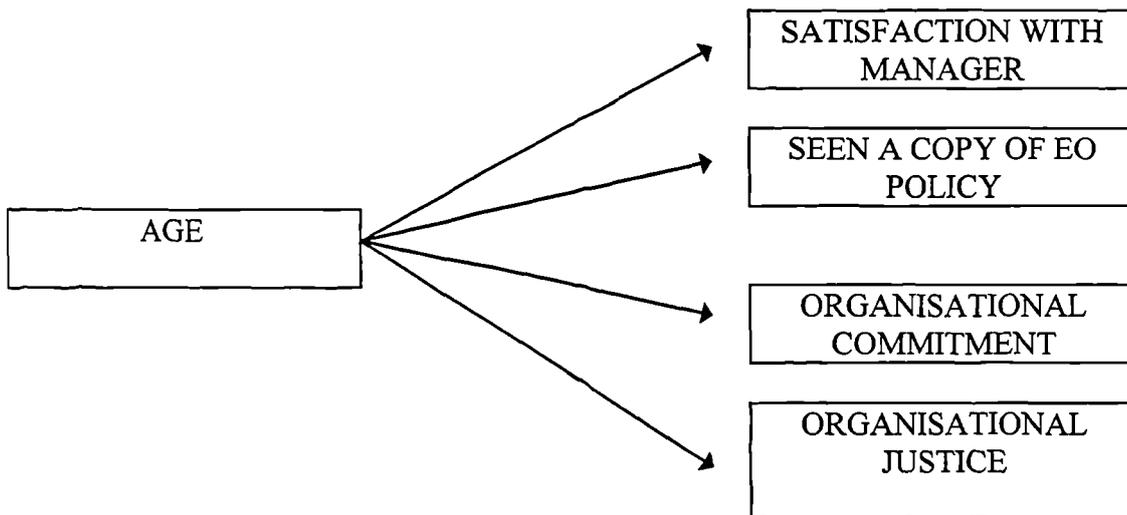
Figure 6 The Correlation between Organisational Commitment and Model Variables



4.12.5 Age

Linear associations were found between age and the following variables: satisfaction with manager, seen a copy of EO policy, organisational commitment and organisational justice. These relationships are shown below in Figure 7. This moderating variable show an interesting relationship with satisfaction with manager, increasing with age.

Figure 7 The Correlation between Age and Model Variables

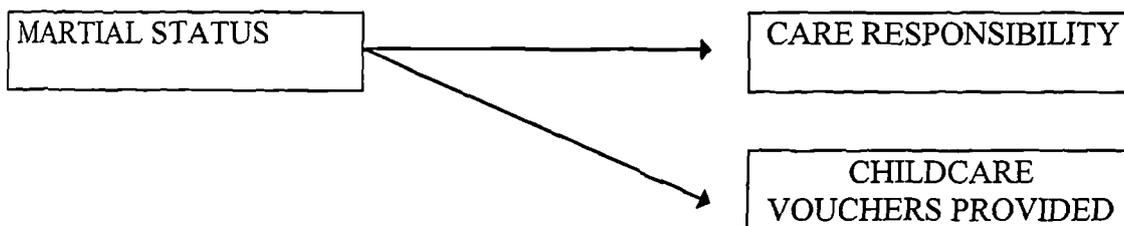


4.12.6 Marital Status

Linear associations were found between marital status and the following variables:

care responsibility and childcare vouchers provided. These relationships are shown below in diagrammatic form (Figure 8). The marital status results are again perhaps not surprising, with those co-habiting or married more aware of childcare vouchers and more likely to have care responsibilities.

Figure 8 The Correlation between Marital Status and Model Variables

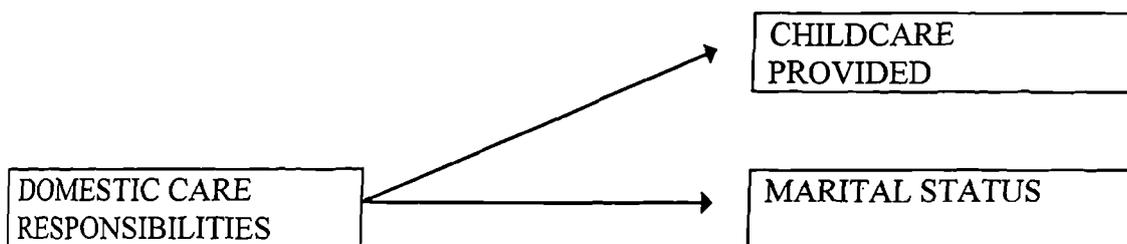


4.12.7 Domestic Care Responsibilities

Linear associations were found between domestic care responsibilities and the following variables: childcare provided and marital status. These relationships are shown in Figure 9 below. Those with domestic care responsibilities are more aware of childcare provision, and more likely to be married or living with a partner.

Figure 9 The Correlation Between Domestic Care Responsibilities And Model

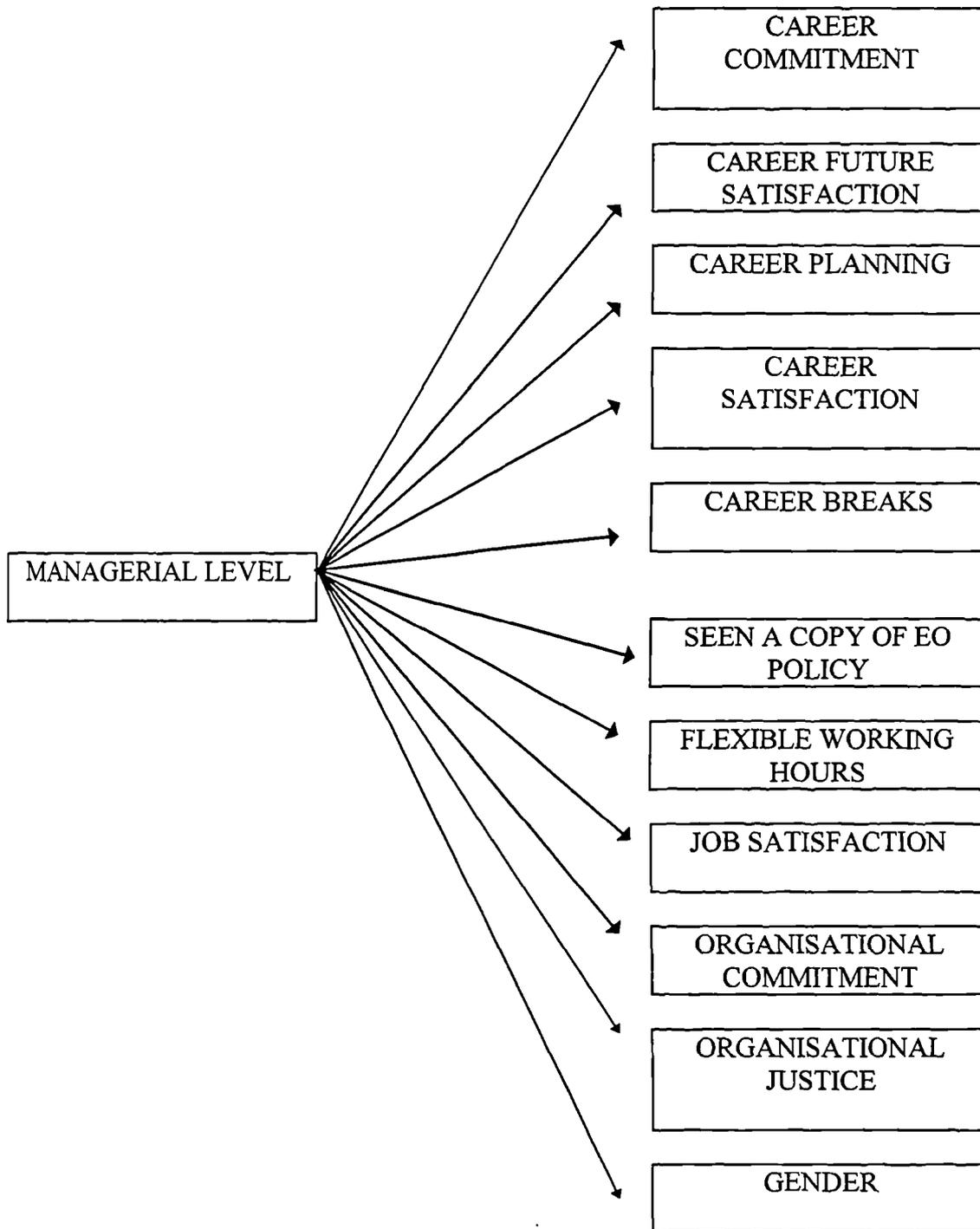
Variables



4.12.8 Managerial Level

Linear associations were found between managerial level and the following variables: career commitment, career future satisfaction, career planning, career satisfaction, career breaks, seen copy of EO policy, flexible working hours, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational justice and gender. These relationships are shown in diagrammatic form below in Figure 10. These results support earlier t-test and chi-square results.

Figure 10 The Correlation between Managerial Level and Model Variables

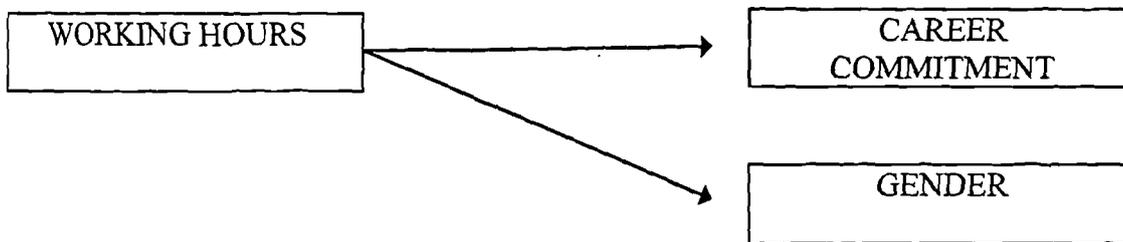


4.12.9 Working Hours (F/t or P/t)

The number of the sample working part-time was small; however, linear associations were found between working hours and the following variables:

career commitment and gender. These relationships are shown below in Figure 11; women are more likely to work part-time, and those who worked part-time are less likely to be career committed.

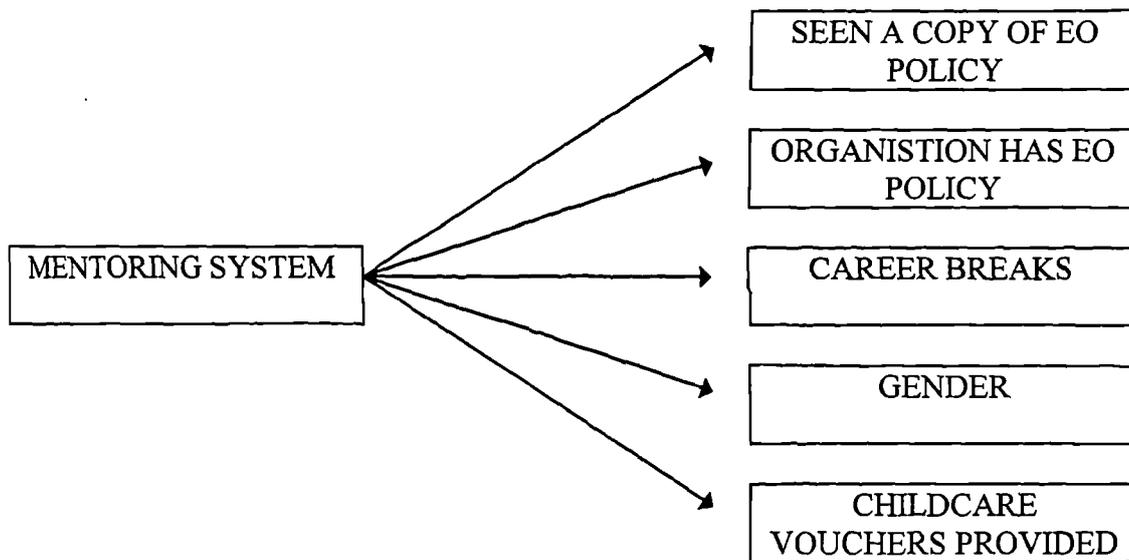
Figure 11 The Correlation Between Working Hours And Model Variables



4.12.10 Mentoring System

Linear associations were found between mentoring system and the following variables: seen a copy of EO policy, organisation has an EO policy, career breaks, gender and childcare vouchers provided. These are shown in diagrammatic format in Figure 12. This figure shows a number of interesting relationships, particularly with 'seen a copy of EO policy'. Could it be that those who were aware of mentoring were better informed about some of the organisation's policies? If so, this could be due to mentors, more senior in the organisation, ensuring that their mentees had this important information.

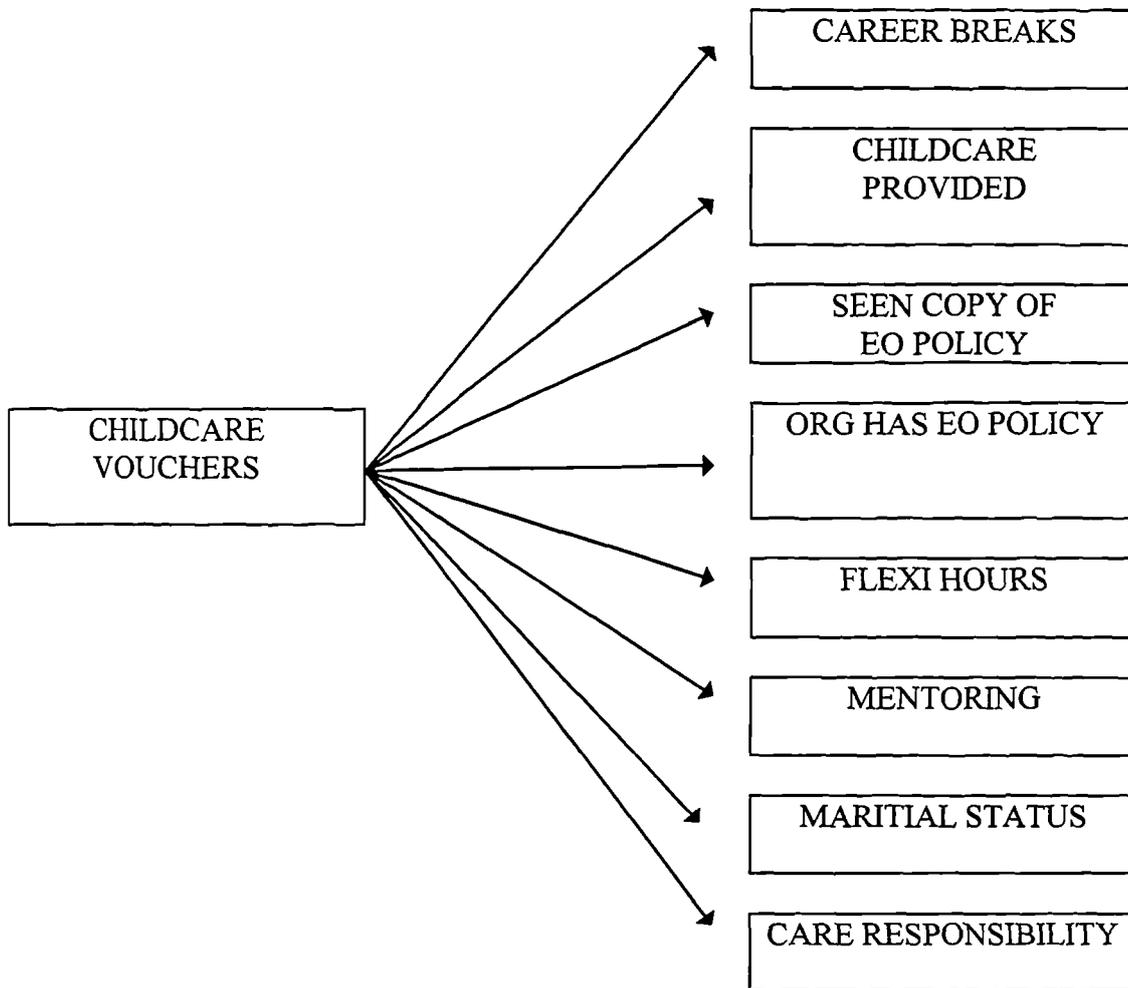
Figure 12 The Correlation Between Mentoring System And Model Variables



4.12.11 Childcare Vouchers

Linear associations were found between childcare vouchers and the following variables: career breaks, childcare provided, seen a copy of EO policy, organisation has an EO policy, flexible working hours, mentoring system, marital status and care responsibility. These relationships are shown below in diagrammatic form in Figure 13. These relationships are what one might expect from the sample basis. Individuals who are aware of childcare vouchers (and therefore more likely to have children) are also aware of childcare being provided. The mentor variable relationship with childcare vouchers may support the point made earlier that those with mentors may be informed of policies by their mentors; or may have a general greater overall organisational knowledge, perhaps leading them to network, and therefore find a mentor in the first place.

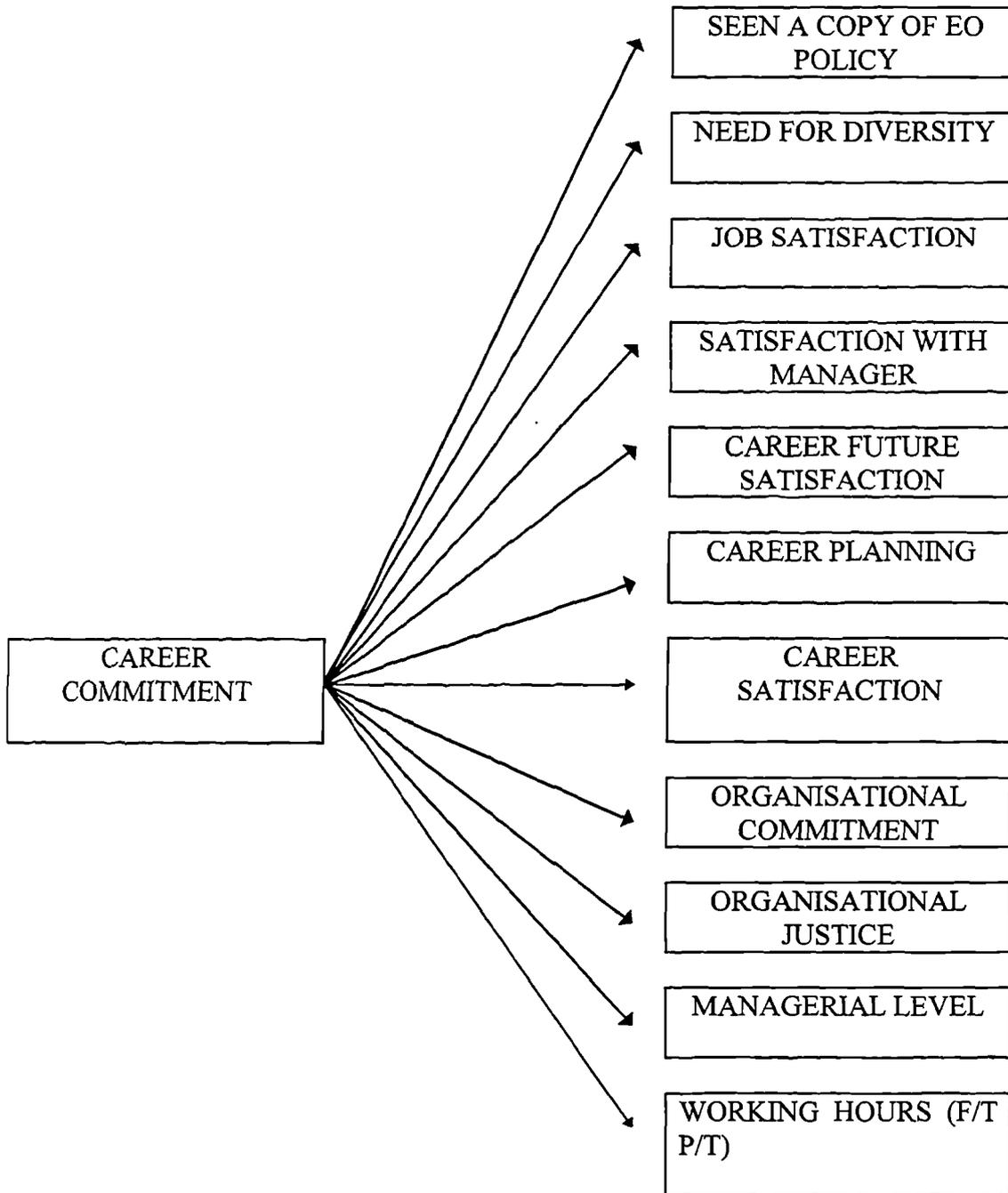
Figure 13 The Correlation Between Childcare Vouchers And Model Variables`



4.12.12 Career Commitment

Linear associations were found between career commitment and the following variables: seen a copy of the equal opportunities policy, need for diversity, job satisfaction, satisfaction with manager, career future satisfaction, career planning, career satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational justice, managerial level and working hours (F/t or P/f). These relationships are shown below in Figure 14. The career commitment outcome variable show some interesting relationships; in particular, it appears to relate to other outcome variables, such as career satisfaction. This relationship between outcome variables could be explored by further research. Career commitment's relationships with management level seems to bear out earlier statistical tests which also showed this relationship. They show that the higher an individual's management level, the higher his or her career commitment. Interestingly, career commitment does not appear to show a relationship with gender, indicating that gender is not a relevant factor in career commitment.

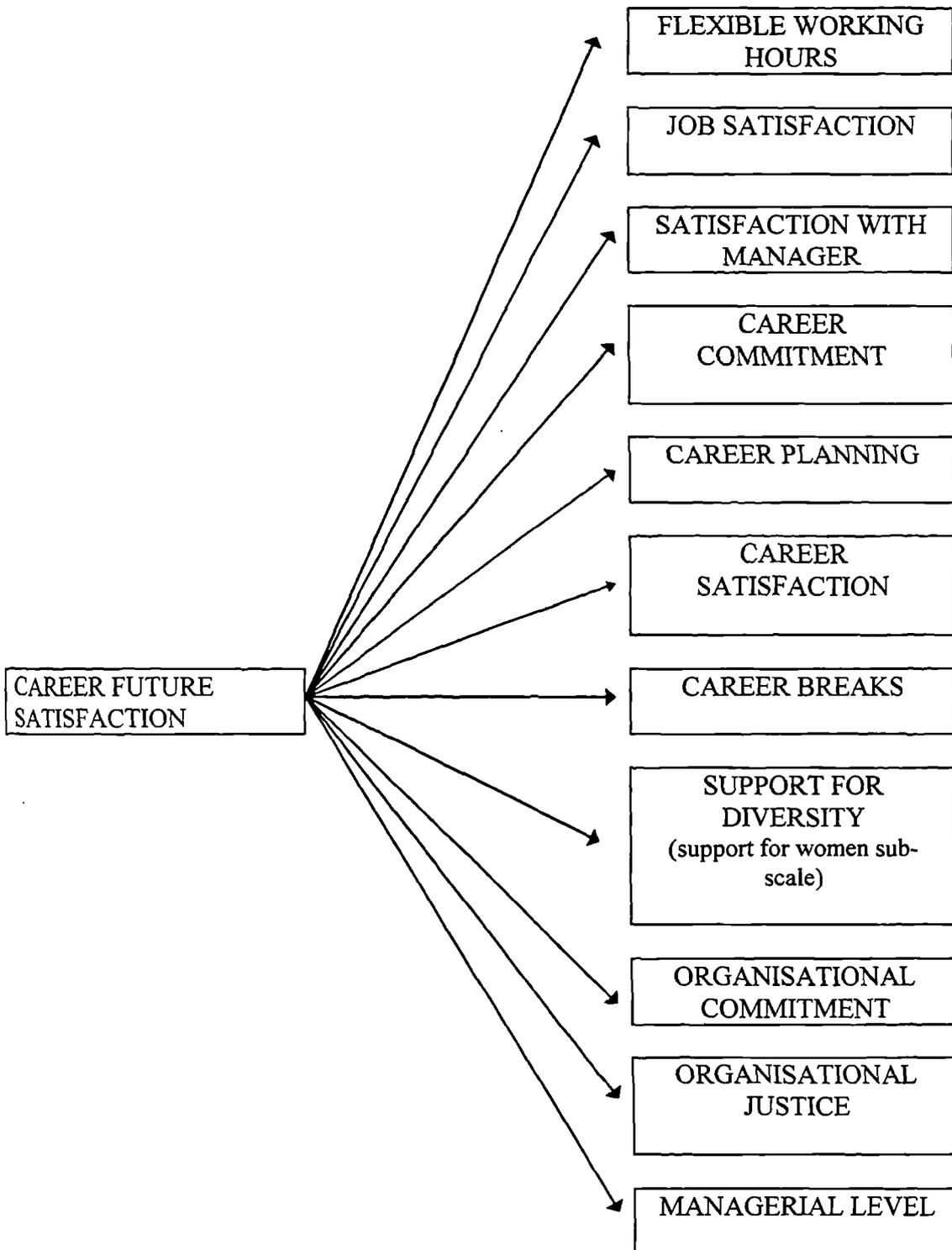
Figure 14 The Correlation Between Career Commitment And Model Variables



4.12.13 Career Future Satisfaction

Linear associations were found between career future satisfaction and the following variables: flexible working hours, job satisfaction, satisfaction with manager, career commitment, career planning, career satisfaction, career breaks, support for diversity (support for women $r = 0.2310$ $p = 0.000$), organisational commitment, organisational justice and managerial level. These relationships are shown below in Figure 15. Career future satisfaction shows relationships with many variables. Importantly, it shows a relationship with support for diversity and the sub-scale support for women. This may relate to women in particular feeling that they are likely to be satisfied with their career in the future only if they see support for their progression in the organisation. If they stay at one management level, they will not be satisfied with their career in the future. However, gender is not a variable related to career future satisfaction through this statistical test. Therefore, the above thesis could equally apply to male managers. Management level does show a correlation though; perhaps if one is at a higher level of management, one is more likely to perceive a better level of satisfaction in one's future career, because career progression has continued.

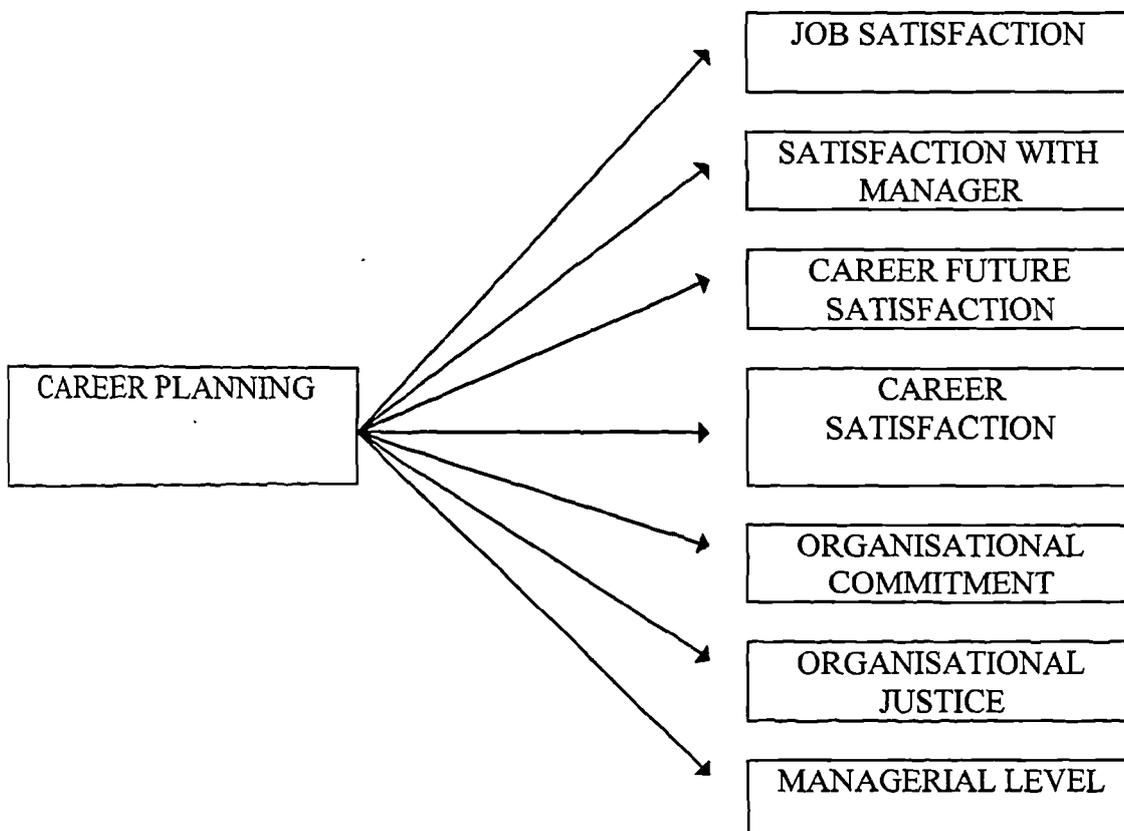
Figure 15 The Correlation Between Career Future Satisfaction And Model Variables



4.12.14 Career Planning

Linear associations were found between career planning and the following variables: job satisfaction, satisfaction with manager, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational justice and managerial level. These relationships are shown below in Figure 16. The outcome variable of career planning shows correlations with five other outcome variables, one indicator variable and management level (a moderating variable). Management level plays a very important part in people's attitudes and perceptions. Once more, as with previous variables, the relationships between the outcomes could be more fully investigated in future research.

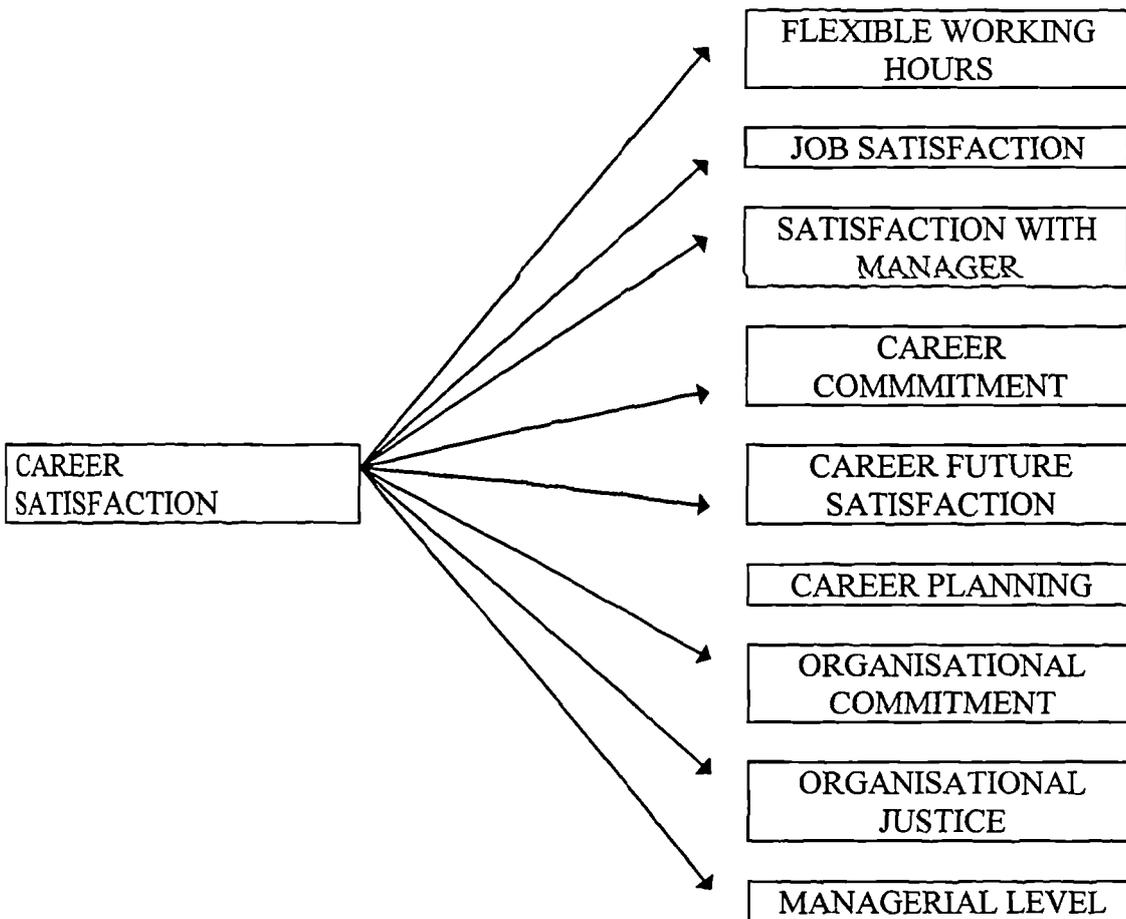
Figure 16 The Correlation Between Career Planning And Model Variables



4.12.15 Career Satisfaction

Linear associations were found between career satisfaction and the following variables: flexible working hours, job satisfaction, satisfaction with manager, career commitment, career future satisfaction, career planning, organisational commitment, organisational justice and managerial level. These relationships are shown below in Figure 17. Interestingly, unlike career future satisfaction, career satisfaction does not show a relationship with support for diversity, again indicating that managers may currently not see any need for increased diversity in the organisation, but in order to progress in the future, may see that there is a need. Career satisfaction correlates with management level, supporting earlier results showing such a relationship.

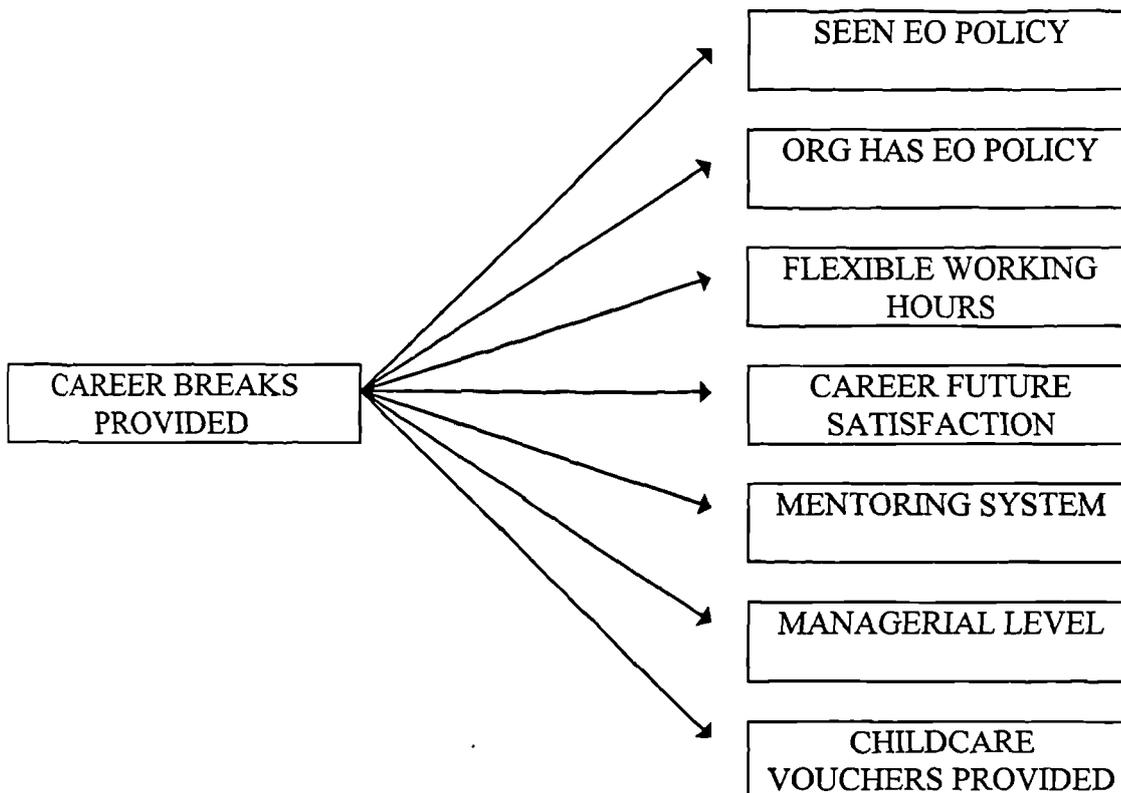
Figure 17 The Correlation Between Career Satisfaction And Model Variables



4.12.16 Career Breaks Provided

Linear associations were found between career breaks provided and the following variables: seen a copy of equal opportunities policy, organisation had an EO policy, flexible working hours, career future satisfaction, mentoring system, managerial level and childcare vouchers provided. These relationships are shown in Figure 18. The indicator variable of career break provided shows correlations with other indicator variables, as well as the outcome variable of career future satisfaction. The relationships between indicator variables could be more fully investigated in future research.

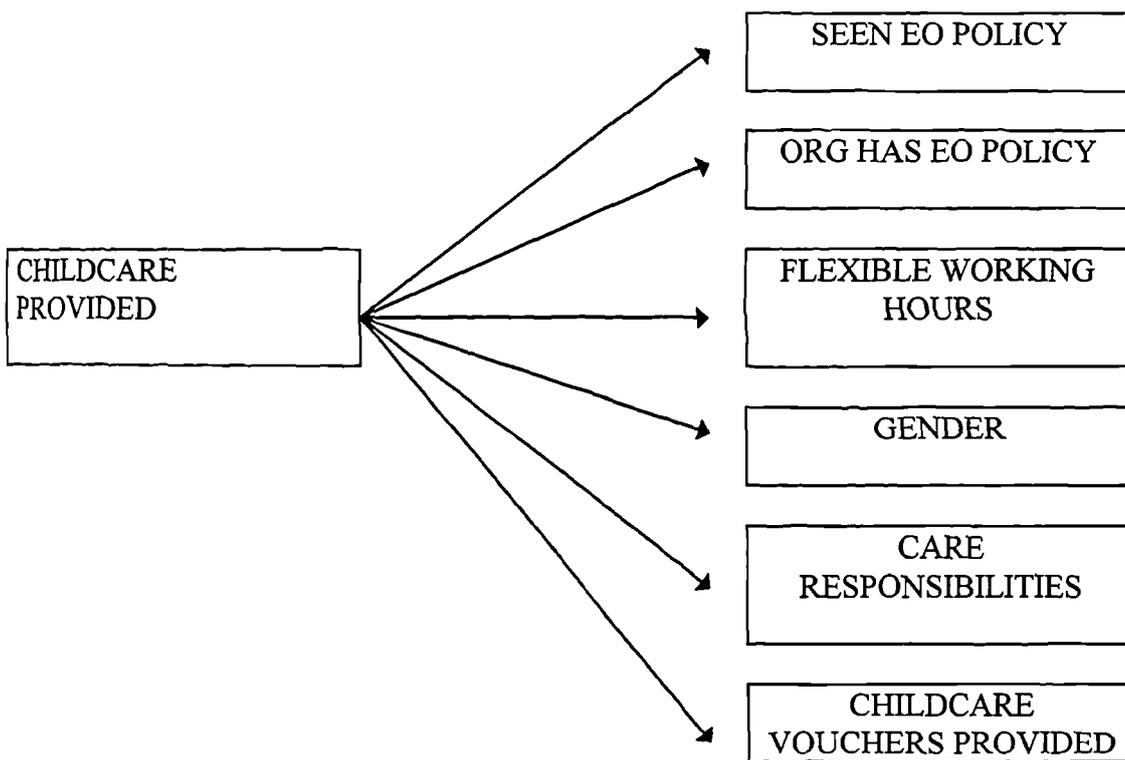
Figure 18 The Correlation Between Career Breaks Provided And Model Variables



4.12.17 Childcare Provided

Linear associations were found between childcare provided and the following variables: seen a copy of the EO policy; organisation has an EO policy; flexible working hours; gender; care responsibilities and childcare vouchers provided. These relationships are shown below in Figure 19. Correlations are shown between some of the indicator variables and one moderating variable, gender and childcare provided. This final relationship is not very surprising, as one particular gender tends to take on the childcare responsibility in our society (women).

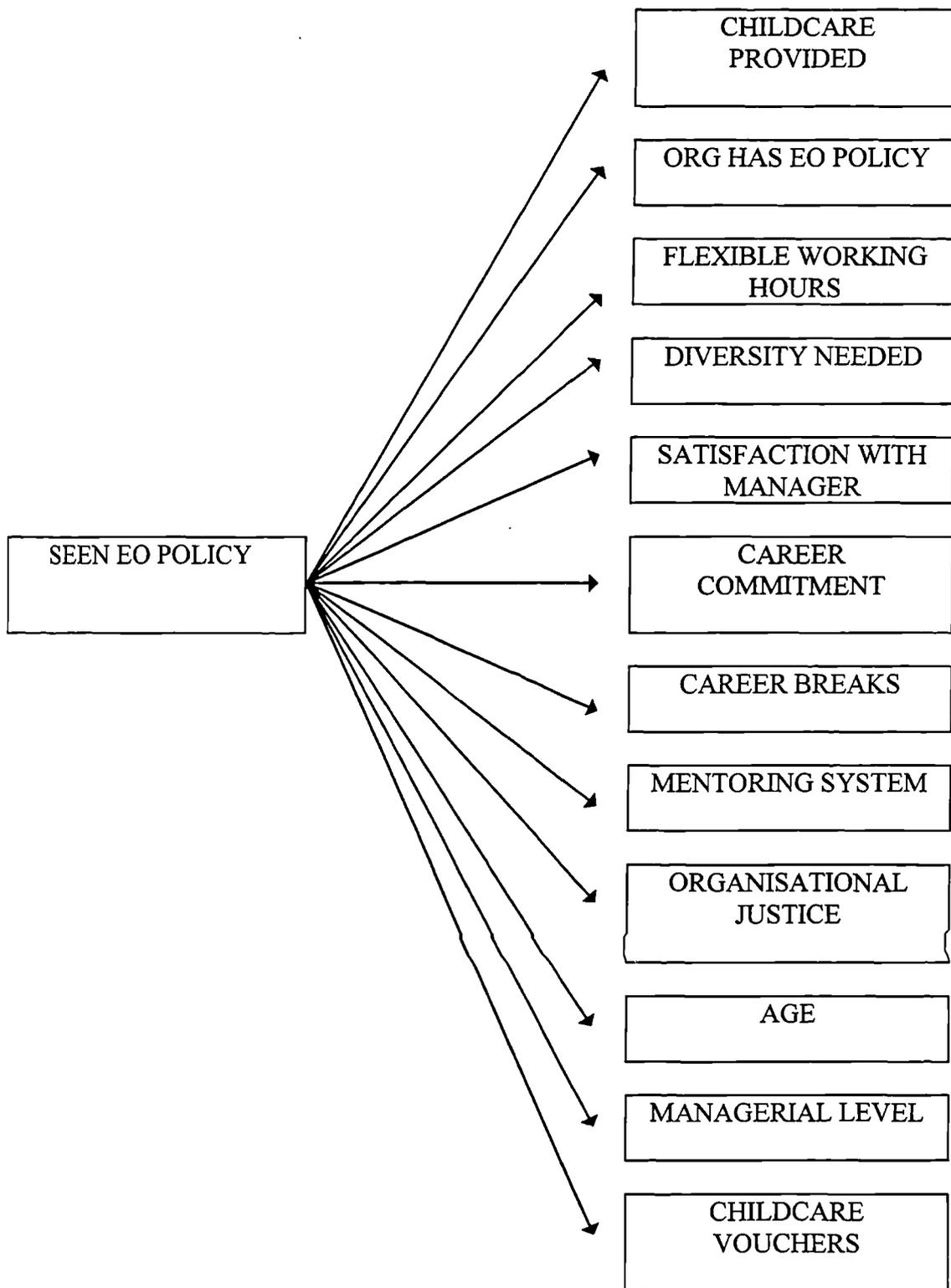
Figure 19 The Correlation Between Childcare Provided And Model Variables



4.12.18 Seen a Copy of EO Policy

Linear associations were found between seen a copy of EO policy and the following variables: childcare provided, organisation has an EO policy, flexible working hours, need for diversity, satisfaction with manager, career commitment, career breaks, mentoring system, organisational justice, age, managerial level and childcare vouchers provided. These relationships are shown in diagrammatic form in Figure 20. This indicator variable correlates with many other indicator variables. It also correlates with two outcome variables and three moderating variables, showing its important place in the PCFD model.

Figure 20 The Correlation Between Seen A Copy Of EO Policy And Model Variables

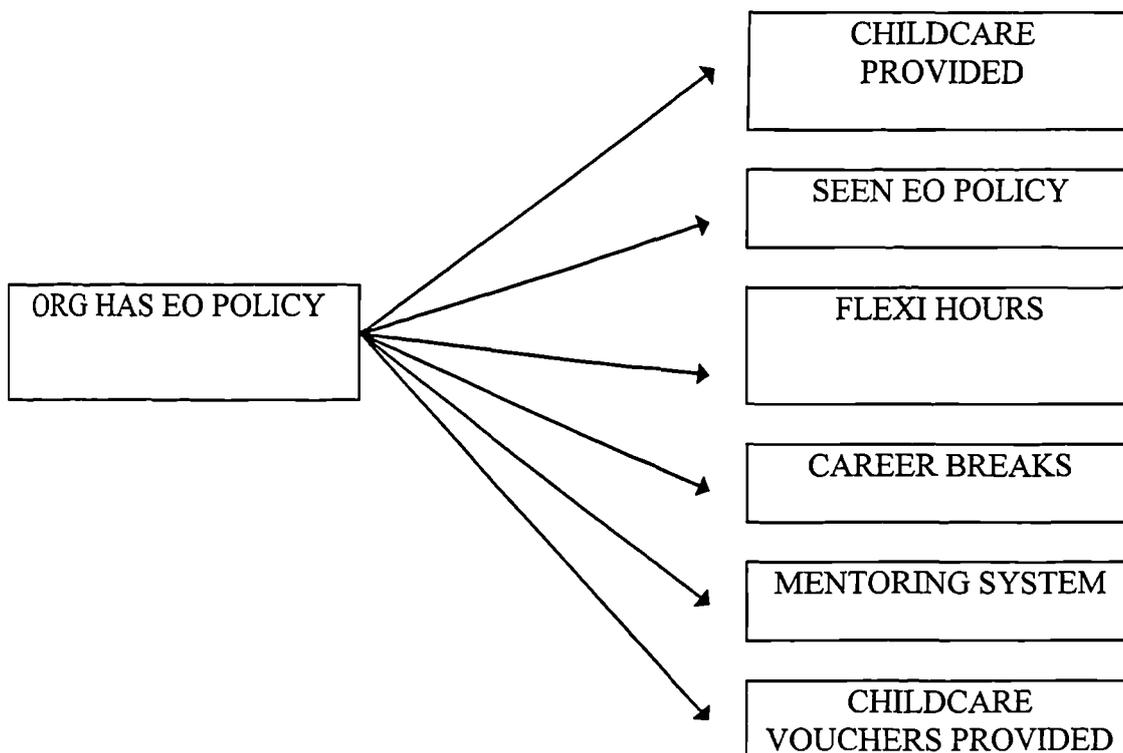


4.12.19 Organisation Has an EO Policy

Linear associations were found between the organisation having an EO policy and the following variables: childcare provided, seen a copy of EO policy, flexible working hours, career breaks, mentoring system and childcare vouchers provided. These relationships are shown in Figure 21 below. By contrast to the 'seen a copy of the EO policy' variable, the organisation's 'having an EO policy' variable correlated with fewer variables. This showed the importance, not only of having an EO policy, but in particular, of individuals having seen it (in this research, taken to mean read it).

Figure 21 The Correlation Between Organisation Has An EO Policy And Model

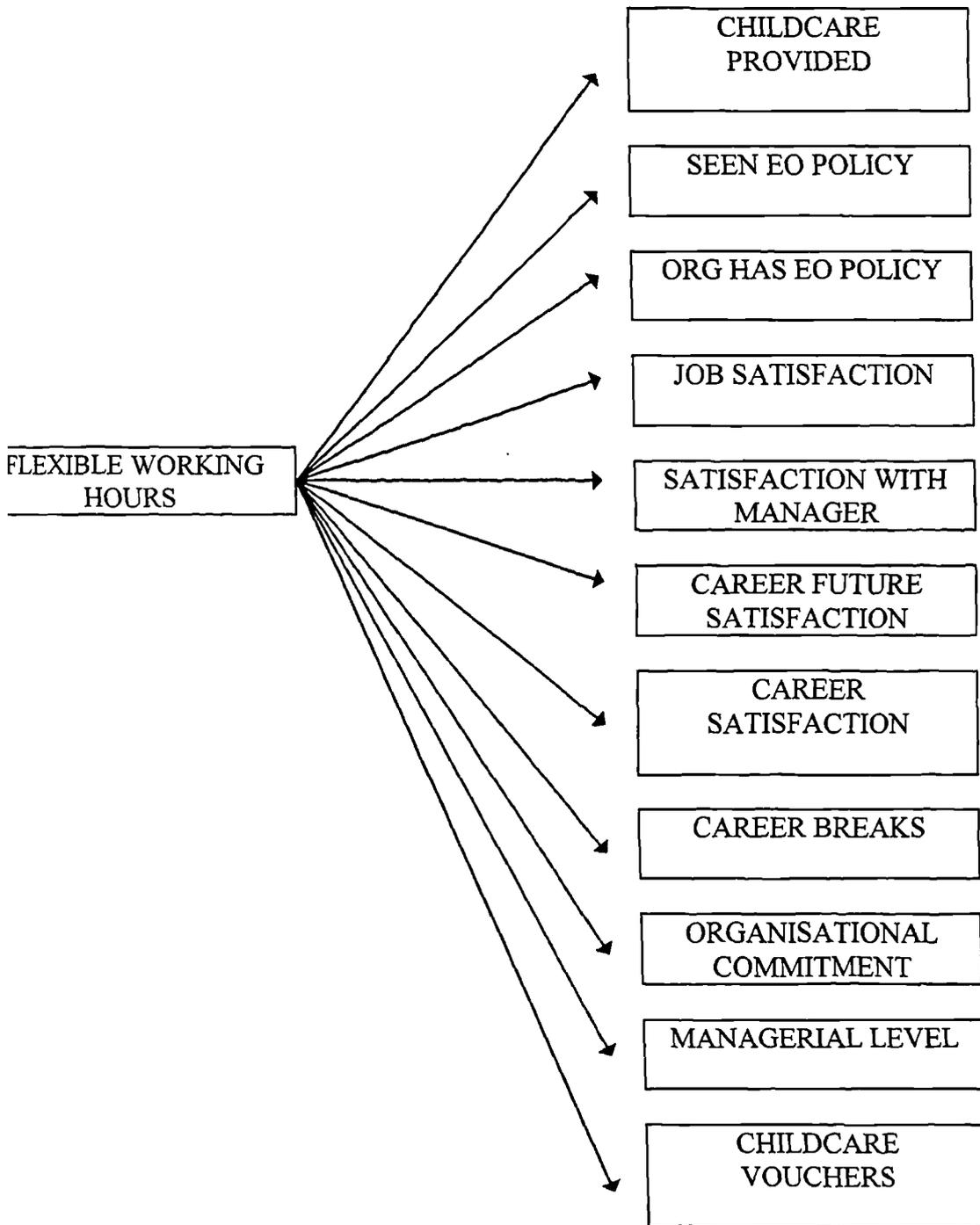
Variables



4.12.20 Flexible Working Hours

Linear associations were found between flexible working hours and the following variables: childcare provided, seen a copy of EO policy, organisation has an EO policy, job satisfaction, satisfaction with manager, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, career breaks, organisational commitment, managerial level and childcare vouchers provided. These relationships are shown in diagrammatic format below in Figure 22. This variable seems to have a central place in the PCFD model, as it shows correlations with five outcomes. Interestingly, flexible working hours appear to have no correlation with gender, indicating that they are of equal importance to men and women.

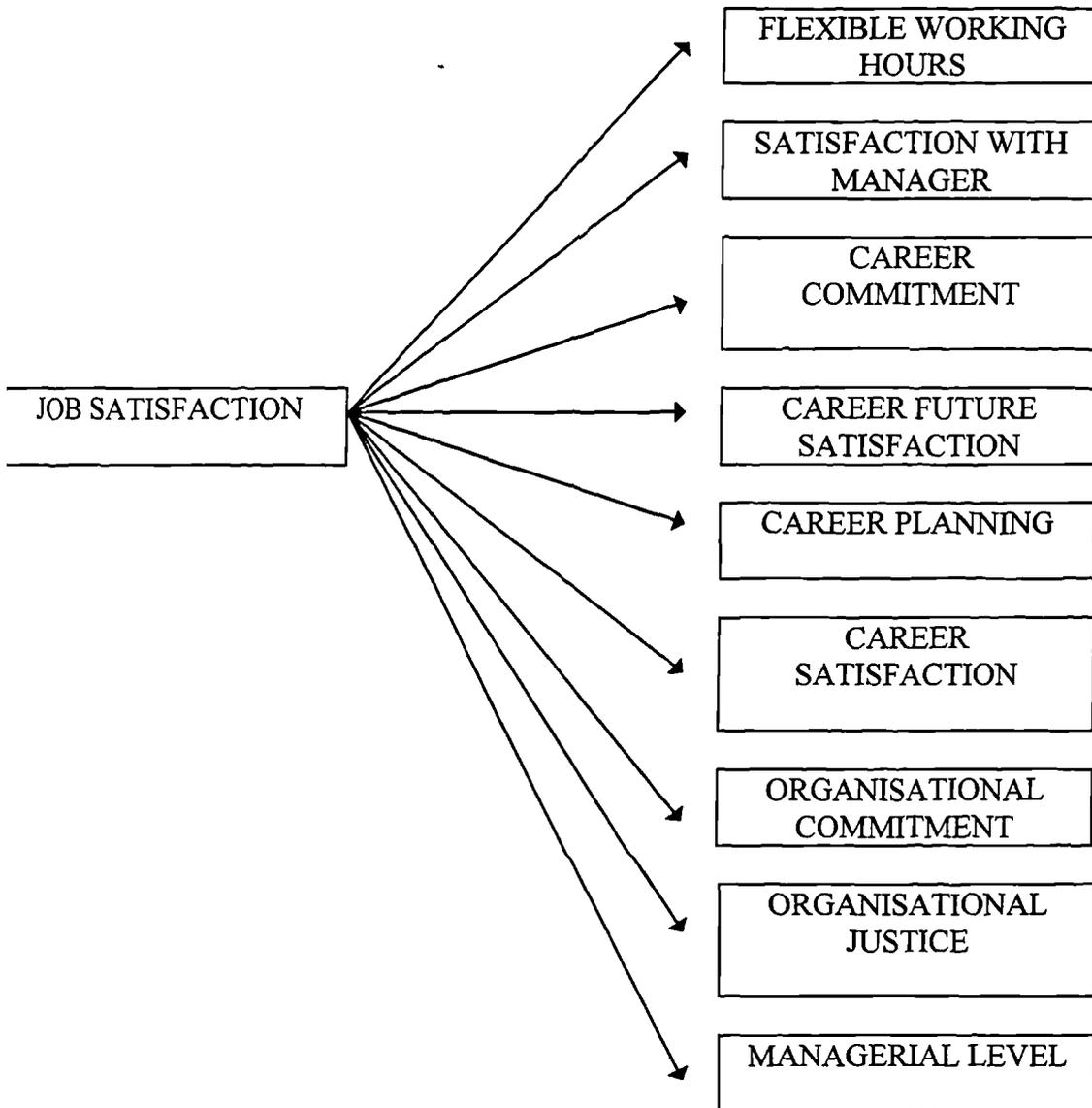
Figure 22 The Correlation Between Flexible Working Hours And Model Variables



4.12.21 Job Satisfaction

Linear associations were found between job satisfaction and the following variables: flexible working hours, satisfaction with manager, career commitment, career future satisfaction, career planning, career satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational justice and managerial level. These relationships are shown in diagrammatic form in Figure 23, below. This outcome variable show correlations with six other outcomes, also one moderating variable, that of management level, and two indicator variables. Once again, the importance of management level and organisational justice is shown here.

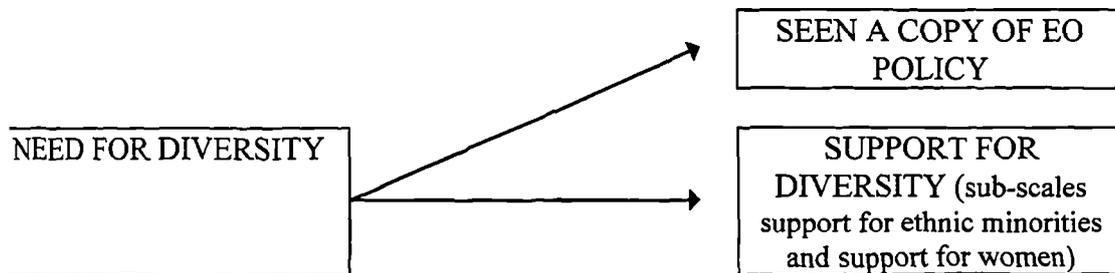
Figure 23 The Correlation Between Job Satisfaction And Model Variables



.12.22 Need for Diversity

Linear associations were found between need for diversity and the following variables: seen a copy of EO policy, support for ethnic minorities ($r = -0.2691$ $p = 0.000$) and support for women ($r = -0.1943$ $p = 0.002$), support for diversity ($r = -0.2786$ $p = 0.000$). The split between support for minorities and support for gender diversity has been established as a sub-scale in the factor analysis. These relationships are shown below in Figure 24. This is an interesting result, as it shows that the need for diversity (with sub-scales, support for women and support for ethnic minorities) is correlated. Interestingly, no relationship is shown with gender, which given the nature of the variable one might expect.

Figure 24 The Correlation Between Need For Diversity And Model Variables



4.12.23 Support for Diversity

Linear associations were found between support for diversity and the following variables: need for diversity, satisfaction with manager, career future satisfaction, organisational justice and gender. These relationships are shown in diagrammatic format in Figure 25. These relationships raise an interesting point: support for diversity correlates with five other variables including gender, unlike need for diversity. It also shows correlations with two outcome variables, career future satisfaction and satisfaction with manager.

Figure 25 a The Correlation Between Support For Diversity And Model Variables

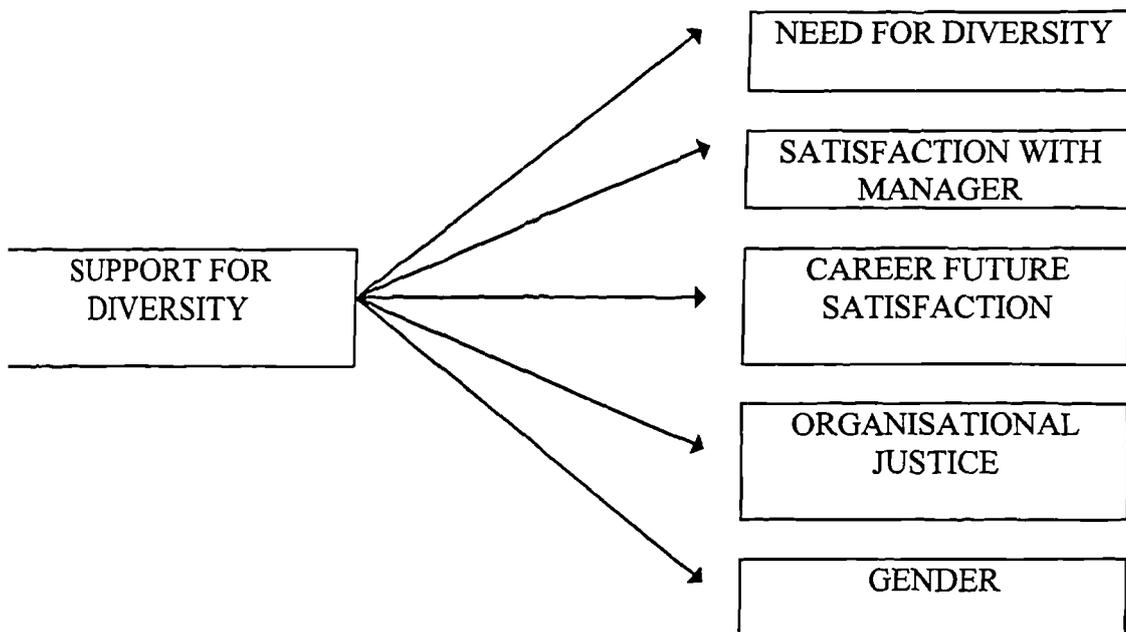


Figure 25 b Support for Women Sub-Scale

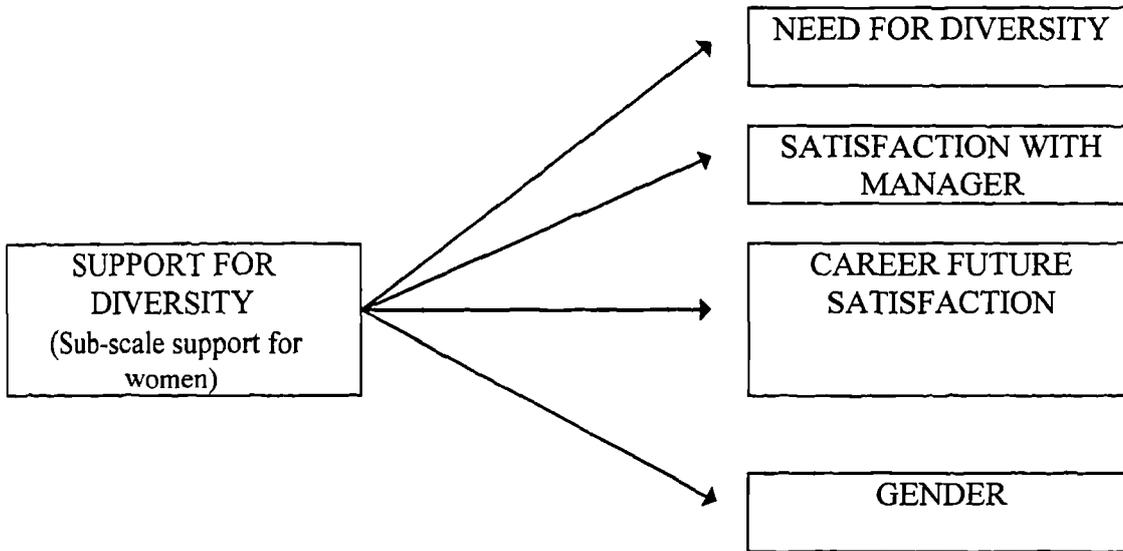
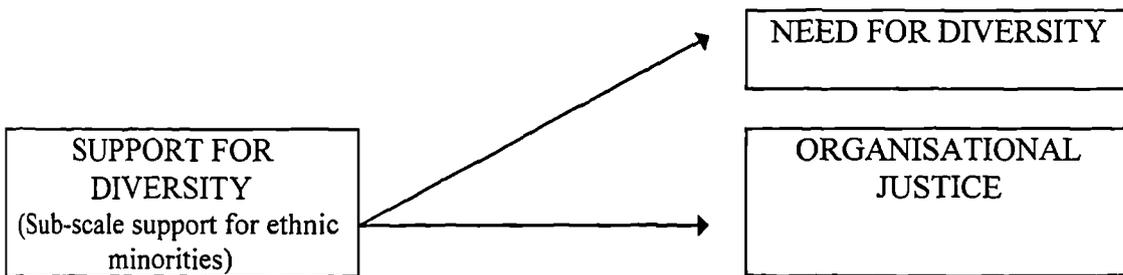


Figure 25 c Support for Ethnic Minorities Sub-Scale



As can be seen from the above diagrams, the relationships shown between support for diversity and its sub-scales, support for ethnic minorities and support for women, and the variables are interesting. It appears that the sub-scale ‘support for women’ shows relationships with gender, career future satisfaction, need for diversity and satisfaction with manager. However, the sub-scale ‘support for ethnic minorities’ shows relationships with only need for diversity and organisational justice. It is interesting

that support for women is not related to organisational justice, as one might perhaps expect.

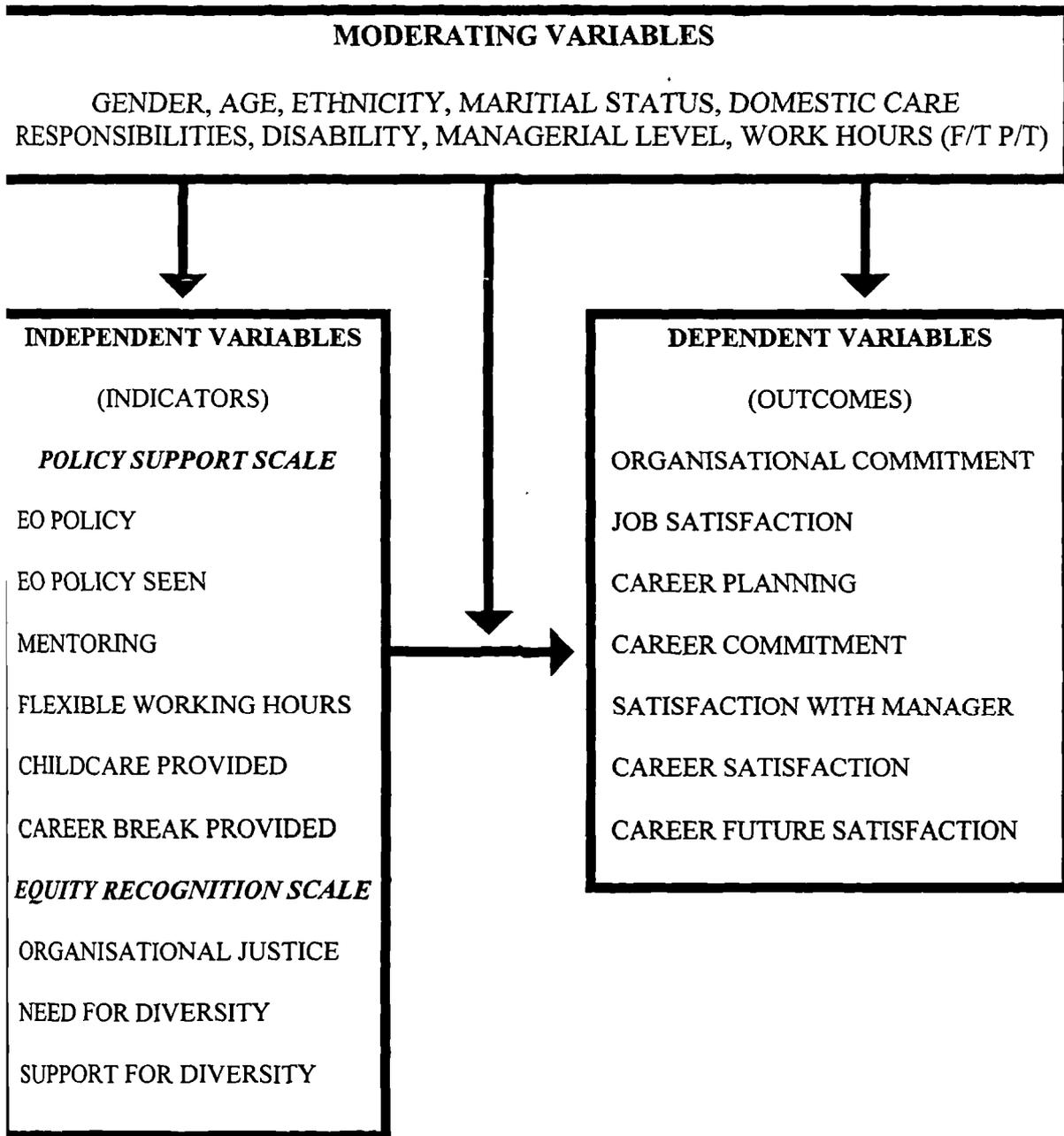
3 Analysing The Relationships Proposed by the PCFD Model

own in Figure 26

The PCFD model can be viewed in two ways. Firstly, by assuming that the climate for diversity is created by the policy support scale and equity recognition scale variables; and secondly, by assuming, as Kossek and Zonia (1993) do, that the demographics of individuals within an organisation are important for the climate. Gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, domestic care responsibilities, disability, managerial level and work hours (F/t or P/t) are all moderating variables in the PCFD model.

Therefore it is possible to re-draw the original hypothesised model demonstrating the relationships between the PCFD indicators (as a whole and individually), the moderating variables and the outcomes of PCFD (again as a whole and individually).

Figure 26 Positive Climate For Diversity Model



the above model, PCFD can be divided between two different scales, firstly, 'policy support' and secondly 'equity recognition'. The policy support scale is concerned with the policies which organisations have in practice, such as an EO policy, mentoring or flexible working hours, childcare provision, childcare vouchers, and career break provided. Childcare vouchers were removed, as organisations were not generally using them. The equity recognition scale is concerned with recognition of equality in the organisation; the factors in this scale are organisational justice, need for diversity and support for diversity.

relationships shown by correlation coefficients between variables are largely borne out by the earlier statistical analysis, i.e. t-tests and chi-square tests. The two indicator (independent) variables which appear to be most central to the model in relation to the outcome and moderating variables (that is showing relationships with most of the variables) are: seen EO policy and flexible working hours, although it is worth noting that all indicator variables did show relationships with outcome variables and moderating variables.

4.14 Analysis of Variance

The next step in the data analysis process was to conduct an analysis of variance on the questionnaire data gathered. In this research ANOVA is used to test the relationship between different variables. ANOVA was conducted for each scale and variable, with supporting significance levels produced for managerial level and gender. As mentioned previously, ethnicity and disability are not included, as the number of respondents in these groups is too small. The following tables show the results of the analysis. The level of significance selected is 0.05 and below.

Table 81 Analysis of Variance (Dependent Variables) Considering Managerial level and Gender Significance

Variables	Management Level Significance	Gender Significance
Satisfaction with Manager	F Ratio 2.239 F Prob(0.109) DF 2	F Ratio 0.156 F Prob(0.693) DF 1
Career Commitment	F Ratio 5.167 F Prob(0.006)* DF 2	F Ratio 1.495 F Prob(0.223) DF 1
Career Future Satisfaction	F Ratio 10.696 F Prob(0.000)* DF 2	F Ratio 2.312 F Prob(0.130) DF 1
Career Planning	F Ratio 3.263 F Prob(0.040)* DF 2	F Ratio 0.054 F Prob(0.816) DF 1
Career Satisfaction	F Ratio 12.010 F Prob(0.000)* DF 2	F Ratio 1.385 F Prob(0.240) DF 1
Job Satisfaction	F Ratio 7.272 F Prob(0.001)* DF 2	F Ratio 1.244 F Prob(0.266) DF 1
Organisational Commitment	F Ratio 10.380 F Prob(0.000)* DF 2	F Ratio 0.609 F Prob(0.436) DF 1

Table 81 shows the results of ANOVA for the dependent variables.

Table 82 Analysis of Variance (Independent Variables) Considering Managerial level and Gender Significance

Variables	Management Level Significance	Gender Significance
Childcare Provided	F Ratio 1.260 F Prob (0.285) DF 2	F Ratio 5.560 F Prob(0.019)* DF 1
Equal Opps Policy Seen	F Ratio 4.554 F Prob(0.11) DF 2	F Ratio 0.147 F Prob(0.702) DF 1
Equal Opps Policy in Organisation	F Ratio 0.786 F Prob(0.457) DF 2	F Ratio 0.677 F Prob(0.411) DF 1
Flexible Working Hours	F Ratio 4.494 F Prob(0.12) DF 2	F Ratio 0.305 F Prob(0.581) DF 1
Organisational Justice	F Ratio 5.862 F Prob(0.003)* DF 2	F Ratio 0.142 F Prob(0.706) DF 1
Career Break	F Ratio 3.025 F Prob(0.50) DF 2	F Ratio 0.400 F Prob(0.525)* DF 1
Need for Diversity	F Ratio 0.786 F Prob(0.457) DF 2	F Ratio 8.207 F Prob(0.005)* DF 1
Support for Diversity	F Ratio 0.069 F Prob(0.933) DF 2	F Ratio 4.950 F Prob (0.27) DF 1
Monitoring System	F Ratio 0.359 F Ratio (0.698) DF 2	F Ratio 11.603 F Prob(0.001)* DF 1
Childcare Vouchers	F Ratio 5.862 F Prob(0.003)* DF 2	F Ratio 3.573 F Prob(0.60) DF 1

Table 82 shows the results of ANOVA for the independent variables.

Gender and managerial level are the main variables under investigation with regard to CFD and outcomes. Therefore, they are considered in Tables 81 and 82, above. Using analysis of variance, it is possible to see that managerial level has a significant relationship to the following: career commitment, career future satisfaction, job satisfaction, career planning, career satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational justice and childcare vouchers. Gender is related to childcare,

mentoring and the need for diversity. Managerial level in this instance seems to have by far the most significant relationship with the indicators and outcomes of PCFD. These results support the t-test results. Management level is shown to influence all the model variables, as is gender.

The next step was to conduct an analysis of variance on individual variables.

Below are presented the positive results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA); that is, those variables which are significantly influenced by other variables or factors.

Table 83 Analysis of Variance: Variables Influenced by Career Break

Variable	DF Between Groups	F Ratio	F Prob
Career Future Satisfaction	2	3.8638	0.0222
Job Satisfaction	1	4.7901	0.0298
Career Satisfaction	2	3.4575	0.0329

ANOVA shows that career break has a significant relationship with the following variables: career future satisfaction, job satisfaction and career satisfaction. This is represented in diagrammatic format in Figure 27 below. With regard to the correlation coefficient relations, only career future satisfaction is also shown by ANOVA.

Figure 27 Anova: Model Variables Influenced By Career Break

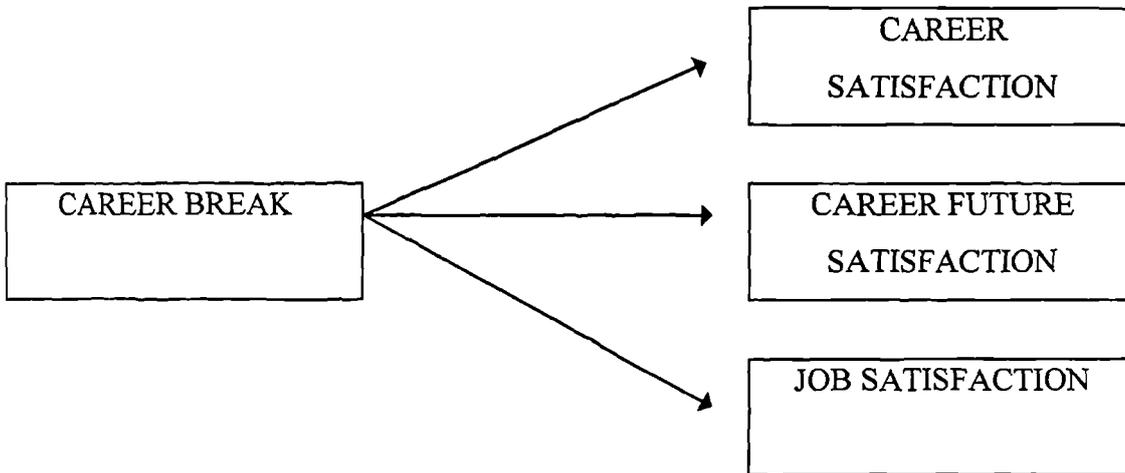


Table 84 Analysis of Variance: Variable Influenced by Childcare

Factor: Childcare			
Variable	DF Between Groups	F Ratio	F Prob
Career Commitment	2	7.767	0.001

ANOVA shows that childcare has a significant relationship with the career commitment variable. This is represented in diagrammatic form in Figure 28 below.

This relationship is not replicated in correlation coefficient analysis.

Figure 28 Anova: Model Variable Influenced By Childcare



Table 85 Analysis of Variance: Variables Influenced by Organisation has EO Policy

Factor: Organisation has EO Policy			
Variable	DF Between Groups	F Ratio	F Prob
Satisfaction with Manager	1	3.6579	0.0569

ANOVA shows that the organisation having an equal opportunities has a significant relationship with the satisfaction with manager variable. This relationships are shown in diagrammatic format below in Figure 29. Interestingly, this relationship is not shown in correlation coefficient analysis.

Figure 29 Anova: Model Variable Influenced By Organisational EO Policy

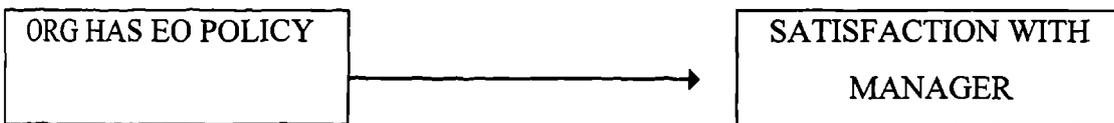


Table 86 Analysis of Variance: Variable Influenced by Seen a Copy of EO Policy

Variable	DF Between Groups	F Value	F Prob
Satisfaction with Manager	2	4.405	0.0131

Analysis of variance shows that having seen a copy of the EO policy has a significant relationship with the satisfaction with manager variable. This relationship is represented in diagrammatic format below, in Figure 30. Interestingly, this relationship is also supported by correlation coefficient analysis.

Figure 30 ANOVA: Model Variable Influenced By Seen A Copy Of EO Policy



Table 87 Analysis of Variance: Variables influenced by Flexible Working Hours

Factor: Flexible Working Hours			
Variable	DF Between Groups	F Value	F Prob
Satisfaction with Manager	2	7.634	0.0006
Career Commitment	2	4.058	0.018
Career Future Satisfaction	2	4.885	0.0083
Career Satisfaction	2	6.467	0.0018
Organisational Commitment	2	4.323	0.0142
Job Satisfaction	2	3.074	0.0479

Analysis of variance shows that flexible working hours has a significant relationship with the following variables: satisfaction with manager, career commitment, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Figure 31 below represents these relationships in diagrammatic format. All but the relationship between flexible working hours and career commitment are supported by correlation coefficient analysis, showing the importance of these relationships.

Figure 31 ANOVA: Model Variables Influenced by Flexible Working Hours

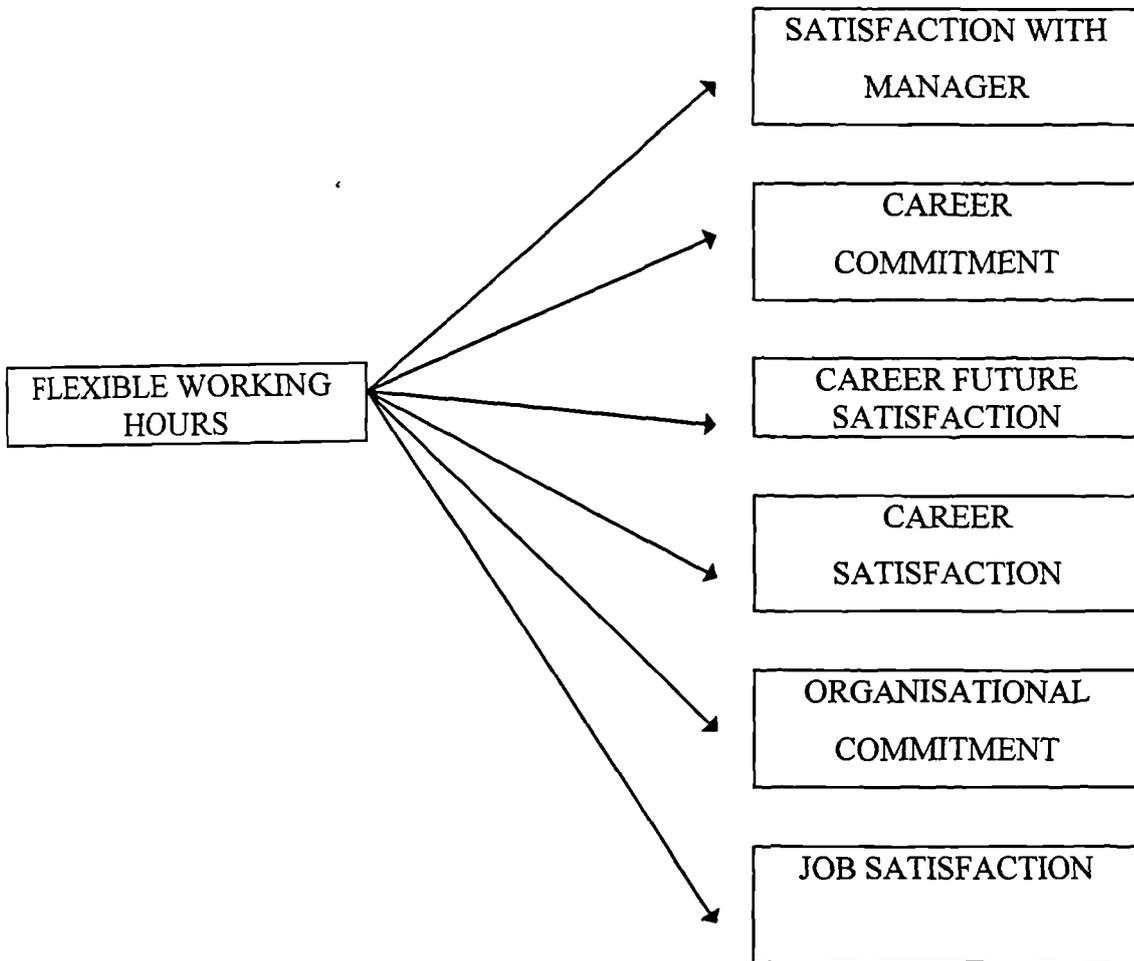


Table 88 Analysis of Variance: Variables Influenced by Need for Diversity

Variable	DF Between Groups	F Value	F Prob
Career Commitment	4	5.809	0.000
Career Future Satisfaction	4	3.814	0.0050
Career Satisfaction	4	3.017	0.0186

Analysis of variance shows that need for diversity has a significant relationship with the following variables: career commitment, career future satisfaction and career satisfaction. These relationships are represented in diagrammatic format below in Figure 32. None of these relationships are shown in correlation coefficient analysis.

Figure 32 ANOVA: Model Variables Influenced by Need for Diversity

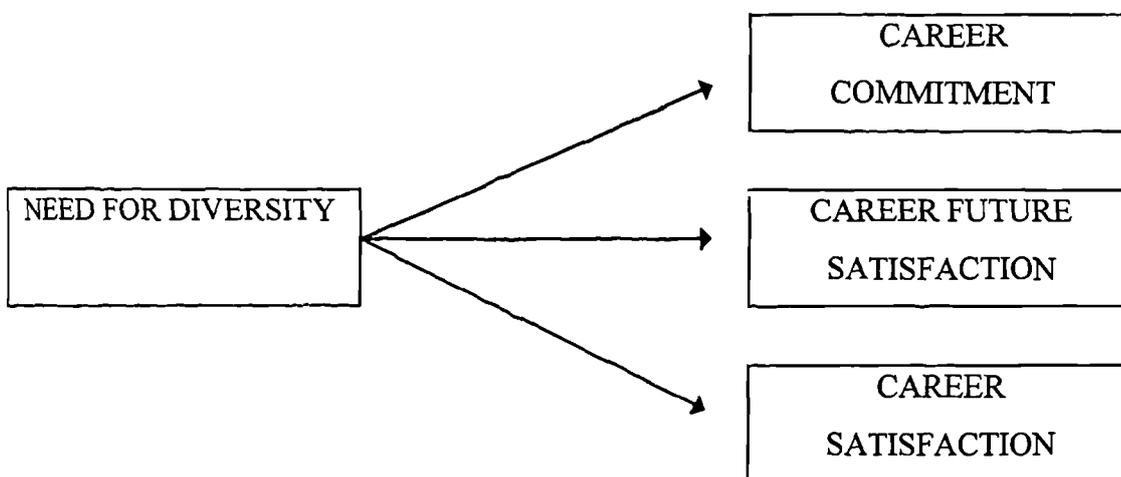


Table 89 Analysis of Variance: Variables Influenced by Support for Diversity

Factor: Support for Diversity			
Variable	DF Between Groups	F Value	F Prob
Satisfaction with Manager	1	19.680	0.0000
Career Future Satisfaction	1	15.997	0.0001
Job Satisfaction	1	8.915	0.0031
Organisational Commitment	1	9.636	0.0021

Analysis of variance show that support for diversity has a significant relationship with the following variables: satisfaction with manager, career future satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. These relationships are represented in diagrammatic format in Figure 33 below.

In terms of the variable support for diversity, significant relationships with satisfaction with manager and career future satisfaction were also found in correlation coefficient analysis. The sub-scale, support for women also showed a significant relationship with career future satisfaction, and was also supported by correlation coefficient analysis, although job satisfaction was not. Neither of the significant relationships shown with support for ethnic minorities (satisfaction with manager and organisational commitment) were shown in correlation coefficient analysis.

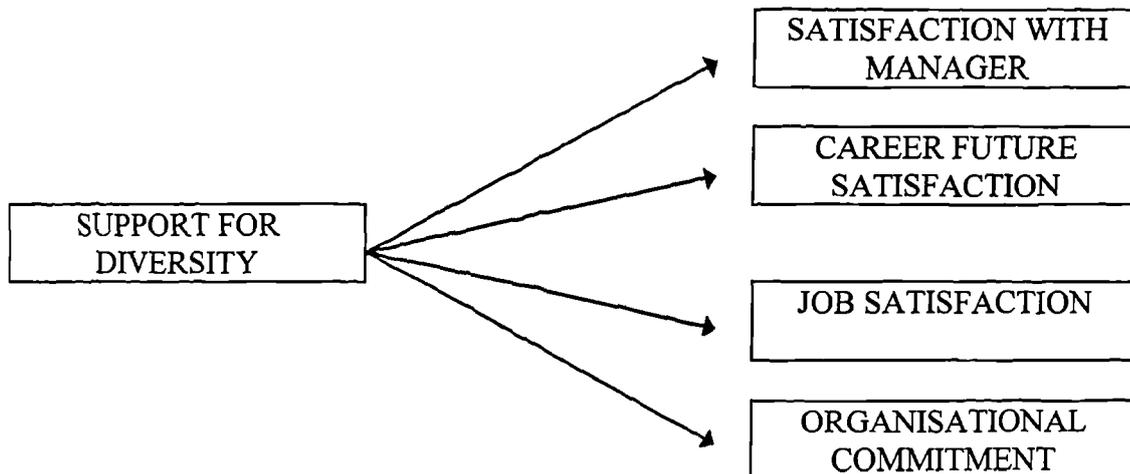
Table 90 Analysis of Variance: Variables Influenced by Support for Women

Factor: Support for Women			
Variable	DF Between Groups	F Value	F Prob
Career Future Satisfaction	2	7.684	0.001
Job Satisfaction	2	3.496	0.003

Table 91 Analysis of Variance: Variables Influenced by Support for Ethnic Minorities

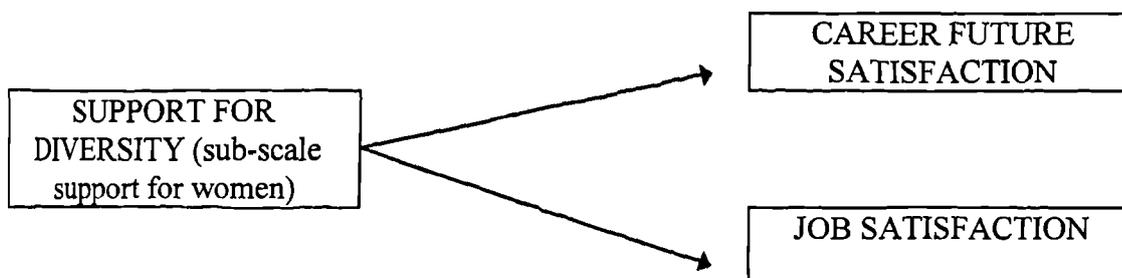
Variable	DF Between Groups	F Value	F Prob
Satisfaction with Manager	2	3.858	0.022
Organisational Commitment	2	3.327	0.037

Figure 33 a ANOVA: Model Variables Influenced by Support for Diversity



4.14.1 Support for Women

Figure 33 b ANOVA: Model Variables Influenced by Support for Diversity



4.14.2 Support for Ethnic Minorities

Figure 33 c ANOVA: Model Variables Influenced by Support for Diversity

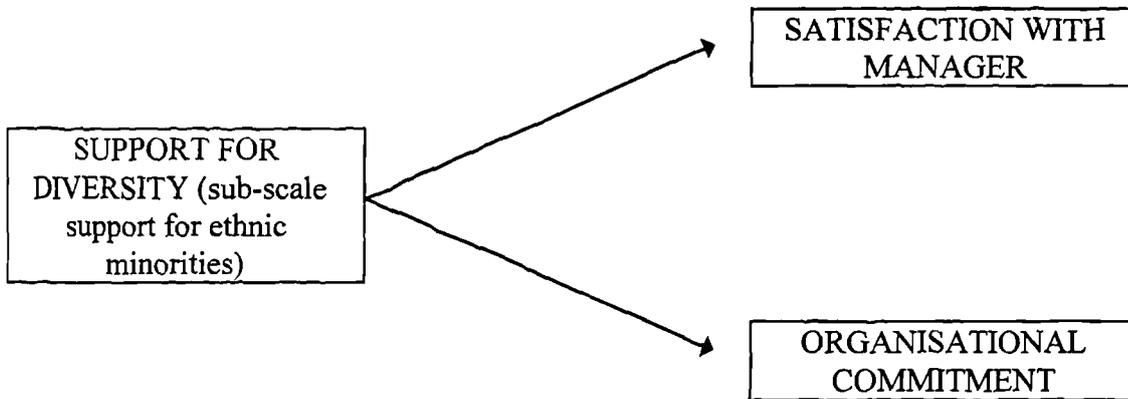


Table 92 Analysis of Variance: Variables Influenced by Organisational Justice

Variable	DF Between Groups	F Value	F Prob
Satisfaction with Manager	3	26.809	0.0000
Career Commitment	3	11.967	0.0000
Career Future Satisfaction	3	44.014	0.0000
Career Planning	3	9.223	0.0000
Career Satisfaction	3	17.477	0.0000
Job Satisfaction	3	52.358	0.0000
Organisational Commitment	3	57.246	0.0000

Analysis of variance shows that organisational justice has a significant relationship with the following variables: satisfaction with manager, career commitment, career future satisfaction, career planning, career satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. These relationships are represented in diagrammatic

format in Figure 34 below. All the relationships were also supported by correlation coefficient analysis.

Figure 34 ANOVA: Model Variables Influenced by Organisational Justice

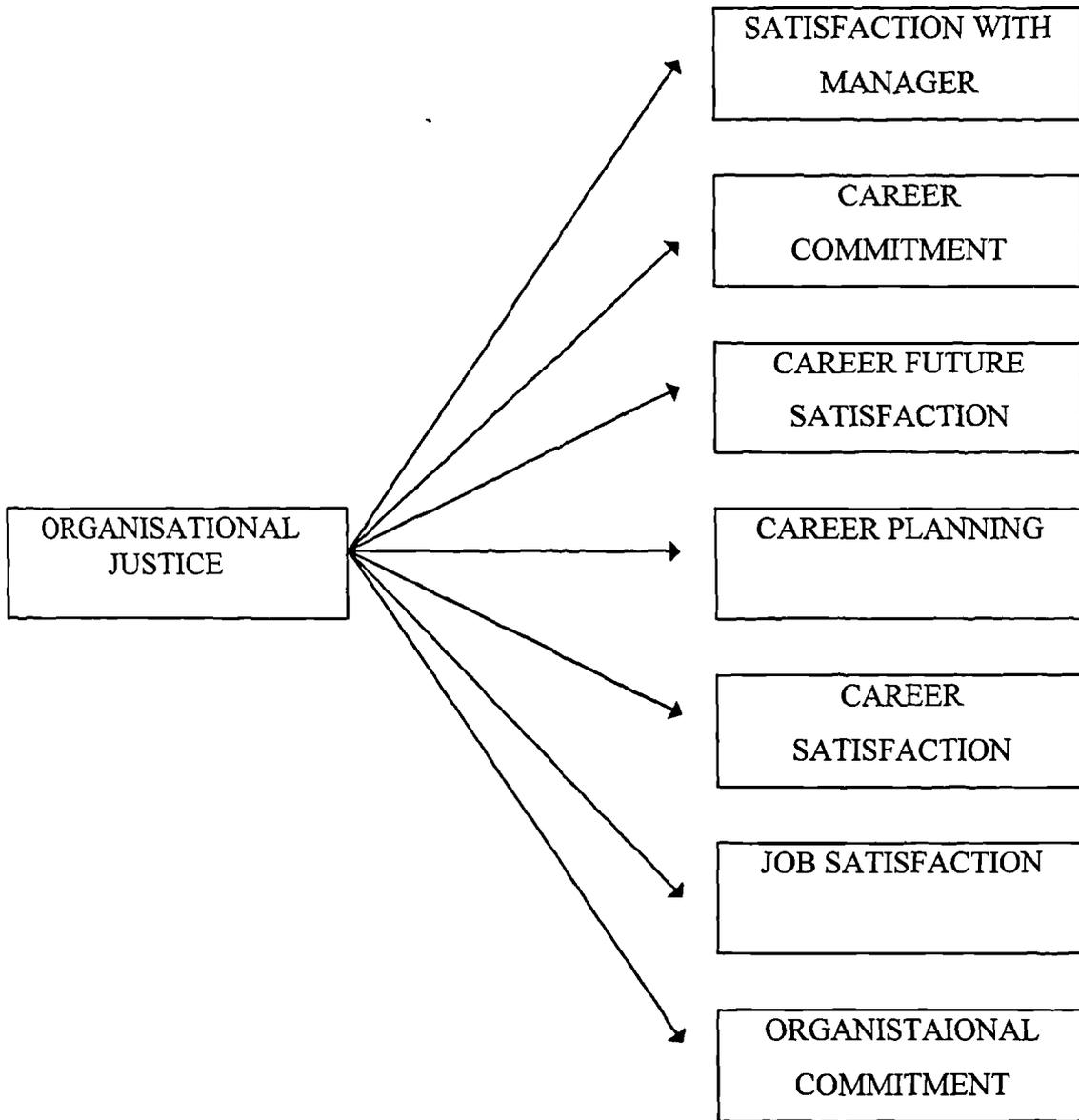


Table 93 Analysis of Variance: Variable Influenced by Age

Factor: Age			
Variable	DF Between Groups	F Value	F Prob
Organisational Commitment	4	2.460	0.0459

Analysis of variance show that age has a significant relationship with the organisational commitment variable. This relationship is represented below in Figure 35. This relationship is also shown in correlation coefficient analysis.

Figure 35 ANOVA: Model Variable Influenced by Age



Table 94 Analysis of Variance: Variable Influenced by Work Hours

Factor: Work Hours F/T or P/T			
Variable	DF Between Groups	F Value	F Prob
Career Commitment	1	5.213	0.023

Analysis of variance shows that hours of work has a significant relationship with the career commitment variable. However, the sample of managers working part-time was very small. This relationship is represented in diagrammatic format in Figure 36, below. This relationship was also shown by correlation coefficient analysis.

Figure 36 ANOVA: Model Variable Influenced by Work Hours



Table 95 Analysis of Variance: Variables Influencing Satisfaction with Manager

Variable	DF Between Groups	F Value	F Prob
Career Commitment	6	3.258	0.004
Career Future Satisfaction	6	20.109	0.0000
Career Satisfaction	6	5.499	0.0000
Childcare in the Organisation	6	2.129	0.0000
Seen a Copy of Equal Opps Policy	6	2.609	0.0179
Flexible Working Hours	6	2.797	0.0118
Job Satisfaction	6	14.321	0.0000
Support for Diversity	6	3.173	0.0050
Support for Ethnic Minorities	6	3.151	0.0050
Organisational Commitment	6	14.838	0.0000
Organisational Justice	6	13.852	0.0000
Age	6	2.339	0.0323

Analysis of variance shows that satisfaction with manager has a significant relationship with the following variables: career commitment, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, childcare provided, seen a copy of EO policy, flexible working hours, job satisfaction, support for diversity (with sub-scale support for ethnic minorities showing a strong influence), organisational commitment, organisational justice and age. These relationships are shown below in Figure 37.

Figure 37 ANOVA: Model Variable Influencing Satisfaction with Manager

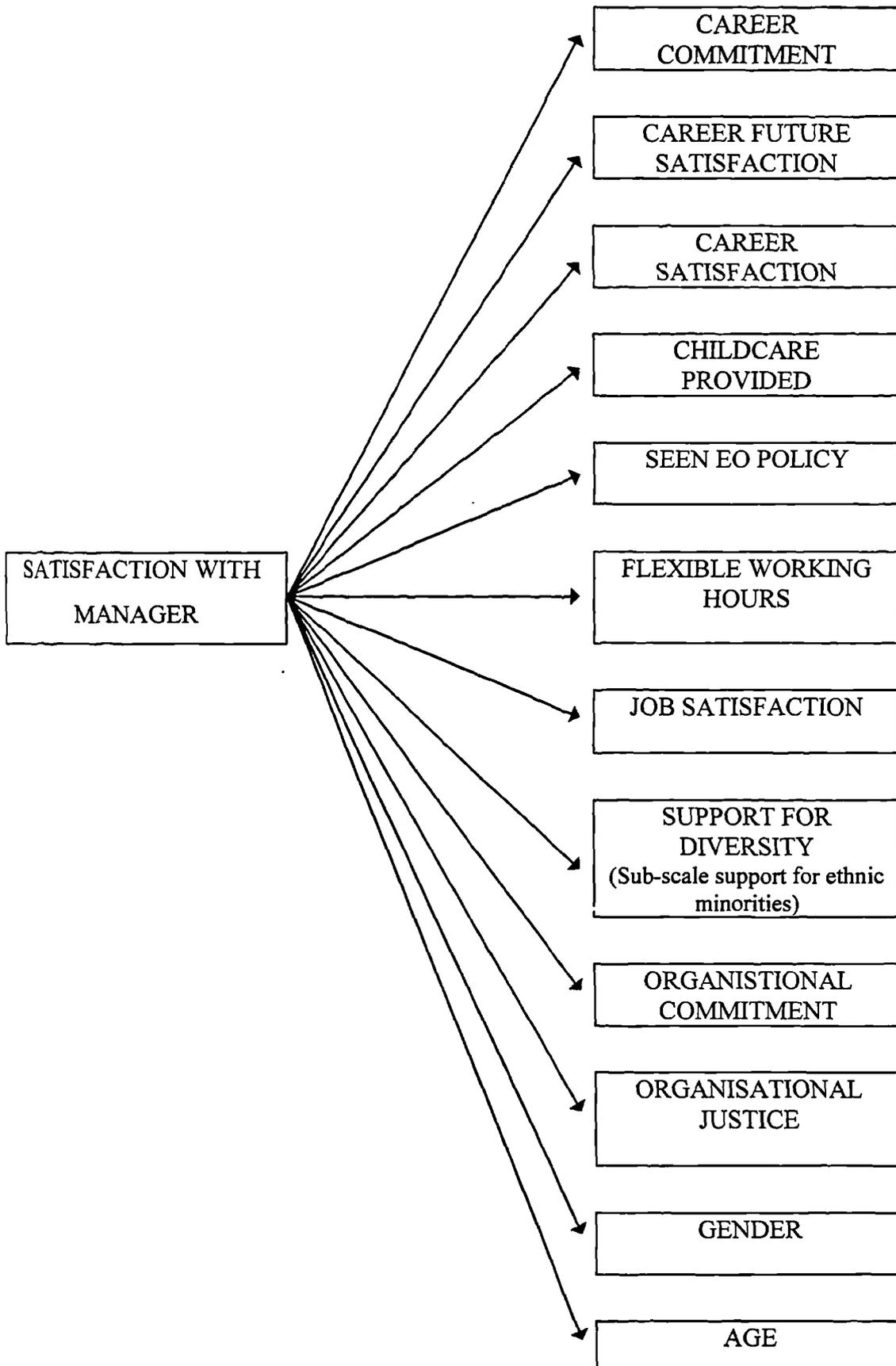
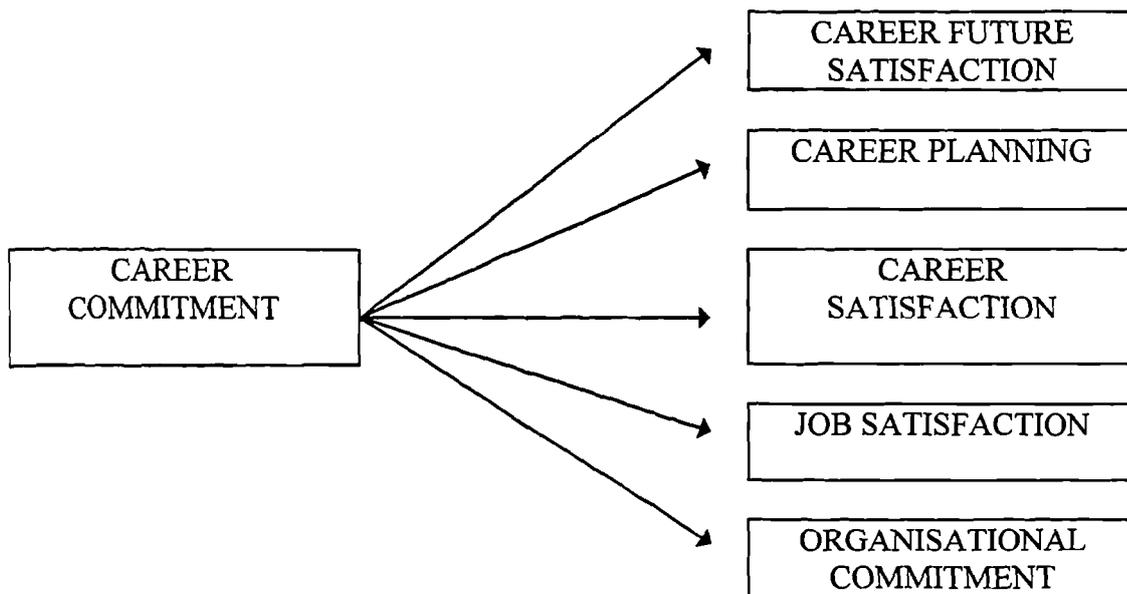


Table 96 Analysis of Variance: Variables Influenced by Career Commitment

Variable	DF Between Groups	F Value	F Prob
Career Future Satisfaction	3	8.217	0.0000
Career Planning	3	11.346	0.0000
Career Satisfaction	3	8.013	0.0000
Job Satisfaction	3	19.190	0.0000
Organisational Commitment	3	12.830	0.0000

Analysis of variance shows that career commitment has significant relationships with the following variables: career future satisfaction, career planning, career satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. These relationships are shown in Figure 38. All these relationships were also shown in the correlation coefficient analysis.

Figure 38 ANOVA: Model Variable Influenced by Career Commitment



4.15 Summary of ANOVA Results

The results of ANOVA show that in relation to the model, some variables do not relate to one another. The variables mentoring, childcare vouchers, disability, domestic care, ethnicity and gender do not appear to influence the outcomes of the positive climate for diversity model. It is possible to come to some conclusions as to why this might be. The sample had a very low number of ethnic minority and disabled respondents and only one organisation was considered providing childcare vouchers. This may explain why there was not a relationship between those particular variables and the outcomes of the model. A different sample may have yielded different results.

4.16 Relationships between Indicators and Outcomes of PCFD

drawn from Regression Analysis

4.16.1 Regression Analysis

Regression analysis was also conducted on the variables in the model to show the relationships between the individual characteristics, the PCFD indicators and the outcomes hypothesised by the model. Multiple regression analysis was conducted on the sample's individual characteristics and the PCFD characteristics so as to assess which characteristics predicted the PCFD measures.

Significant scores (that is 0.05 and under) are marked with an *.

4.16.2 Individual Characteristics

Regression analysis for the effects of individual characteristics variables on the PCFD was then conducted. Significant relationships are shown below.

4.16.2.1 Equal Opportunities Policy

As can be seen in Table 97, no significant relationships were found between individual characteristics and the organisation having an equal opportunities (EO) policy, age and managerial level.

Table 97 Regression Analysis; Dependent Variable: Does this organisation have an EO Policy?

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Equal Opportunities Policy			
Gender	- 0.05	0.67	0.411
Age	- 0.03	0.24	0.617
Marital Status	- 0.04	0.64	0.422
Domestic Care Responsibilities	0.02	0.19	0.659
Managerial Level	0.00	0.00	0.977
Work Hours (F/t or P/t)	- 0.02	0.13	0.709

Interestingly, table 97 shows that none of the relationships analysed were significant.

Table 98 Regression Analysis; Dependent Variable: Have you seen a copy of the Equal Opportunities Policy?

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Seen a Copy of EO Policy			
Gender	- 0.02	0.14	0.702
Age	- 0.12	3.86	0.050*
Marital Status	- 0.01	0.02	0.866
Domestic Care Responsibilities	0.02	0.17	0.675
Managerial Level	- 0.18	8.55	0.004*
Work Hours (F/t or P/t)	0.06	1.16	0.280

Table 98 shows that significant differences were found in terms of age and managerial level as to whether respondents had seen a copy of the EO policy, with older and

higher level managers reporting seeing such a policy. These relationships were also confirmed by correlation coefficient analysis.

Table 99 Regression Analysis; Dependent Variable: Does this organisation have a mentoring system in place?

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Mentoring System			
Gender	- 0.20	11.60	0.001*
Age	- 0.06	1.21	0.271
Marital Status	0.05	0.07	0.384
Domestic Care Responsibilities	- 0.01	0.04	0.826
Managerial Level	- 0.05	0.72	0.326
Work Hours (f/t or p/t)	- 0.01	0.04	0.838

Table 99 shows that whether the individual knew of a mentoring system in place was influenced by gender, with men being more aware of it than women. This could be related to the ‘old boy network’; perhaps men are informally mentored more often than women. This result is shown in the earlier statistical analysis as well (see t-test analysis).

Table 100 Regression Analysis, Dependent Variable: Does this organisation have Flexible Working Hours

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Flexible Working Hours			
Gender	- 0.03	0.03	0.581
Age	- 0.05	0.77	0.378
Marital Status	0.03	0.24	0.620
Domestic Care Responsibilities	0.06	1.26	0.261
Managerial Level	- 0.18	8.82	0.003*
Work Hours (f/t or p/t)	- 0.01	0.08	0.767

Table 100 shows that whether flexible working hours were available was influenced by managerial level (Significance F = 0.003). The higher the managerial level, the more likely the response to be that flexible working hours are available. This could be related to the job types, as nurse managers who are more likely to be junior managers do not have access to flexible working hours; neither do junior shopfloor managers in RC.

Table 101 Regression Analysis, Dependent Variable: Does this Organisation Provide

Childcare?

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Is there Childcare			
Gender	- 0.14	5.56	0.019*
Age	0.01	0.07	0.790
Marital Status	0.00	0.01	0.891
Domestic Care Responsibilities	0.12	4.08	0.044*
Managerial Level	- 0.06	1.32	0.251
Work Hours (f/t or p/t)	- 2.35	0.00	0.996

Table 101 above shows that the childcare variable was influenced by gender, with women more likely to know if childcare was available.

Table 102 Regression Analysis; Dependent Variable: Does this Organisation Provide

Career Breaks?

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Career Breaks			
Gender	- 0.03	0.39	0.527
Age	- 0.04	0.47	0.492
Marital Status	0.03	0.39	0.528
Domestic Care Responsibilities	- 0.00	0.00	0.985
Managerial Level	- 0.14	5.16	0.024*
Work Hours (f/t or p/t)	0.02	0.12	0.727

Table 102 shows that perceptions of whether career breaks were available were influenced by managerial level (Significance F = 0.024), with perception increasing as managerial level increased.

Table 103 Regression Analysis, Dependent Variable: Organisational Justice

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Organisational Justice			
Gender	- 0.02	0.14	0.706
Age	0.19	9.89	0.002*
Marital Status	- 0.00	0.01	0.910
Domestic Care Responsibilities	- 0.00	0.02	0.878
Managerial Level	0.21	11.59	0.001*
Work Hours (f/t or p/t)	-0.01	0.04	0.835

Table 103 shows that age and managerial level were found to influence organisational justice (Significance F = 0.002 and Significance F = 0.001 respectively), with the perception of organisational justice increasing with age and managerial level.

Table 104 Regression Analysis; Dependent Variable: Support for Diversity

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Support for Diversity			
Gender	- 0.14	4.95	0.027*
Age	0.03	0.26	0.607
Marital Status	- 0.02	0.17	0.673
Domestic Care Responsibilities	0.02	0.21	0.641
Managerial Level	0.00	0.00	0.932
Work Hours (f/t or p/t)	-0.01	0.08	0.770

Table 104 shows that support for diversity was influenced by gender, with men perceiving there to be more support for diversity in the organisation than women.

Support for Women (significant score only)

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Support for Women			
Gender	- 0.33	33.05	0.000*

The above table shows that support for women was influenced by gender. No significant relationships were found with support for ethnic minorities sub-scale and model variables. Women are more likely to support other women, suggesting that the more female managers in an organisation the more likely the numbers of women at management are to increase as women may well mentor each other aiding progression (Kanter 1977).

Table 105 Regression Analysis; Dependent Variable: Need for Diversity

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Need for Diversity			
Gender	0.18	8.21	0.005*
Age	- 0.01	0.04	0.837
Marital Status	0.05	0.70	0.401
Domestic Care Responsibilities	0.06	1.05	0.306
Managerial Level	0.07	1.55	0.214
Work Hours (f/t or p/t)	- 0.58	0.85	0.357

Table 105 shows that gender influences needs for diversity (Significance F = 0.005), with women perceiving the need for diversity more highly than men.

4.16.3 Regression Analysis on the Independent Variables (group characteristics)

In this section the whole of the PCFD Scale is set against the model outcomes. As Table 106 below shows, the PCFD measures are significantly related to organisational commitment (F = 0.000), job satisfaction (F = 0.000) career commitment (F = 0.000), satisfaction with manager (F = 0.000), career satisfaction (F = 0.000) and career future satisfaction (F = 0.000). These results are in line with the hypotheses.

Table 106 Regression Analysis; The whole of PCFD Variables against Outcomes

Outcomes	Model F	Significance F	Model R square
Organisational Commitment	17.31	0.000*	0.432
Job Satisfaction	12.76	0.000*	0.359
Career Planning	2.28	0.018	0.082
Career Commitment	6.48	0.000*	0.207
Satisfaction with Manager	9.12	0.000*	0.285
Career Satisfaction	6.64	0.000*	0.224
Career Future Satisfaction	14.19	0.000*	0.385

4.16.3.1 Regression Analysis on the model

Regression analysis was then conducted on the two scales in the PCFD part of the model, to see how they affect the outcome variables.

The PCFD scale is divided into two parts; firstly, a policy support scale (EO policies and procedures provided in the organisation) and secondly an equity recognition scale (concerned with recognition of diversity and fair treatment in the organisation for all).

In order to achieve these scales, their constituent parts were added together.

Table 107 Regression Analysis; Policy Support Scale

Outcomes	Model F	Significance F	Model R square
Organisational Commitment	2.18	0.035*	0.057
Job Satisfaction	1.08	0.375	0.029
Career Planning	1.38	0.222	0.032
Career Commitment	1.80	0.099	0.447
Satisfaction with Manager	3.01	0.004*	0.077
Career Satisfaction	2.07	0.046*	0.054
Career Future Satisfaction	1.86	0.007*	0.049

Table 107 shows that policy support predicted the following: organisational commitment (F = 0.035), satisfaction with manager (F = 0.004), career satisfaction (F = 0.046) and career future satisfaction (F = 0.007).

4.16.3.2 Equity Recognition

As can be seen from table 108, all outcomes were influenced by the equity recognition scale, with organisational commitment, job satisfaction and career future satisfaction being particularly strongly influenced.

Table 108 Regression Analysis; Equity Recognition Scale

Outcomes	Model F	Significance F	Model R square
Organisational Commitment	50.89	0.000*	0.386
Job Satisfaction	39.83	0.000*	0.328
Career Planning	5.04	0.002*	0.058
Career Commitment	17.64	0.000*	0.181
Satisfaction with Manager	24.52	0.000*	0.231
Career Satisfaction	17.04	0.000*	0.172
Career Future Satisfaction	40.54	0.000*	0.334

In this next phase of regression analysis, the PCFD variables were analysed to see how they influenced the outcomes of the model individually.

As can be seen from Table 109 below, organisational commitment is predicted by flexi-time (F = 0.009) and organisational justice (F = 0.000).

4.16.4 Multiple Regression of Individual Variables

PCFD Variables are used here as independent variables and compared with the outcomes predicted by the model. This was conducted on the full sample.

Table 109 Regression Analysis; Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Organisational Commitment			
EO Policy	0.02	0.14	0.702
EO Policy Seen	- 0.10	2.95	0.087
Mentoring	- 0.09	2.49	0.115
Flexible Working Hours	- 0.15	6.84	0.009*
Childcare Provided	- 0.08	2.06	0.152
Childcare Vouchers	- 0.02	0.18	0.667
Career Break Provided	- 0.08	2.11	0.147
Organisational Justice	0.63	173.64	0.000*
Need for Diversity	- 0.03	0.29	0.584
Support for Diversity	0.09	2.38	0.124

Table 109 shows that organisational commitment was predicted by flexible working hours ($F = 0.009$) and very strongly by organisational justice ($F = 0.000$). organisational justice is therefore an important variable in determining organisational commitment.

Table 110 Regression Analysis; Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Job Satisfaction			
EO Policy	- 0.04	0.44	0.507
EO Policy Seen	- 0.09	2.42	0.120
Mentoring	- 0.05	0.85	0.354
Flexible Working Hours	- 0.14	5.58	0.018*
Childcare Provided	- 0.00	0.02	0.879
Childcare Vouchers	- 0.01	0.05	0.823
Career Break Provided	- 0.07	1.66	0.198
Organisational Justice	0.58	134.96	0.000*
Need for Diversity	- 0.03	0.29	0.590
Support for Diversity	0.19	11.13	0.001*
Support for Women	0.12	4.45	0.036*
Support for Ethnic Minorities	0.16	7.84	0.005*

Table 110 shows that job satisfaction was predicted by flexible working hours (Significance F = 0.018), organisational justice (Significance F = 0.000), support for diversity (Significance F = 0.001), support for women (Significance F = 0.036) and support for ethnic minorities (Significance F = 0.005).

Table 111 Regression Analysis: Dependent Variable: Career Planning

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Career Planning			
EO Policy	- 0.05	0.71	0.397
EO Policy Seen	- 0.86	1.99	0.159
Mentoring	- 0.11	3.59	0.059
Flexible Working Hours	- 0.10	2.83	0.093
Childcare Provided	0.01	0.04	0.836
Childcare Vouchers	- 0.09	2.65	0.104
Career Break Provided	- 0.06	1.12	0.289
Organisational Justice	0.18	9.53	0.002*
Need for Diversity	0.04	0.48	0.485
Support for Diversity	0.06	0.84	0.434

Table 111 shows that career planning was predicted by organisational justice (Significance F = 0.002).

Table 112 Regression Analysis; Dependent Variable: Career Commitment

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Career Commitment			
EO Policy	- 0.01	0.05	0.808
EO Policy Seen	- 0.13	4.83	0.028*
Mentoring	- 0.05	0.66	0.416
Flexible Working Hours	- 0.06	1.27	0.259
Childcare Provided	- 0.00	0.00	0.956
Childcare Vouchers	0.01	0.03	0.847
Career Break Provided	0.01	0.05	0.821
Organisational Justice	0.33	33.09	0.000*
Need for Diversity	0.06	12.75	0.004*
Support for Diversity	0.00	0.01	0.910

Table 112 shows that career commitment was predicted by EO policy seen (Significance F = 0.028), need for diversity (Significance F = 0.004), and organisational justice (Significance F = 0.000).

Table 113 Regression Analysis; Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with Manager

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Satisfaction with Manager			
EO Policy	- 0.11	3.56	0.060
EO Policy Seen	- 0.18	9.31	0.002*
Mentoring	- 0.08	1.81	0.179
Flexible Working Hours	- 0.19	10.46	0.001*
Childcare Provided	- 0.03	0.34	0.559
Childcare Vouchers	0.02	0.19	0.657
Career Break Provided	- 0.05	0.80	0.370
Organisational Justice	0.46	72.02	0.000*
Need for Diversity	0.03	0.35	0.549
Support for Diversity	0.18	9.37	0.002*
Support for Women	0.20	12.16	0.001*
Support for Ethnic Minorities	0.14	5.99	0.015*

Table 113 shows that satisfaction with manager was predicted by EO policy seen (Significance F = 0.002), flexible working hours (Significance F = 0.001), organisational justice (Significance F = 0.000), support for diversity (Significance F = 0.002), support for women (Significance F = 0.001) and support for ethnic minorities (Significance F = 0.015).

Table 114 Regression Analysis: Dependent Variable: Career Satisfaction

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Career Satisfaction			
EO Policy	- 0.03	0.26	0.605
EO Policy Seen	- 0.56	0.83	0.361
Mentoring	- 0.11	3.64	0.057
Flexible Working Hours	- 0.18	9.48	0.002*
Childcare Provided	- 0.03	0.41	0.519
Childcare Vouchers	- 0.04	0.56	0.454
Career Break Provided	- 0.11	3.70	0.055
Organisational Justice	0.42	58.07	0.000*
Need for Diversity	0.03	0.31	0.572
Support for Diversity	0.09	2.56	0.110

As table 114, shows career satisfaction was predicted by flexible working hours (Significance F = 0.002) and organisational justice (Significance F = 0.000).

Table 115 Regression Analysis; Dependent Variable: Career Future Satisfaction

Independent Variable	Standardised beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Career Future Satisfaction			
EO Policy	- 0.03	0.35	0.551
EO Policy Seen	- 0.05	0.77	0.381
Mentoring	- 0.09	2.30	0.129
Flexible Working Hours	- 0.17	8.14	0.004*
Childcare Provided	0.02	0.20	0.651
Childcare Vouchers	- 0.03	0.31	0.574
Career Break Provided	- 0.13	4.77	0.029*
Organisational Justice	0.58	135.78	0.000*
Need for Diversity	- 0.06	1.18	0.278
Support for Diversity	0.26	19.39	0.000*
Support for Women	0.23	15.05	0.001*
Support for Ethnic Minorities	0.10	3.23	0.735

Table 115 shows that career future satisfaction is predicted by flexible working hours (Significance F = 0.004), career break provided (Significance F = 0.029), organisational justice (Significance F = 0.000), support for diversity (Significance F = 0.050) and support for women (Significance F = 0.001).

Table 116 Regression Analysis; Policy Support Scale as Predictors of Organisational Justice

Dependent Variable	Model F	Significance	Model R square
Organisational Justice	1.16	0.324	0.031

Table 116 shows that there was no significant support for the policy support scale as a predictor of organisational justice.

Table 117 Regression Analysis: The Policy Support predictors for Organisational Justice

Independent Variables	Standardised Beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Organisational Justice			
EO Policy	- 0.00	0.00	0.948
EO Policy Seen	- 0.14	5.35	0.021*
Mentoring	- 0.11	3.36	0.067
Flexible Working Hours	- 0.02	0.19	0.655
Childcare Provided	0.01	0.04	0.832
Childcare Vouchers	- 0.00	0.02	0.873
Career Break Provided	- 0.07	1.47	0.226

As can be seen in table 117, EO policy seen predicts organisational justice.

Table 118 Regression Analysis: Policy Support Variables influence on Need for Diversity

Dependent Variable	Model F	Significance	Model R square
Need for Diversity	2.04	0.050	0.057

Table 118 shows that policy support variables do not influence need for diversity.

Table 119 Regression Analysis; The Policy Support predictors for Need for Diversity

Independent Variables	Standardised Beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Need for Diversity			
EO Policy	- 0.04	0.54	0.462
EO Policy Seen	- 0.20	10.67	0.001*
Mentoring	- 0.08	2.03	0.155
Flexible Working Hours	- 0.07	1.53	0.216
Childcare Provided	0.00	0.01	0.888
Childcare Vouchers	- 0.08	0.17	0.895
Career Break Provided	- 0.11	3.10	0.079

The above table (number 119) shows that EO policy seen predicts need for diversity.

Table 120 Regression Analysis; Policy Support Variables influence on Support for Diversity

Dependent Variable	Model F	Significance	Model R square
Need for Diversity	1.02	0.415	0.027

Table 120 shows that the policy support variables do not influence support for diversity.

Table 121 Regression Analysis; The Policy Support predictors for Support for Diversity

Independent Variables	Standardised Beta	F	Significance F
Dependent: Support for Diversity			
EO Policy	- 0.03	0.36	0.544
EO Policy Seen	0.02	0.13	0.708
Mentoring	- 0.03	0.24	0.618
Flexible Working Hours	- 0.03	0.33	0.565
Childcare Provided	0.05	0.85	0.356
Childcare Vouchers	0.07	1.47	0.225
Career Break Provided	0.00	0.00	0.960

From the above table 121, it appears that none of the variables tested predict management support for diversity.

4.16.5 Regression Analysis Relationships shown in Diagrammatic Format

Figure 39 EO Policy Seen

Age and managerial level influenced whether individuals have seen a copy of an EO policy document, as shown in figure 39.

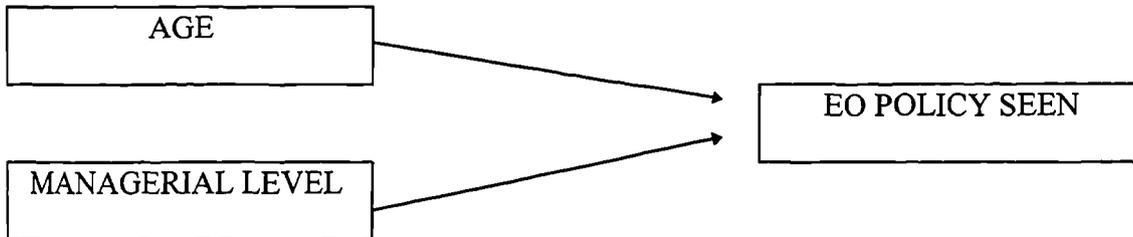


Figure 40 Mentoring

Mentoring was influenced by gender, as shown by figure 40.

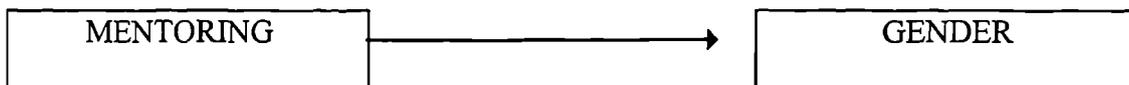


Figure 41 Flexible Working Hours

Flexible working hours was influenced by managerial level, as shown by figure 41.



Figure 42 Childcare Provided

Childcare was influenced by gender and domestic care responsibilities as shown by figure 42.

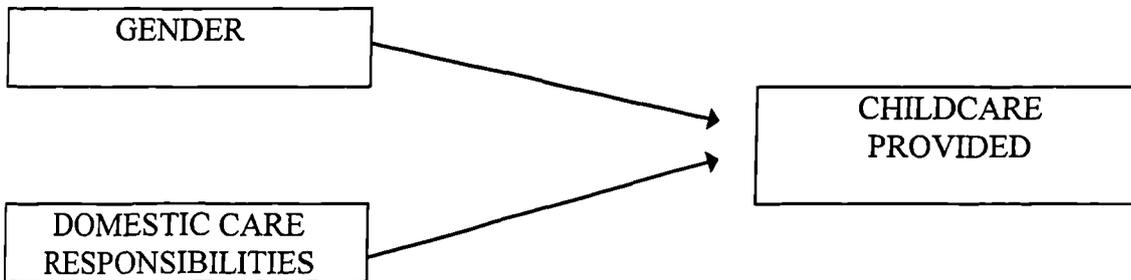


Figure 43 Childcare Vouchers

Childcare vouchers was influenced by marital status and domestic care responsibility, as shown in figure 43.

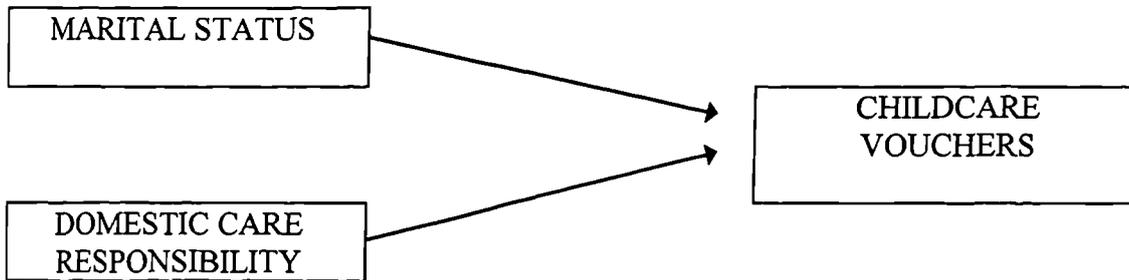


Figure 44 Career Breaks

Career breaks was influenced by managerial level, as shown in figure 44.

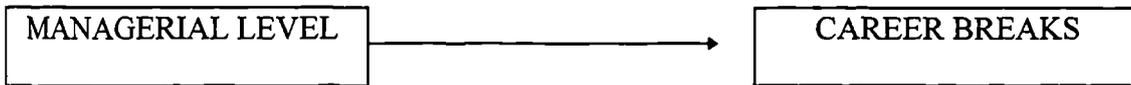


Figure 45 Organisational Justice

Organisational justice was influenced by age and managerial level, as shown in figure 45.

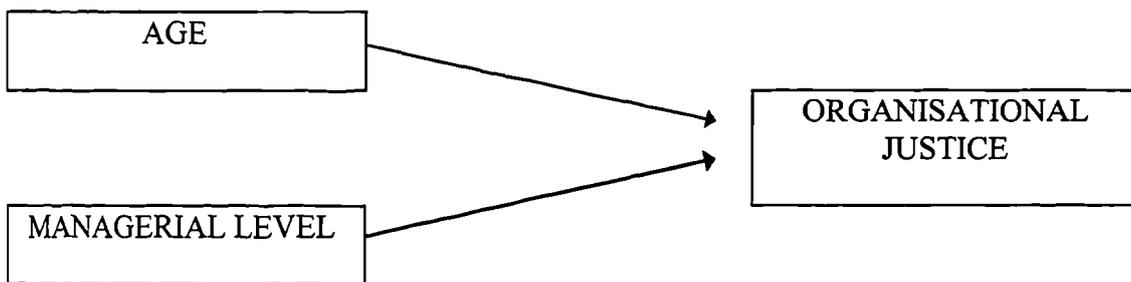


Figure 46 Support For Diversity

Support for diversity was influenced by gender, as shown by figure 46.

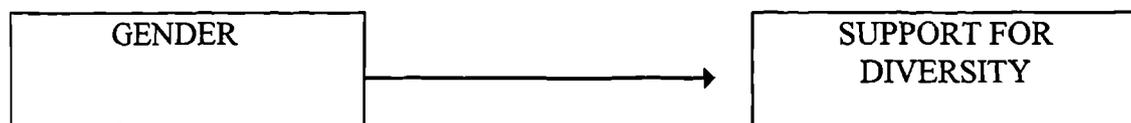


Figure 47 Need For Diversity

Need for diversity was influenced by gender, as shown in figure 47.



Figure 48 Positive Climate For Diversity Variables

PCFD variables influence outcome variables, as shown in figure 48.

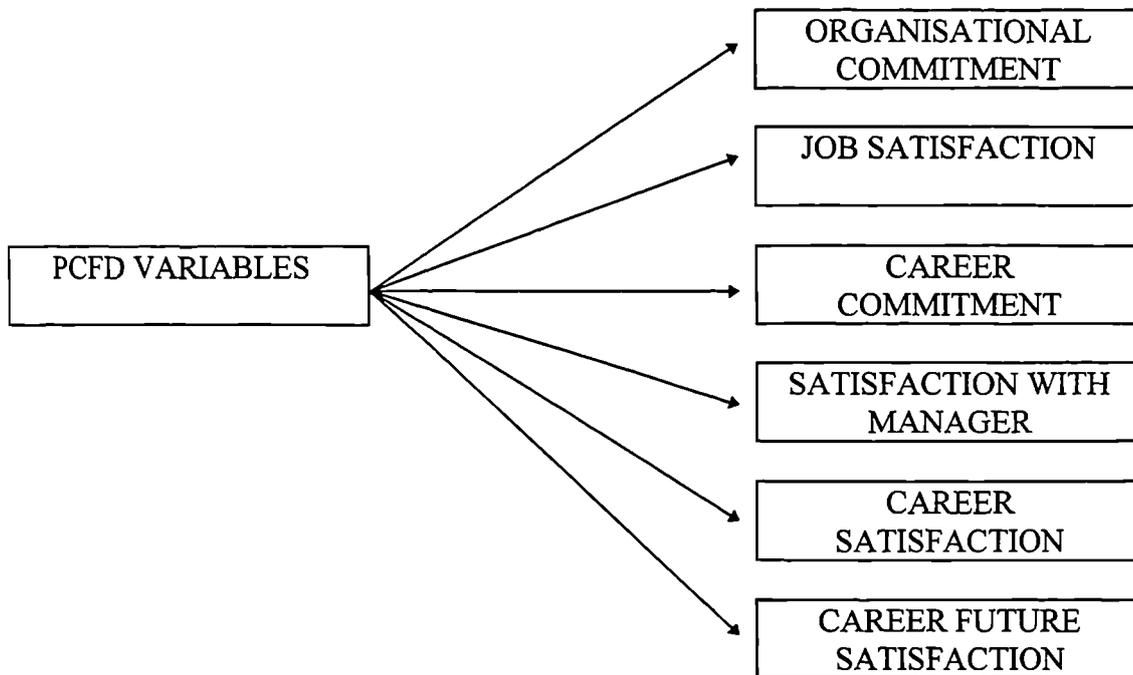


Figure 49 Policy Support Scale

Policy support scale influences outcomes, as shown in figure 49.

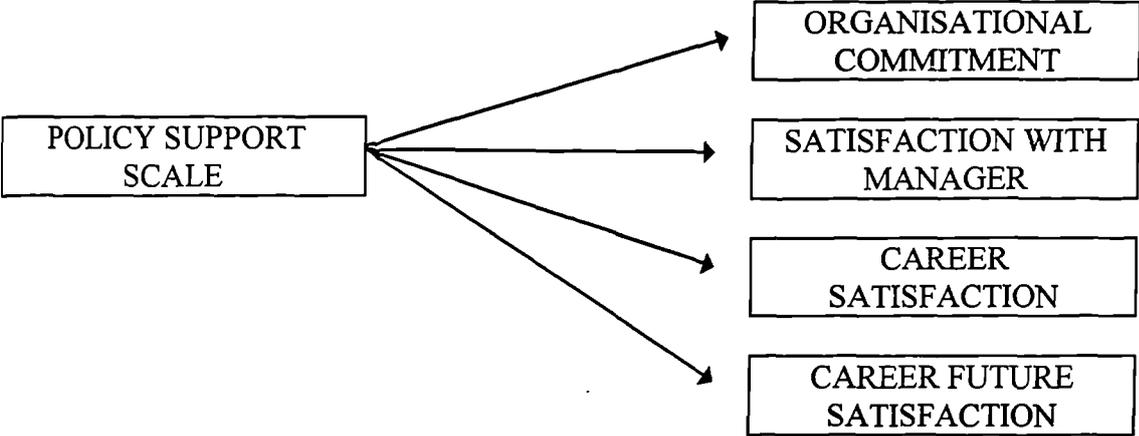


Figure 50 Equity Recognition Scale

Equity recognition scale influences outcomes, as shown in figure 50.

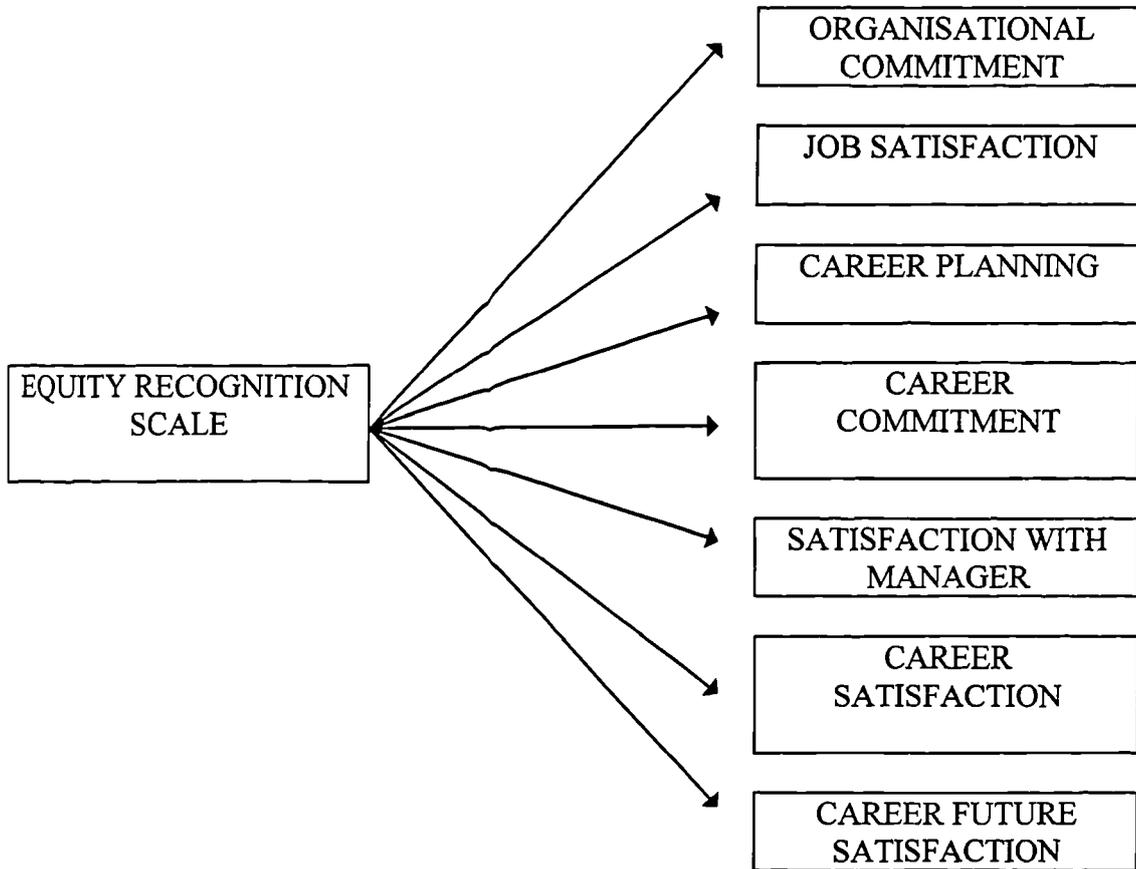


Figure 51 Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment is influenced by the presence of flexible working hours and organisational justice, as shown in figure 51.

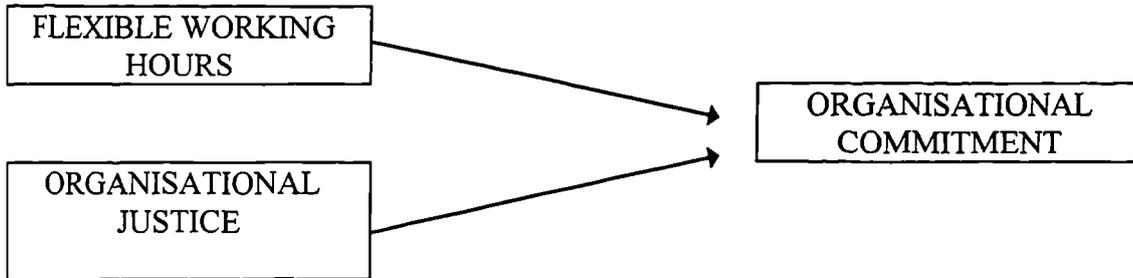


Figure 52 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is influenced by flexible working hours and organisational justice, as shown in figure 52.

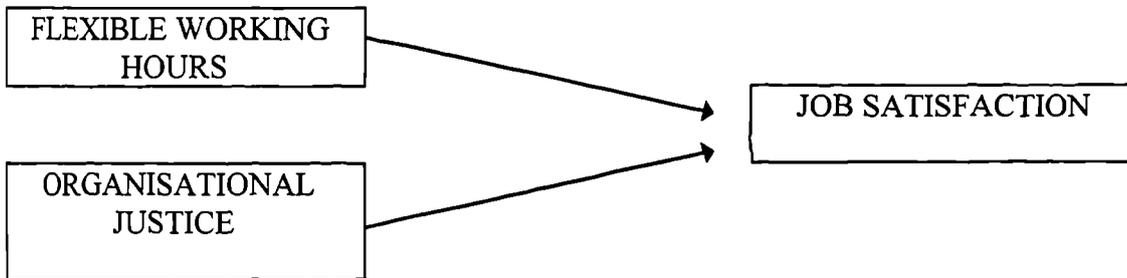


Figure 53 Career Planning

Career planning is influenced by organisational justice as shown in figure 53.

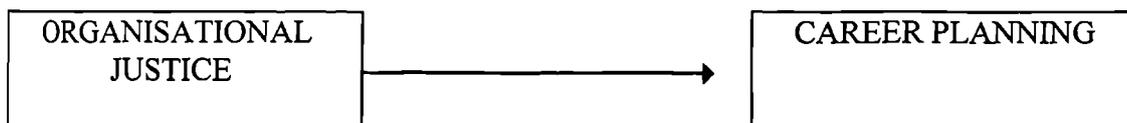


Figure 54 Career Commitment

Career commitment is influenced by whether an individual had seen a copy of an EO policy and organisational justice as shown in figure 54.

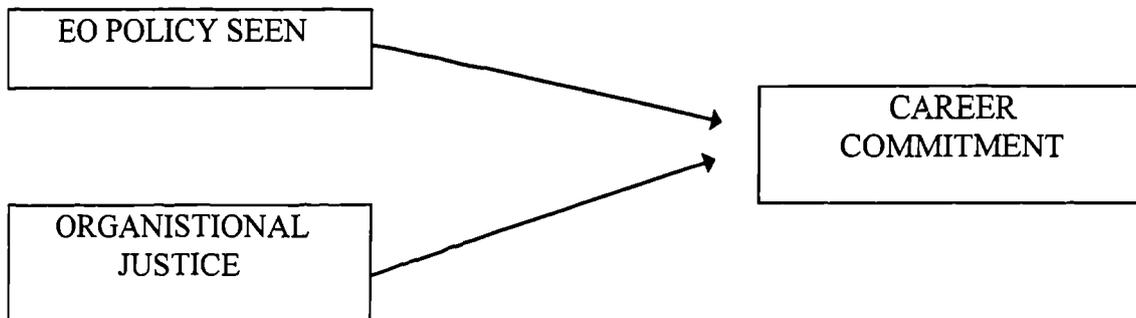


Figure 55 Satisfaction With Manager

Satisfaction with manager is influenced by whether individuals had seen a copy of the EO policy, whether they have flexible working hours, organisational justice and support for diversity, as shown in figure 55.

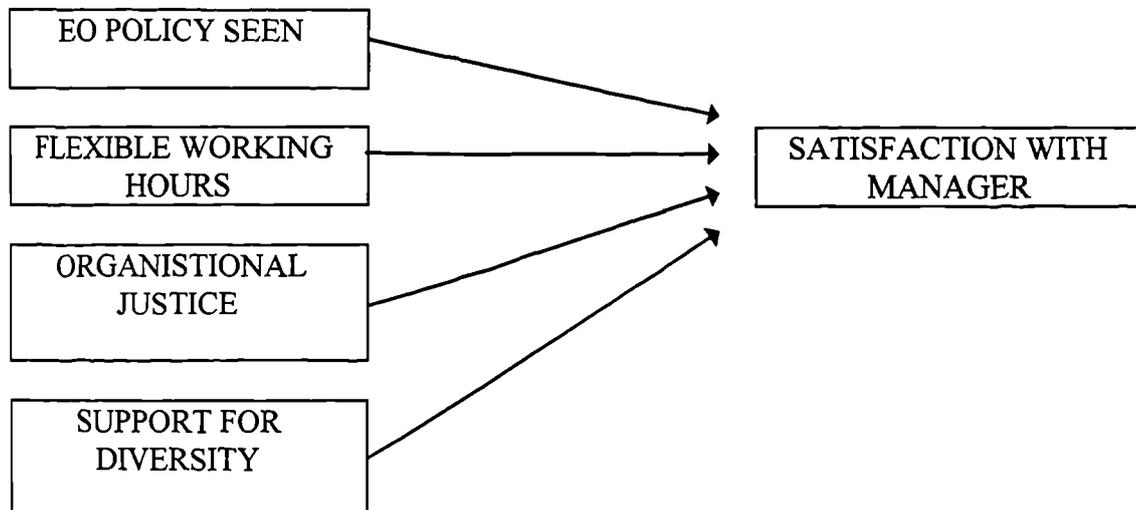


Figure 56 Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction is influenced by flexible working hours and organisational justice, as shown in figure 56 below.

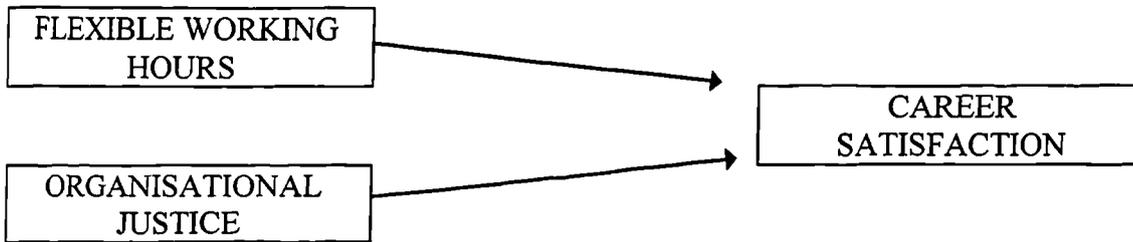


Figure 57 Career Future Satisfaction

Career future satisfaction is influenced by flexible working hours, career break, organisational justice and support for diversity, as shown in figure 57 below.

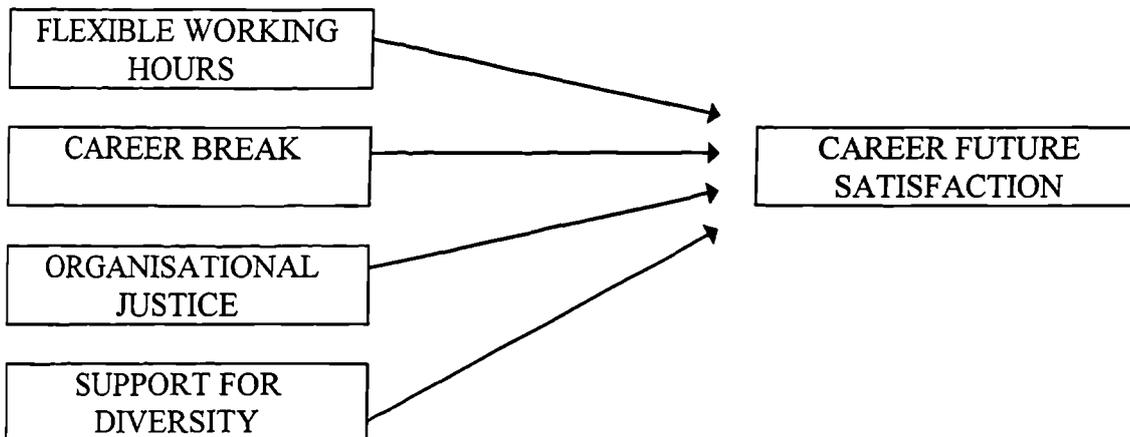


Figure 58 Organisational Justice

Organisational justice was influenced by EO policy seen, as shown in figure 58 below.



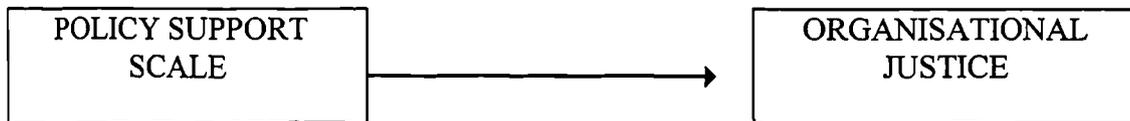
Figure 59 Need For Diversity

Need for diversity was influenced by EO policy seen, as shown in the figure 59 below.



Figure 60 Organisational Justice

This figure shows that organisational justice was predicted by policy support scale.



4.16.5.1 PCFD VARIABLES RELATED TO THE OUTCOMES

Figure 61 PCFD Variables Which Influence Organisational Commitment

The following figures show that the PCFD variables were related to the outcome variables.

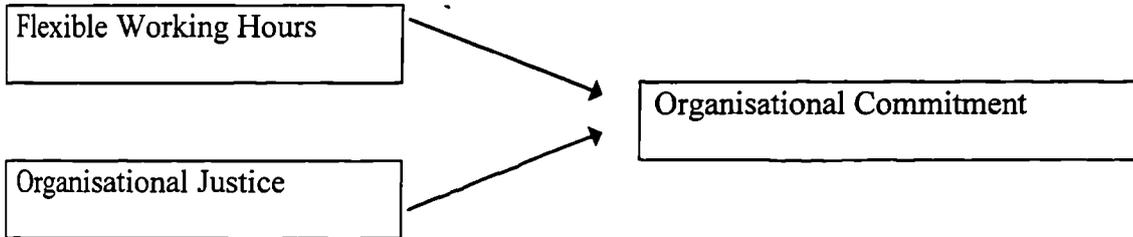


Figure 62 PCFD Independent Variables Flexible Working Hours And Organisational

Justice

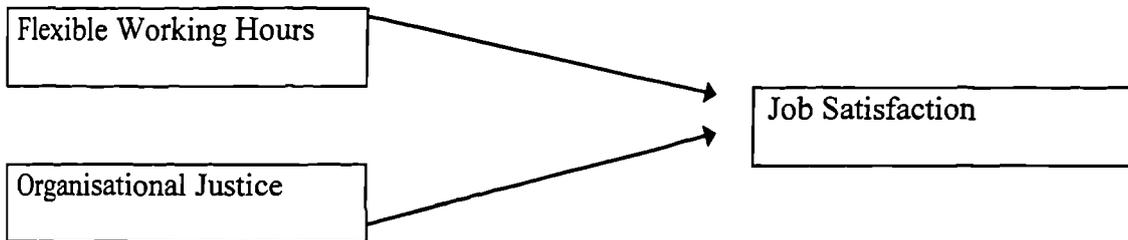


Figure 63 Positive Climate For Diversity: Equity Recognition Scale Related To

Outcomes

Figure 63 shows the relationship between equity the recognition scale and the PCFD model outcome variables.

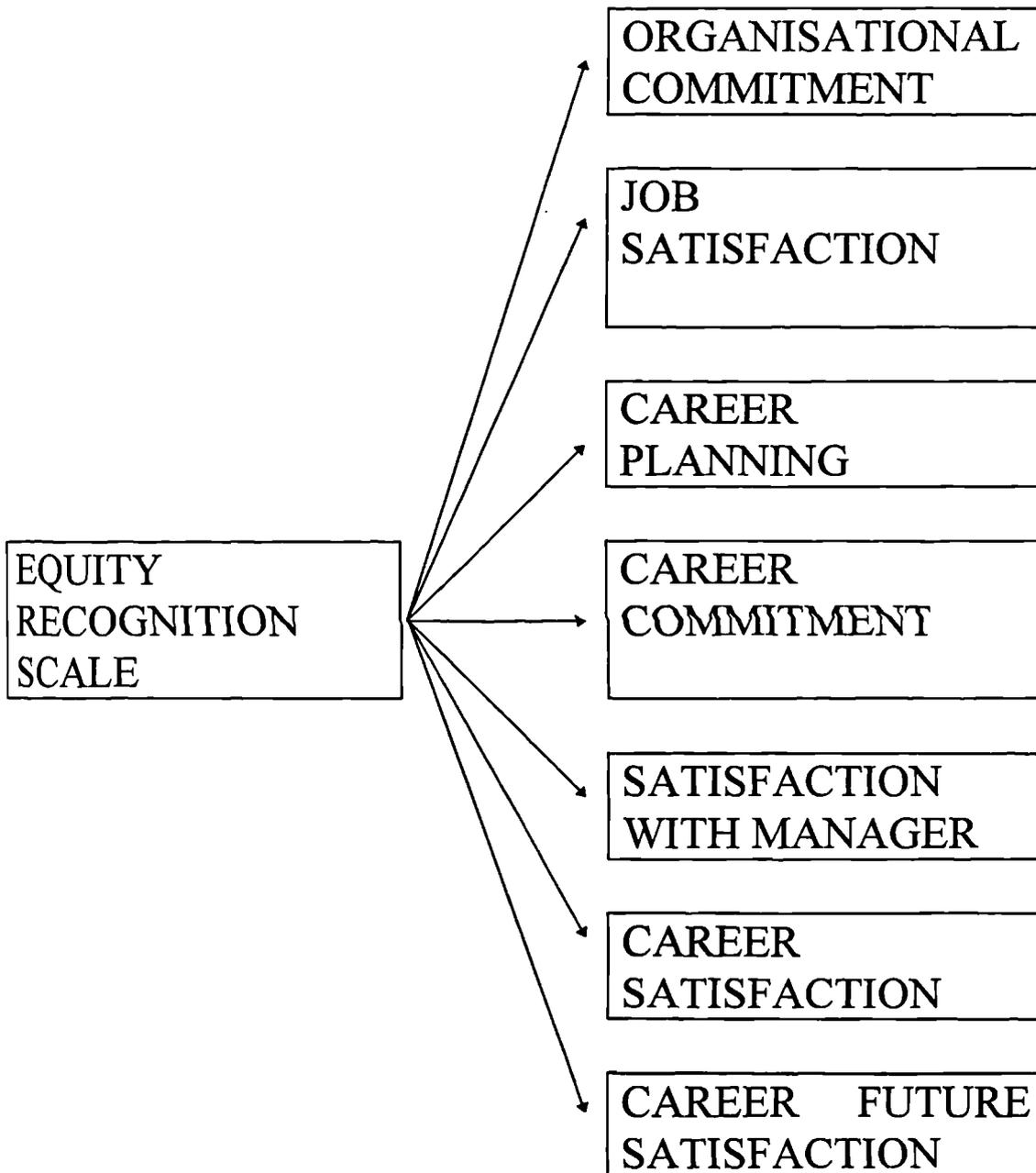


Figure 64 Positive Climate For Diversity Policy Support Scale Related To Outcomes

Figure 64 shows the policy support scale relationships with PCFD model outcome variables.

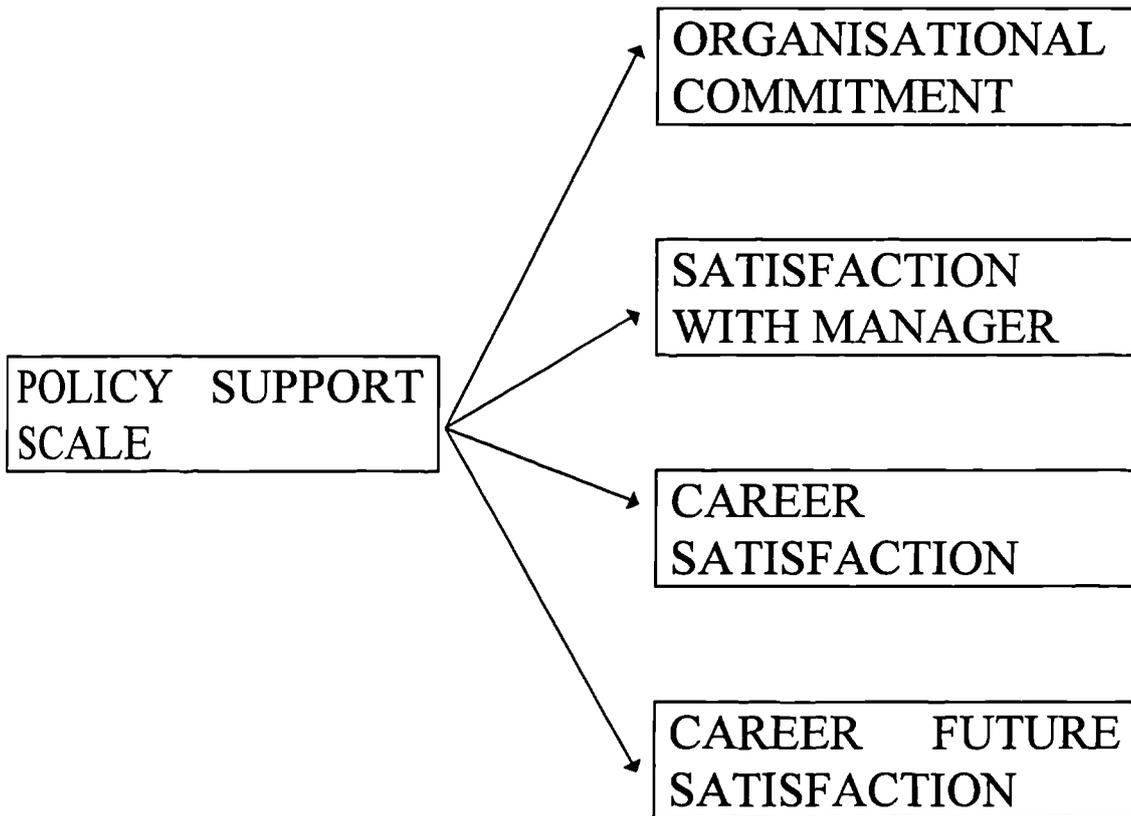


Figure 65 Positive Climate For Diversity Indicators and their Relationship with
PCFD Model Outcomes

Figure 65 shows the PCFD indicators and their relationship with PCFD model outcomes.

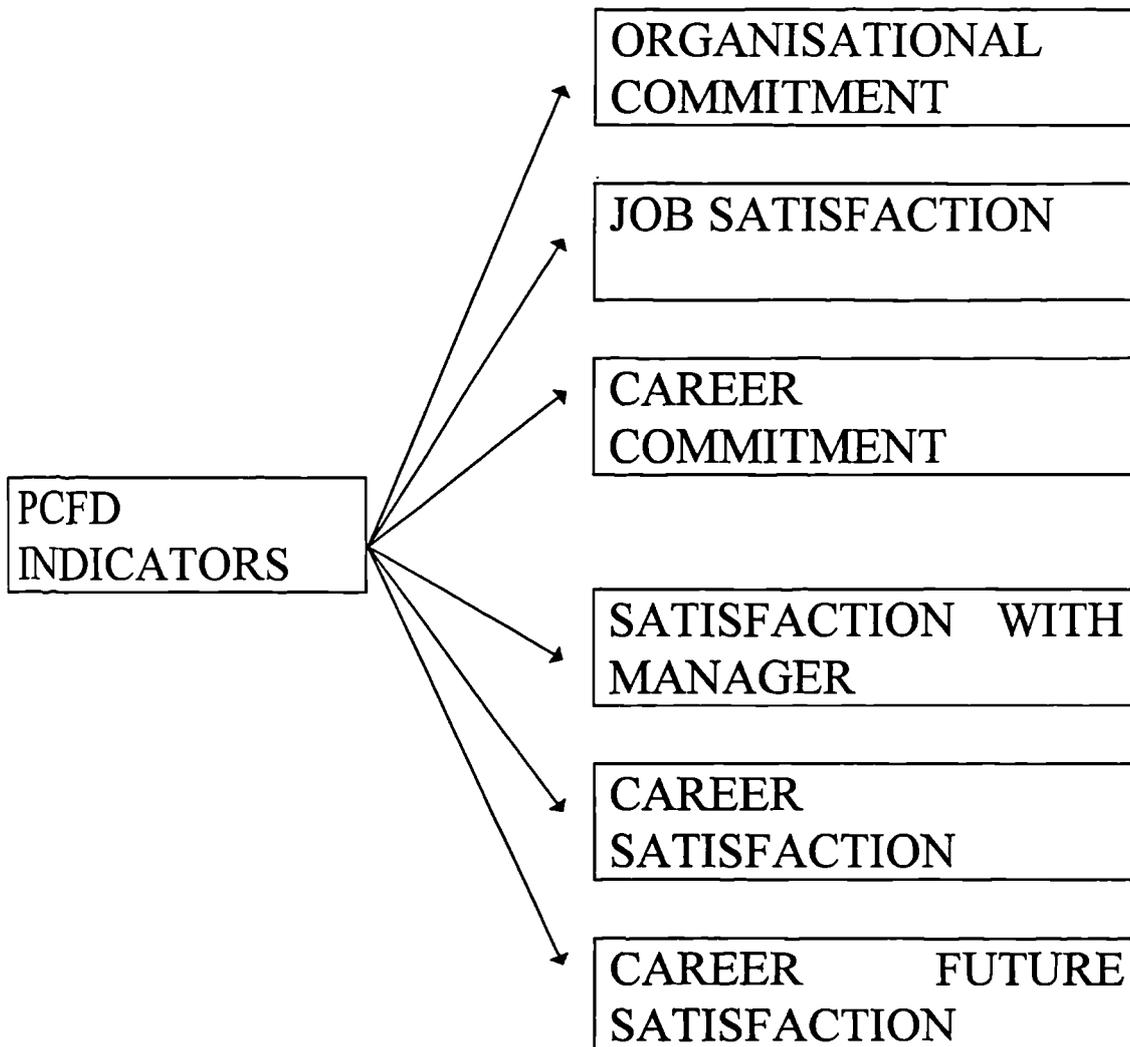


Figure 66 The Relationship between PCFD moderating variables and the Equity

Recognition Scale Variables

Figure 66 shows the relationships between moderating variables and PCFD model equity recognition scale variables.

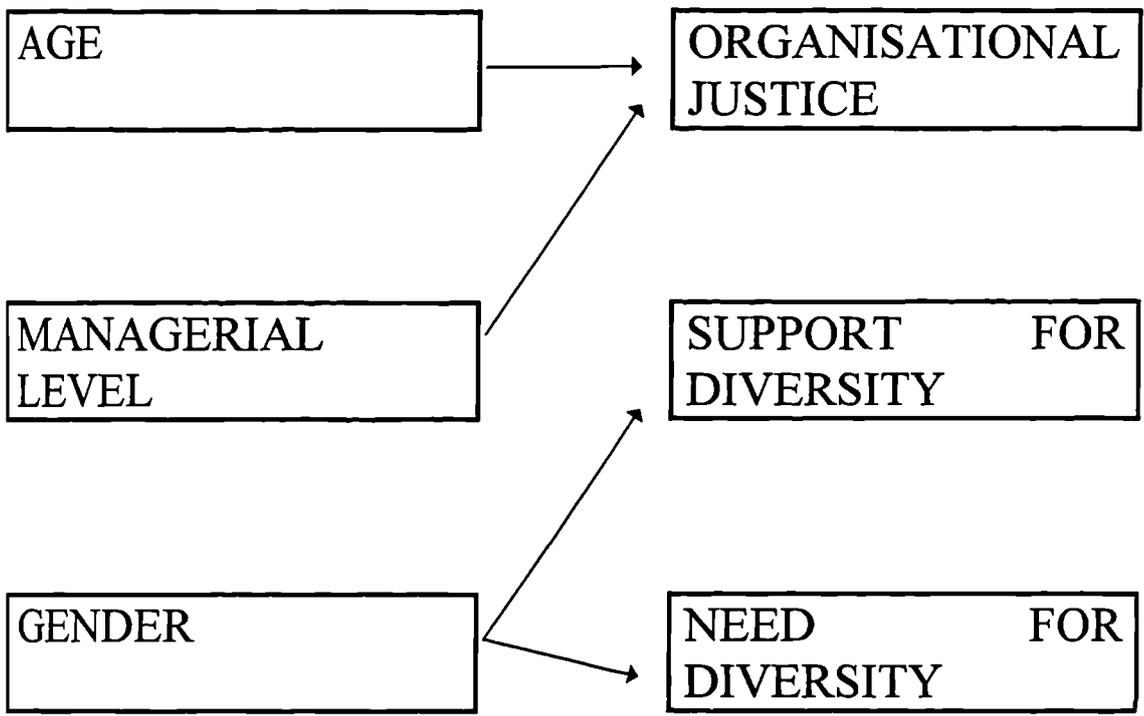
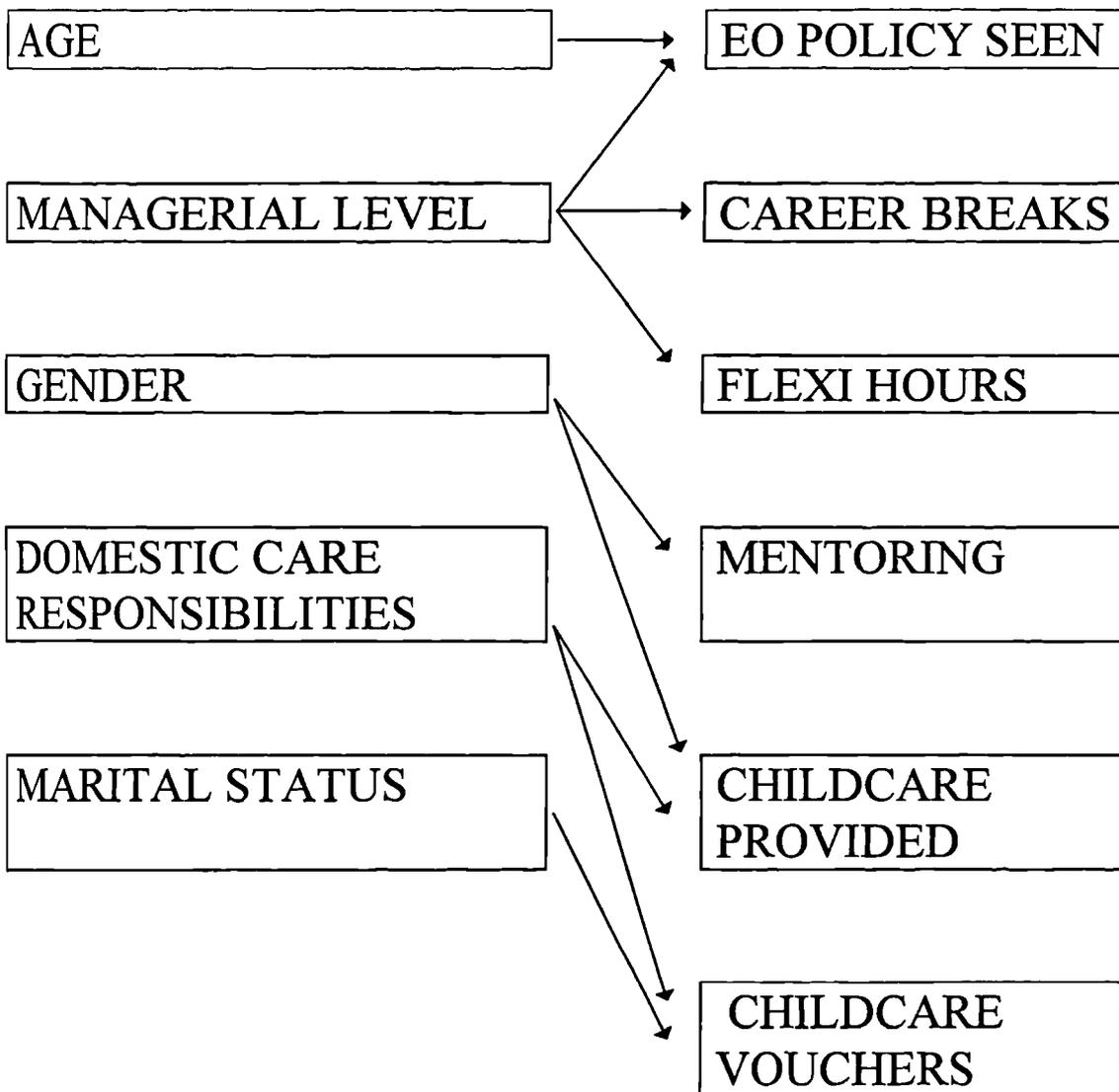


Figure 67 PCFD Moderating Variables and their Relationship with Policy and Procedure Indication Variables

Figure 67 show the relationship between the moderating variables and the policy and procedure model variables.



4.17 Statistical Analysis Reviewed

4.17.1 Moderating Variables

The statistical analysis was conducted on both the individual organisational samples and on the management sample as a whole. The majority of the sample came from NHS Trusts (90.1%), with 9.9% coming from RC.

4.17.2 Climate for Diversity - Independent Variables

Policy Support Scale

In terms of 'policy support' by the organisation, 98.9% were aware that their organisation did have an equal opportunities policy, and 81.8% of individuals had seen it. With respect to flexible working hours, 47.2 % of respondents perceived them as operating in their organisation. The majority of respondents, (63.6%) perceived their organisation as providing a mentoring system. When asked if their organisation provided childcare, 52.4% of respondents believed their organisations did. Only 7% of respondents thought that their organisations provided childcare vouchers. In reality, all organisations had an equal opportunities policy. Flexible working hours were by and large available to some managers in all organisations; generally, the higher the manager, the more likely he or she was to have access to flexible working hours. Only one organisation, RC, provided formal mentoring for its staff; however, informal mentoring did take place for some managers in all the NHS trusts. All NHS trusts provided childcare to some degree; RC did not provide it. In terms of childcare vouchers, only one organisation, an NHS Trust, was considering piloting them; none of the organisations provided them at present.

Equity Recognition Scale

In terms of support for diversity, the majority of respondents either expressed neutral views, or believed that there was not support for diversity in their organisation. In terms of need for diversity, the majority of respondents believed that diversity was needed in the organisation. An interesting split between men and women was found. Men, on the whole, perceived there to be support for diversity in their organisation, and saw no need for diversity within the organisation. Women on the other hand took the reverse view.

The other scale represented within the equity recognition scale was 'organisational justice'. The majority of respondents were neutral about the presence of organisational justice. However, 34.3% perceived organisational justice to be present within their organisation.

4.17.3 Outcomes of a PCFD - Dependent Variables

In terms of the outcomes of the PCFD model, the following were reported by the managerial sample: job satisfaction, career planning, career commitment, supervisor satisfaction, organisational commitment, career future satisfaction and career satisfaction.

4.17.3.1 The Climate of Each Organisation

Each organisation was considered firstly, in terms of the perceptions of staff towards the PCFD scales, that is the policy support scale and equity recognition scale, and secondly in terms of the PCFD outcomes. These were then considered next in relation

to the individual make-up of the organisational sample, and compared with the overall 'management' sample. The research generally considered the 'management' sample as a whole, attempting to identify a particular 'climate' within it and analyse its impacts on a range of career and organisational variables.

4.17.3.2 Analysis of Variance

Using analysis of variance, it was found that managerial level had a significant relationship with: career breaks, career commitment, career future satisfaction, job satisfaction, career planning, career satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational justice and childcare vouchers. Of these, the significant relationship with childcare vouchers should perhaps be ruled out, as the number of respondents who perceived childcare vouchers in their organisation was very small, only 7% of the sample. Therefore, those at higher managerial levels were more likely to be aware of career breaks. They were also more likely to be committed to their career, and expressed career future satisfaction, job satisfaction, career satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Gender was found to have a significant relationship with childcare provided, mentoring, and the need for diversity. Women were more likely to be aware of childcare and the need for diversity; men were more likely to be aware of mentoring.

Managerial level appeared to have the most influence on the outcomes of the PCFD, rather than gender, which is an interesting finding.

Analysis of variance was also used to analyse the following data. Perception of whether career breaks were present in an organisation or were not present influenced the following variables: career future satisfaction, job satisfaction and career

satisfaction. Whether childcare was perceived as present in the organisation influenced career commitment. Whether the organisation had an equal opportunities policy influenced an individual's satisfaction with manager. Individuals having seen an equal opportunities policy also influenced satisfaction with manager. Flexible working hours influenced the following: satisfaction with manager, career commitment, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction. With regard to the equity recognition scale, recognition of the need for diversity influenced the following outcome variables: career commitment, career future satisfaction and career satisfaction, career planning, career satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

4.17.4 The Relationships between the Outcome Variables

The outcome variable, satisfaction with boss, showed a significant relationship with the following outcome variables: career commitment, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational justice.

Career commitment showed a significant relationship with the following variables: career future commitment, career planning, career satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The independent variables which do not appear to have influenced the outcomes of the model measured via ANOVA are: mentoring, domestic care responsibilities, gender and childcare vouchers.

Correlation Coefficients

Correlation coefficient analyses were conducted for all the policy support and equity recognition scales and for the PCFD Outcomes. Associations, albeit weak in some cases, were found between the variables. A strong positive correlation was found between: career commitment and satisfaction with manager; career future satisfaction and satisfaction with manager; career satisfaction and career future satisfaction; career future satisfaction and job satisfaction and career satisfaction; career future and organisational commitment; career future satisfaction and organisational justice; career satisfaction and organisational commitment; job satisfaction and career future satisfaction; job satisfaction and career satisfaction; job satisfaction and organisational commitment; job satisfaction and organisational justice; organisational commitment and career future satisfaction; organisational commitment and career satisfaction; organisational commitment and career satisfaction; organisational justice and career future satisfaction; organisational justice and organisational commitment.

Regression Analysis

Regression analysis was conducted on all the variables in the PCFD model. Here the significant findings are presented. Whether respondents had seen a copy of the equal opportunities policy was predicted by their age and managerial level. Whether they perceived a mentoring system to be present in the organisation was predicted by gender. Managerial level predicted whether they perceived flexible working hours to be available in the organisation. Knowledge of childcare provision was predicted by domestic care responsibilities. Career breaks were predicted by managerial level.

Regression analysis was also conducted on the individual variables in the equity recognition scale. Organisational justice was predicted by age and managerial level. Support for diversity was predicted by gender. Need for diversity was also predicted by gender.

Regression analysis was then conducted on the whole of the climate for diversity variables against the model outcomes. CFD variables predicted organisational commitment, job satisfaction, career commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction.

Further analysis was conducted on the policy support scale as a whole. This predicted organisational commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction.

The equity recognition scale was found to predict the following PCFD outcomes: organisational commitment, job satisfaction, career planning, career commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction.

The next step was to consider the predictive relationships between the individual items within the PCFD variables and the PCFD outcomes. Flexible working hours were found to predict organisational commitment, as was organisational justice.

Job satisfaction was found to be predicted by flexible working hours and organisational justice.

Career planning was found to be predicted by organisational justice.

Career commitment was found to be predicted by organisational justice.

Satisfaction with manager was predicted by the following variables: EO policy seen, flexible working hours, organisational justice and support for diversity.

Career satisfaction was found to be predicted by flexible working hours and organisational justice.

Career future satisfaction was found to be predicted by flexible working hours, career break provided, organisational justice and support for diversity.

Organisational justice itself was predicted by EO policy seen.

Need for diversity was predicted by EO policy seen.

4.18 Conclusions

Statistical analysis, conducted on the questionnaire data, generated some interesting results. As can be seen from the results discussed earlier, the PCFD variables do influence each other. Relationships were shown between gender and managerial level and the indicator and the outcome variables of the model. For example, the fact that an organisation had an equal opportunities policy seemed to be of little consequence; what seemed to matter to individual managers was whether they had seen a copy of it or not. Seeing the policy was related to age and managerial level. The older and more senior the manager, the more likely s/he was to have seen the EO policy. Whether managers had seen a copy of the EO policy was in turn related to whether they were satisfied with their manager. Perhaps good managers ensured their staff were aware of all policies and procedures that affected them, including EO policies. The concept of organisational groups (defined by Kossek and Zonia, 1993 drawing on Alderfer 1989) appears to be supported by this research; in particular, management level is a very important variable identified in the data gathered by questionnaire. Indeed, it appears to be more important than identity groups (defined by Kossek and Zonia

(1993) drawing on Alderfer 1986) e.g. gender, although gender does also appear generally to be quite an important moderating variable in the PCFD model.

Kossek and Zonia's (1993) notion that white men will not support diversity initiatives as much as women will is borne out in this research, particularly the regression analysis.

As Cox (1993) found, there is a relationship between a positive diversity climate and individual and organisational outcomes. In particular, this research supports his contention that, without a positive climate, job satisfaction will be lower.

As Cox (1993) argues that those from ethnic minorities are 'biculturals', adapting to white organisational culture and climate, it could be argued that women in management will also go through this process, adapting to a predominantly male organisational environment, much as Maddock and Parkin (1993) relate women's position in the NHS to the Smart Macho culture which can inhibit their organisational progression.

Results of particular interest are discussed next. Organisational justice appears to be an important variable. Correlation Coefficient analysis shows that it demonstrated significant relationships with job satisfaction, satisfaction with manager, career commitment, career planning, career satisfaction, organisational commitment, age and managerial level. Once again, the older and more senior managers were, the more likely they were to perceive that organisational justice was present. Age may well relate to seniority in organisations, as it could take managers some time to reach senior positions.

Gender appears to have significant relationships with career commitment, support for diversity, mentoring and managerial level. Interestingly, men were more aware of

mentoring than women, suggesting that they experienced mentoring more frequently than women. It has been argued (Whitley 1991) that mentoring is a very important way of aiding career progression, and that women have less chance of progressing in management than men (Canning 1988) as a result.

Males perceived more support for diversity in the organisation than women. Kossek and Zonia (1993) argue that white men are unlikely to want to relinquish power to other groups. Perceiving more support for diversity may be a consequence of this; that is, they may perceive that their 'power-base' is being reduced. Whereas women, looking at the situation from the other side, may not perceive that any support has been given.

Gender also played a part in the recognition of childcare provision. Women were more aware of childcare provision than men. As women in the UK are the main child carers, this is not a surprising result. They perhaps need to be more aware of it than male managers, who are less likely to have such responsibilities.

Gender was also related to managerial level, with more female respondents being at junior levels than males. Managerial level itself was associated with all the outcome variables. The more senior the manager, the more likely s/he was to report positive outcomes. The more senior the managers, the more likely they were to know about EO policies and procedures, and more likely to perceive organisational justice to be present in the organisation.

The individual independent variables constituting a PCFD were also combined into scales in order to assess their overall influence. Therefore, three scales were created. Firstly, the individual characteristics scale took all individual characteristics and compared them to PCFD variables. The next two scales were created from the PCFD

variables themselves; firstly, the policy support scale, and secondly, the equity recognition scale. These showed different degrees of influence on the outcomes. However, if an organisation wishes to create a PCFD and generate positive outcomes, it should perhaps consider actions and policies affecting for example the make up of the managerial level in the organisation and examine all the policies and procedures currently in use by the organisation.

As can be seen from the results presented above, if organisations wish to create a positive climate for diversity with all its beneficial outcomes in their organisation, then they should consider the elements which develop that positive climate for diversity.

It appears that individuals from different backgrounds have different perceptions and attitudes as to whether the organisation is really presenting EO policies and procedures in a useful way, or is merely 'paying lip-service' to them. This finding was shown with some interviews also carried out in the organisations, presented in the next chapter. It is important that managing diversity is taken into account when trying to develop a PCFD; all individuals need to be treated as such, and not just as members of a group, and all need to be included in the organisation. A PCFD is one aspect of developing an organisational environment that is perceived by employees to be inclusive. One measure of inclusiveness is a PCFD, which does appear to have significant effects on individual career and organisational attitudes and perceptions, and therefore on organisational effectiveness.

The next chapter reports the interview data.

CHAPTER FIVE

INTERVIEW RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

5. INTERVIEW RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a description and analysis of the interview data.

5.2 Sample Structure

The following table sets out the structure of the sample interviewed.

Organisation	No. Interviewed	No. Male	No. Female	No. Junior	No. Middle	No. Senior
NHS Trust 1	1		1			1
NHS Trust 2	5		5	3	2	
NHS Trust 3	8	2	6	4	3	1
NHS Trust 4	3	3			2	1
RC Branch 5	4	2	2	4		
RC Branch 6	3	1	2	2	1	
RC Branch 7	3	1	2	1	1	1
RC Branch 8&9	2		2	1	1	
Totals	29	9	20	15	10	4

Table 122 Sample Structure

5.3 The Interview Schedule

The interview schedule consisted of prompt questions, given below (see 5.3.1). They were used as an aid to discussions about attitudes, perceptions and diversity climates in an organisation. These were designed to be 'open' prompts, which were not to be

taken as formal questions in the style of a structured interview. Therefore, they did not have a rigid structure, and at times overlapped areas that previous prompts appeared to cover. This was designed to elicit as much information as possible from the respondent and ensure the area had been fully covered. The prompts were of course not always used if the respondent had already fully discussed the area of interest.

5.3.1 Areas Covered (Prompts)

1. How would you describe the feel or climate of your organisation to someone from outside it?
2. What is your current role? Tell me about your job.
3. Is there anything you would like to change about your role?
4. How do you feel about your career so far?
5. Tell me about achievements in your career so far.
6. What are your career plans for the future?
7. Where do you see yourself in 5 years time?
8. Do you intend to be in this organisation in 5 years time?
9. What do you think of the organisation's procedures, in terms of pay and promotion etc.; are they fair?
10. How do you feel about your current boss/manager?
11. Is your boss/manager male or female?
12. How do you feel about having a male/female boss/manager?
13. How are female managers treated in this organisation compared with male managers?

14. Are any groups stopped from getting on up the ladder in this organisation?
15. How do you feel about top management in this organisation?
16. Are top management equally committed to all employees, irrespective of their background?
17. Is human resource diversity (explain term mixture of sex, ethnicity and type of people) good for the organisation? Is it good for the business or the service?
18. Should people who are from different backgrounds, such as those who are women and those who are black who are in management positions, be given extra support?
19. Is there anything that you would like to change in the organisation in terms of equal opportunities or policies or procedures?

Table 123 Areas Covered by the Interview Schedule

CLIMATE AND OUTCOME	PROMPT QUESTION NUMBER
Organisational Commitment	1 & 7
Job Satisfaction	2 & 3
Career Planning	4, 6 & 8
Career Commitment	4, 6 & 7
Satisfaction with manager	10, 11 & 12
Career Satisfaction	5
Career Future Satisfaction	6
Organisational Justice	9
Support for Diversity	13, 14, 15, 16 & 18
Need for Diversity	17
Knowledge of EO Policies and Procedures	19

The questions overlap the research areas, so as to ensure full coverage of all topics related to them.

5.3.2 The Interview Structure

The interviews took approximately 3/4 of an hour to one and a half hours, depending on individual respondents.

An attempt was made to cover all areas in an interview; at times this may have meant steering the conversation around to particular areas. Often, respondents would talk about the areas of interest to this study before they were brought up by the interviewer. In these situations, there was no need for the researcher to use prompts. Therefore the prompts were not necessarily used in a uniform or list order. An attempt to build up a rapport with the respondents was made, so as to be able to gain as full an interview as possible. Respondents were informed that a report would be written for the organisation's Chief Executive in the case of the NHS Trusts, and the equal

opportunities co-ordinator and head office, in the case of the RC. Individuals were assured that their identities would not be divulged, and that no one would be able to identify them from the research. No one was pressured into doing interviews, either by the researcher or other organisational members. Interviewees were aware that this research was PhD. research. They were also told the aims and objectives of the research.

The summaries presented here have been edited, in accordance with the framework methodology set out by Ritchie and Spencer (1994), as in some cases conversation ranged off the subject of interest. In many NHS interviews, discussion of the political situation at the time, for example government funding policy, took place in the interviews. This information was later edited out, as it was not directly relevant to the research. Further editing took place as some individuals discussed confidential information which was not directly relevant to this research.

At the end of the discussion, the researcher read out all notes made to enable the interviewee to clarify any points they felt had not been accurately recorded. Notes were taken (with the interviewee's permission) rather than using a tape recorder, as it was felt that this would be less intrusive. Using a tape recorder could make the respondents uncomfortable and not willing to answer all questions in an open manner, as they may have believed that a permanent record of their responses on tape could be used in a negative way.

All interviewees were white and able-bodied.

5.4 Framework Methodology and Analysis of Data

When first examining the notes taken during the interview, there seemed a mass of data which appeared very difficult to analyse effectively. As Ritchie and Spencer (1994) explain, “the qualitative researcher has to provide some coherence and structure to this cumbersome data set while retaining a hold of the original accounts and observations” p. 176. The method of interview analysis suggested by Ritchie and Spencer (1994), to overcome these problems is ‘Framework’. This method is particularly useful for the interview data gathered in this research, as it provides a structured way of analysing data in a number of steps through which the researcher progresses. The five flexible steps are: familiarisation, identifying a thematic framework, indexing, charting, and mapping and interpretation.

The first step is concerned with the researcher becoming fully familiar with the data. This enables him or her to gain an overview of all the data and start identifying “recurrent themes” (Ritchie and Spencer 1994 p. 179). The next step leads easily from the familiarisation stage. Identifying a thematic framework is an important process in this methodology. Of this stage, they explain that “the analyst returns to [the] research notes, and attempts to identify the key issues, concepts and themes [so] the data can be examined and referenced - s/he sets up a thematic framework within which the material can be sifted and sorted” p. 178. This framework can also be referred to as an index; it is used to classify and sort the data gained by interview. The index or framework will be influenced by the original research questions and the prompts which were used in the interviews. It will also contain areas that the respondents had discussed which were not part of the original prompts or research

questions, as well as “analytical themes arising from the reoccurrence or patterning of particular views of experiences” p. 180. This index is refined after use by referring to the transcripts of interviews once more.

The next stage in the framework method of analysis is indexing itself. The interview data is then annotated with indexing numbers which can be related directly back to the index (see Appendix A for an example of text indexed). The original interview notes are indexed in this fashion so that other researchers can examine the work and make their own judgements about how the data has been analysed.

Charting is the next step in the framework process. The information indexed is now put into a chart which shows the themes identified. (See chart numbers 1 - 18 below). The charts contain summaries of the data identified as relevant to the study. In this research charts, were created for each Trust/Branch; within each Trust/Branch chart individual respondents were identified. Therefore, it was possible to compare and contrast both individuals within particular Trusts or Branches and the organisations themselves.

The final stage outlined by Ritchie and Spencer (1994) in framework analysis is that of mapping and interpretation. This stage is perhaps the most ‘cerebral and analytical’ of the five steps.

Due to the very nature of interviewing, particularly in-depth interviewing, attitudes and perceptions are revealed by the respondents themselves, and through this method understanding and interpretation of responses by the interviewer is gained.

5.4.1 Interview Analysis Charts - Framework Model

Below are shown the interview analysis charts used to begin the analysis process recommended by Ritchie and Spencer (1994) in the framework qualitative methodology. The indexing process which precedes this stage is shown in a brief example included in Appendix A. Important, relevant or interesting material from the indexes has been analysed, and is discussed after each chart.

A key is provided in order for readers to fully access the interview analysis charts and is shown below.

KEY: -

CEO	=	Chief Executive Officer
Div	=	Diversity
EO	=	Equal Opportunities
Flexi-time	=	Flexible Working Hours
F/t	=	Full-time
Junior	=	Junior Manager
Mgr	=	Manager
Mgt	=	Management
Middle	=	Middle Manager
Opp 2000	=	Opportunity 2000
Org	=	Organisation/Organisational
P/t	=	Part-time
P/P	=	Policies and Procedures
Prog	=	Progress
Sat	=	Satisfaction
Senior	=	Senior Manager

Chart 1 Trust 1

	RESPONDENT 1 'S' FEMALE SENIOR
Climate 1.1	Positive environment.
Policies/ Procedures 1.2	Fair.
Changes in P/P 1.3	
Sat with Mgr 1.4	
Org Justice 1.5	Procedures fair.
Attitude of Mgr 1.6	
Support for Div 2.1	
Top Mgt view of groups 2.2	Equal treatment of men and women.
Need for Diversity 2.3	Not important.
Role 3.1	
Changes in Role 3.2	Would not make any changes.
Career Satisfaction 3.3	Happy and satisfied with career.
Career Plans/progress 3.4	Continue in present position for at least 5 years.
Family Commitment 3.7	Had to work due to family circumstances.
Job Satisfaction 3.8	Satisfied with job and enjoys it.

5.4.1.1 Analysis of Trust 1

The respondent S in Trust 1 creates a positive picture of the organisation. This may well be related to her high position in the organisation and (as mentioned earlier) her own attempt not to discourage those in the organisation who have faced redundancies. Her family circumstances seem to have helped push her up the career ladder, much as

one could argue would happen with a male breadwinner. She was divorced and the sole breadwinner, perhaps taking on a 'male' view of management and work.

From the interview data gathered, Trust 1 seemed a very positive environment. It also appeared to show a PCFD and the associated outcomes. These are identified as organisational justice, support for diversity and knowledge of policies and procedures in the organisation. The only aspect missing from the creation of a full PCFD was the need for diversity. Positive outcomes of the PCFD appeared present from the respondent's satisfaction and commitment to the organisation. It could be argued that all the indicators of a PCFD, apart from need for diversity were seen by S as showing the organisation in a positive light. However, if she had stated that the organisation had a need for diversity, then she would have been presenting it in a less than ideal light. That is, that it had not achieved this ideal already. She clearly felt that the organisation had achieved a diversity mix to some degree, as she, a woman, was the Chief Executive. However, her idea of a positive environment appeared to come very much from the equal opportunities stance that had been so popular in literature and organisations in the past (see Wilson and Iles 1995). Therefore, it could be argued that she did not accept a MD paradigm as suggested by Wilson and Iles (1995) as the most effective management style and organisation culture, leading to a positive climate for diversity.

Chart 2 Trust 2

	RESPONDENT 1 'J' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'S' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 3 'B' FEMALE MIDDLE	RESPONDENT 4 'M' FEMALE MIDDLE	RESPONDENT 5 'C' FEMALE JUNIOR
Climate 1.1	Well organised, open and honest. CEO has open door policy, but is not aware of things at ground level.	Macho & childish at senior level, but friendly. Board members pleasant, CEO open door policy.	Open and friendly and listened to, good communication, but macho culture.	Organisation has close-knit working environment with good communications. Things can be tried out and changed.	Forward thinking, innovative and works well as a trust. CEO has great vision.
Policies/ Procedures (P/P) 1.2			Pleased that the organisation has a crèche, it would have been useful if they had it when her children were young.		Recently set-up management club a good idea, mgrs can discuss problems. EO P/P "not bad".
Changes in P/P 1.3				Considers further policies on paternity leave are needed. Flexible contracts have been piloted. Family leave recently introduced.	
Satisfaction with Manager 1.4	Gets on well with male mgr, considers women bosses 'bitchy'.	Considers male boss easier to manipulate than female managers.	Likes her male supervisor, not watching over her.	Relates well to male boss. Considers women supervisors harder on their female subordinates and are bitchy.	Satisfied with male boss.
Org Justice 1.5	Pay structure fair, promotion not. Appraisal system good.				Fair procedures in terms of pay & promotion.
Attitude of Manager 1.6		Female middle mgt very macho.			
Support for Diversity 2.1	Equal opportunities for all groups (not just ethnicity).	Might be subconscious resistance to women in mgt jobs, but no group stopped from progressing. Women own worst enemies, perception women do not progress.	Equal opportunities for all groups. Opp 2000 positive if aids women, but best person should get the job. Maybe racial/disability discrimination in org, due to lack of ethnic/disabled at mgt.	No group progresses faster than another.	Men and women managers treated the same in the organisation, very few people from ethnic minorities due to few living in area. Opp 2000 is good idea for women returners.
Top Mgt view of groups 2.2				Top management committed to all regardless of background.	All top management committed to all employees.

Chart 3 Trust 2 continued

	RESPONDENT 1 'J' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'S' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 3 'B' FEMALE MIDDLE	RESPONDENT 4 'M' FEMALE MIDDLE	RESPONDENT 5 'C' FEMALE JUNIOR
Need for Diversity 2.3		No need for diversity as patients mainly white male.	Feels a balance of male and female important.	Too many men at top managerial level.	Does not think male or female boss makes any difference, "due to personalities" Org improved with mgrs from ethnic backgrounds.
Role 3.1		Mgt Trainee.			
Changes in Role 3.2					
Career Satisfaction 3.3		Career depends on who you know.	Proud of achievements in career. Satisfied with career.		
Career Plans/prog 3.4	Retire in 5 years.	Like to be director in 5 years time (in another org).	Progressed as in right place at right time.	Like to be deputy director in 5 years time.	Has a job not a career.
Family Commitment 3.5	Initially P/t due to family, then F/t.		"I can't work, look after the family and study at the same time".	Married, does not want children as will affect career "its best not to have a family".	Job necessary due to marriage breakdown, gave up F/t work once married.
Job Satisfaction 3.6	Likes job.		Satisfied with job.	Highly satisfied particularly at setting up work place crèche.	Happy in current job, difficult to think of any other job she'd like to do at her age.

5.4.1.2 Analysis of Trust 2

Ritchie and Spencer (1994) define qualitative research as searching for answers to a number of issues, including identifying respondents' definitions. In Trust 2, all respondents were female, and some very interesting definitions of women managers were expressed. Women managers were mainly seen as 'bitchy', and less easy to manipulate than male bosses. One comment made regarding female middle managers was that they were perceived as 'Macho'. This could relate to the Smart Macho Culture which Maddock and Parkin (1995) have identified in NHS Trusts, and which may influence a climate for diversity. However, it appears that respondents, who were

themselves managers, did not see themselves in this light. Interestingly, Opportunity 2000, a scheme to support women in to management positions, was seen by two respondents in this organisation as positive. It may be that they saw this as useful for their own progression, and did not relate it to the 'bitchy' female managers who could possibly also benefit from it.

Diversity in terms of ethnicity was not seen as necessary in the organisation; as one respondent remarked, patients were mainly white. However, interestingly some thought that there were too many men higher up the organisation. It seems that at the lower managerial levels respondents felt there were too many women. This may have been due to women getting into junior management and not being able to progress any further, whereas men were able to progress through the ranks and very quickly move up into middle and senior management. Women who wished to progress from junior to middle management appeared to have to adopt a macho attitude, which might not have appealed to some women, and therefore limited their progression. Again, this finding supports Maddock and Parkin's (1995) assertion of a Smart Macho Culture influencing NHS Trusts, which in turn would influence the climate for diversity in the organisation. One point which comes over in interviews in this Trust is the apparent confused understanding of issues surrounding diversity. For example, respondent 4 'M' believes that no group is stopped from progressing, but feels that there are too many men at top managerial level. By the same token, she feels that top management are committed to all, regardless of background/gender/ethnicity, etc. She is one of the respondents who also considers female bosses 'bitchy'. This confused thought pattern seemed to continue throughout the interviews conducted. It may well be possible that respondents really had not considered the issues surrounding management make-up in

the organisation and diversity climate before this research. This would then go some way to support the possible concerns of the organisations about exposing respondents to these issues. It was unclear in many interviews how respondents expected women to progress in the organisation, despite respondents' views on there being too many men. It was almost as if they recognised a problem, but had not considered what could be done about it. Perhaps they thought only in terms of their own careers, and were not too concerned with other women's progression (particularly with the idea that other women managers were bitchy, which they did not apply to themselves). It does not appear that they thought of themselves as bitchy; but just other women managers. This may have discouraged them from progressing, so as not to be tarred with the same brush. It may also have led to more stress for women in management positions. This may have been observed by other female staff, and may have put them off trying to progress in the organisation.

The main point of interest appears to be the definition by female respondents in this trust of women managers as 'bitchy' and 'macho' by respondents J, S and M.

The organisation's climate is seen as open, with good communications. However, respondent S interestingly refers to it as 'macho and childish', but friendly. Despite all respondents being female, they have different views, although generally they see the climate as open. The macho culture was emphasised by two respondents, S junior manager and B middle manager, showing that this perception was expressed by different levels of management.

In terms of policies and procedures, one respondent M thought there was a need for further policies on paternity leave. This is an interesting point, as she was female, but she was considering a policy improvement which would benefit male employees in

the organisation. Would men in the organisation have felt the same and supported policies which benefited women in the same way? Unfortunately this is something which we cannot investigate here, as all the respondents were women.

Respondent B mentioned the crèche the organisation provided, and said that this would have been useful when she had a young family. Respondent C asserts that the policies and procedures are, in her words, not bad.

All respondents had male bosses, with whom they got on well.

Chart 4 Trust 3

	RESPONDENT 1 'G' FEMALE SENIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'K' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 3 'B' FEMALE MIDDLE MANAGER	RESPONDENT 4 'V' FEMALE MIDDLE MANAGER
Climate 1.1	Been through changes recently. Top mgt under pressure most of the time, have to make unwelcome decisions.	Climate one of "say one thing and do another". CEO now more approachable than before changes.	Forward thinking, morale differs throughout parts of organisation. But top management too far removed from "work end of things".	Does not see organisation's climate as important, only unit where she works. Believes it is very open.
Policies/ Procedure 1.2	Pleased with out of hours school group the organisation provided.	Rigid pay and promotion structure frustrating as staff cannot be rewarded for doing a good job. Thinks that career breaks are good.	Has only just found out that men can take paternity leave.	P/P very fair. Was not aware of crèche facilities as has no children.
Changes in P/P 1.3				
Satisfaction with Manager 1.4	Works to 2 male bosses, gets on with both, but wants only one boss.	Good relationship with current male manager, who also has childcare responsibilities so understanding.		Gets on very well with her female boss.
Org Justice 1.5	Satisfied with pay and promotion procedures.			
Attitude of Mgr 1.6				

Chart 5 Trust 3 continued

	RESPONDENT 1 'G' FEMALE SENIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'K' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 3 'B' FEMALE MIDDLE MANAGER	RESPONDENT 4 'V' FEMALE MIDDLE MANAGER
Support for Diversity 2.1	Environment not supportive of disabled, difficult for them to progress. Organisation pays only lip-service to Opp 200 principles.	Male nurses progress much quicker than females & have more opportunities, but males more ambitious and don't have to think about family responsibilities. Senior mgrs who have children are understanding regarding childcare responsibilities, those who don't have children aren't. Feels that trend of women not leaving to have children has led to more women in management. Feels it would be difficult to work P/t at her level of mgt. Male mgrs above her would not respect her if she did. "If you are serious about your career you have to work F/t". Need mobility to succeed in career.	Feels that men progress more quickly in the department and organisation when women have families, not so much when women are single. No black members of staff, but Asian doctors. Disappointed that the only female member of board is leaving shortly. Feels that organisation does not take equal opps seriously.	Feels that equal opportunities in the organisation are fair. Might consider EOs too much and give jobs to people because of origin rather than ability. Feels everyone has same opportunities and Opp 2000 is a good idea. However, her job could not be done P/t - so difficult if a women with children wanted to do it P/t.
Top Mgt view of groups 2.2		Top management remote - only 1 female on board.		Knows very little about top mgt, but has met the female board member.
Need for Diversity 2.3	Woman currently on board, unlikely to be replaced with another women, thinks that she should be. Refers to female board member as Mrs.		Men and women offer different things to the job, display different emotions, not good to have men working in the dept as they approach things differently to women. Staff with back injuries are pensioned off, even if they want to work they cannot. Important to have diverse staff in high positions.	
Role 3.1		Medical junior manager.		
Changes in Role 3.2				
Career Sat 3.3				

Chart 6 Trust 3 continued

	RESPONDENT 1 'G' FEMALE SENIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'K' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 3 'B' FEMALE MIDDLE MANAGER	RESPONDENT 4 'V' FEMALE MIDDLE MANAGER
Career Plans/ Progress 3.4	In 5 years time wants more children, stay in same job and career.	Progress slower than would like. Intends to move to another organisation in future & to progress in general management.	Progress has slowed down because of organisational changes. She wishes to have children and would then like to work 3 days a week, still in this career.	Pleased with career to date. Intends to continue in career and take more qualifications. During next 5 years wants to move organisation to continue to progress.
Family Commitment 3.7	Has a baby, job shares with another mother.	Has split loyalties between work and family and also family expecting her not to work (has young child). But she & her husband share childcare, has held back husband's career.		
Job Sat 3.8	Finds it difficult to do all work in 3 days.	Encouraged to do qualifications, but not given any more money as a result.	Not particularly happy in the job.	Works full-time and enjoys current job.

Chart 7 Trust 3 part 2 (Respondents 5, 6, 7 and 8).

	RESPONDENT 5 'M' MALE MIDDLE	RESPONDENT 6 'R' MALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 7 'N' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 8 'J' FEMALE JUNIOR
Climate 1.1	Apart from female member considers Board slightly aloof and not aware of what's going on in rest of organisation. Changes in organisation made it hierarchical.	Bureaucratic, slow to respond and quick to panic. Very Political.	Organisation disorganised at times, her dept highly pressured and busy.	Organisation very hierarchical and bureaucratic, not enough staff to do job properly.
Policies/ Procedure 1.2	Uses crèche, but had to find out himself. Considers P/P to be fair, but thinks paternity leave should be longer.	Equal opps policies are "alright".	Not informed career breaks available. Would have had one if had known even though aware that it would have held up her career. EO policies fair, but staff should be told of their rights rather than having to find out themselves.	
Changes in P/P 1.3		Paternity leave should be increased from 3 days to 8 months.		
Satisfaction with Manager 1.4	Gets on well with manager, who is the female member of the board.		Finds her female manager approachable.	Male or female boss unimportant but she does not have a good relationship with her female boss.
Org Justice 1.5				Pay and promotion procedures fair. "You are not able to reward anyone with money, only with more responsibility, but not promotion as it is dead men's shoes".
Attitude of Mgr 1.6				
Support for Diversity 2.1	Considers had more opportunities in the NHS than women. Feels that minorities can benefit from being different as he did. Feels that women assume he has progressed because male, not skills. But admits that most middle and senior mgrs are male. Difficult to do his job P/t. Thinks that many women are leaving once they have children because they can't work P/t, results in organisation losing skilled people.	Men and women act differently at managerial level. Women accept lower salaries and do not complain about conditions. Men expect more money and are more likely to complain. Noticed increase in women consultants in past 20 years.	Aware of males who have taken career breaks for education to better careers. She thought if she had had the chance to take one for children, it would have held her career up. Not mobile because of children so cannot advance career. Considers male managers have more of a say than female. Ethnic minorities do not progress well, but few applications for jobs from them. Men have no problems in the organisation, more of them are joining the profession.	Senior Management would be concerned about women taking maternity leave, no guarantee of getting same job back when return to work. Women wary of taking time off for maternity or sick children also wary of going P/t as could affect career.

Chart 8 Trust 3 part 2 continued

	RESPONDENT 5 'M' MALE MIDDLE	RESPONDENT 6 'R' MALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 7 'N' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 8 'J' FEMALE JUNIOR
Top Mgt view of groups 2.2				
Need for Diversity 2.3	Dept should have mix of individuals, all women together can be bitchy. People with disabilities would find it difficult working at mgt level. Ethnic minorities would have to be able to communicate well. May require extra education. He is "anti-positive discrimination" should be ability.			Mix of male and female at managerial level good for organisation, stops unimportant talk. Does not feel need for greater ethnic or disabled mix. UK born ethnic minorities would not have problems progressing in the organisation. Large number of stairs around would prove difficult for people with disabilities. Does not agree with positive discrimination, best person should get the job.
Role 3.1				
Changes in Role 3.2				
Career Satisfaction 3.3			Enjoys her career.	Like to continue in career, but unlikely to progress any further in this organisation.
Career Plans/Progress 3.4	Got to position because mobile. In next 5 years stay in job and take post-grad qualifications.	Hopes to retire early within the next 5 years or so.	Does not know where she'll be in 5 years time, would like to continue up career ladder.	
Family Commitment 3.5	Same career and organisation as wife, wife has sacrificed her career for the children, use the crèche. Wife turned down promotion due to childcare commitments, joint decision, he is happy with it.		Married with young children, works full-time, only had 4 to 6 months off with each baby (considers this a short-time). Unable to study for further qualifications due to F/t job and young family, could affect her career in future. When she has to work Saturdays her parents (not her husband) look after the children.	
Job Satisfaction 3.6	Satisfied with job.	Enjoys current job and has a good salary for what he does.	Enjoys her job.	Enjoys job and working in this section, but needs new challenges to keep her interested.

5.4.1.3 Analysis of Trust 3

This trust was a multi-sited organisation. This appeared to influence the views and perceptions of the staff. For example, Respondent V did not see the organisation's

climate as important, only that of the unit (part of the organisation) in which she worked (supporting Kossek and Zonia's (1993) assertion that each department in an organisation may have a different diversity climate). This is an interesting point, as it shows that different parts of the organisation may well have different climates. Indeed, respondents' interpretations of the overall organisation's policies and procedures appears to be different in different parts of the organisation. This may indicate different climates, despite organisational attempts to create the same conditions throughout. This may be related to management style or organisational commitment. One point made by a middle manager which supports this possibility is that morale differs through different parts of the organisation. Another common view to come out of the interviews was of the disorganised, bureaucratic and hierarchical nature of the organisation. This was particularly expressed by the junior manager respondents. Two of the three middle managers considered the board as removed from the rest of the organisation. One junior manager, however, felt that the Board were now more approachable than before Trust status was implemented. The senior manager was, as perhaps could be expected, more aware of the pressure on top management to carry out changes in the organisation which may not have been generally welcome. This shows, as the questionnaire data did, that differences in attitudes and perceptions are strongly influenced by their management level.

Paternity leave was mentioned by the two middle managers as important. The general feeling was that there were EO policies in place, but that staff were not told of them and so could not make full use of them. Perhaps one variable to be added to the moderating variables in the PCFD model is that of communication between staff and employers of key policies and procedures in the organisation.

All respondents had a good relationship with their boss. K mentions that she gets on well with her boss, because they both have childcare responsibilities, and so know the responsibilities of working parents.

In terms of policies and procedures, paternity leave (and either its length, or respondents having to find out about it themselves) appears to be a main bone of contention. Is it possible that paternity leave needs to be added to the indicator variables of the model. Its length and individual's knowledge of the policy may also be of importance in creating a PCFD. Paternity leave seems to be important in both Trust 2 and 3. It could be that now other policies, e.g. maternity leave, which may benefit women, have been 'sorted out', men are expecting other policies to benefit them. One other point raised by a respondent was that she was not informed that career breaks were available. She felt that she would have had a career break if she had known of its existence when having her family. So once more, knowledge of policies, as much as the organisations having the policies, appears to be important.

The points of particular interest raised by analysis of respondents from Trust 3 is that organisations may have EO policies but, if few staff know about them, then the organisation may *appear to be creating a positive environment*, but in practice such policies are not costing anything, as people are not using them, and so the positive climate is not created. Secondly, when individuals go on maternity leave or career breaks, there appears to be no information given to them about rights or opportunities other than the leave allowance and rate of pay. Options like working part-time, paternity leave or career breaks appear not to have been discussed with individuals by their superiors. Career breaks do however appear to be offered to those staff (generally male) who wish to study. Is this an unspoken policy not to inform people,

or is it just that individuals are expected to find out for themselves about these options, and if they do not, then it is seen by the organisation as the individual's decision? Perhaps the current climate is stopping people taking up these options as it may affect the running of the organisation, in particular the medical side of the organisation which needs highly specialised managers in place. Whether individuals feel they are able to take career breaks or use other EO options available to them may well be another point which influences the climate that has not been identified in the questionnaire, although knowledge of policies and procedures was included (e.g. what are the policies which relate to you, do you feel you can use the options?). One interesting point to come out of the interviews in this organisation was that those who were not directly affected by policies and procedures did not know about them; e.g. the middle manager who did not have children did not know about the crèche facilities being available, whilst another middle manager had only just found out about paternity leave for men. Therefore, it is possible to argue that it is unlikely that these managers would be able to tell managers working under them of these facilities, explaining perhaps the problems found over lack of knowledge of policies and procedures. However, as managers they should have known this information to pass on to staff when appropriate. Having policies which are not known by the individuals working in it means that the organisation looks good to a researcher (such as this researcher) or other outside investigators examining the organisation; it can defend itself by saying it has policies and therefore supports individuals through these policies. However, in ensuring that they are not passed on to staff, it creates a climate which is not truly supportive of diversity, and does not practice management from a MD perspective. Therefore, the hard work that may well have been put into designing

such policies is wasted, and the business advantages that organisations can gain from having a PCFD is not generated. An analogy could be a shop having a sale and not advertising it anywhere, so the only people to find out about it are those who happen to need to go to the shop, (e.g. individuals who want to find out about policies relating to paternity leave). The other point is that if managers have no knowledge of policies and procedures, then they cannot be managing their staff effectively, and may in effect be giving them the wrong information concerning policies. This could lead to problems for the organisation in terms of legal action, or just lead to conflict between the organisation and its managers. As J argues, women who do know about the policies which are designed to support them do not use them for fear of, for example, not getting the same job back after extended maternity leave. She feels that senior management are not keen for women to take the 'rights' which are there for them in the organisation. There is a lack of commitment on the part of the organisation to individuals to make use of such opportunities as taking career breaks, which appear to be supported by policies. As most individuals get on well with their bosses, it seems to be the climate generally which is creating this situation, and not individual's relationships their with bosses. There seems more awareness in this organisation that women are not progressing as well as men, as compared to Trust 2.

Respondent M argues that it would be very difficult to do his job part-time. He feels that this leads women to leave the organisation, taking their much needed skills with them. J also feels that women would be wary of working part-time, or even taking career breaks, in case it adversely affects their careers. Other respondents, such as K, also believe it would be difficult to do their job part-time. K relates this to male managers above her in the organisation not respecting her if she did. Therefore, in

order to ensure that a positive climate for diversity thrives, male managers' attitudes will need to change. Another issue raised was that men were encouraged to take career breaks to study for further qualifications, as indeed M was intending to do in the future. However, their careers would not be affected in the same way as women taking career breaks to have families. This may be an important aspect of the study; if individuals are able to work part-time or not and whether shifts are necessary to the work pattern seems important. Perhaps a number of indicators of a positive climate for diversity can be added to the model regarding whether individuals could work part-time in their current job if they wished. It may be that the organisation itself needs to look again at the way it has organised work, and if it can change this to lead to more job-sharing or other work arrangements.

Many of the staff interviewed were frustrated with the rigid pay and promotions structure, leading to managers not being able to reward their staff with anything but extra responsibility.

The female board member is mentioned by some of the respondents and referred to as 'Mrs'. She is seen as a positive role model, but there is also mention that she is retiring soon and not likely to be replaced by another woman. Most respondents feel disappointed by this, as they feel that she represents them in some way, and would like another woman to replace her.

There is a definite realisation by the female managers with children that their careers have slowed down due to having a family. The male respondent M states that his wife has been the one to sacrifice her career, to some extent for the children. He also admits to having an advantage in being male in his career, and feels that he had progressed well because of this. Other respondents also pick up the point that men

progress quicker in the organisation than women. This is seen as due to women having family responsibilities.

Another area discussed by respondents concerned the effect of mobility on career progression. Mobility is seen as important if one wishes to do well. Mobility may well be a factor which has some influence on individuals' satisfaction with their career. It appears from the interviews that men can progress much more easily because they are able to be more mobile than women. This may relate to women having to put their career on hold for the family, and also to them following the male partner in his career choices. The issue of dual-career families may well be an important one in the ability of individuals to progress in an organisation and in their career.

In term of ethnic and disability diversity, there appears to be very little in this organisation. A comment is made by G that the environment is not supportive of disabled staff. In terms of ethnic diversity there are some Asian doctors, but no black doctors. Therefore, the organisation's staff are not representing the individuals using the service.

In terms of career plans, three female managers, V, K and J, felt that they would continue to progress in their careers. Others, such as G and B, were putting their family commitments first, with G wanting to have another baby in the next 5 years and B wanting to change from full-time work to 3 days a week. K feels that her progression has been slower than she would like, and has split loyalties between her family and career. Interestingly, she points out that her husband is also involved in childcare, and that this has affected his career as well. An issue here might be whether paternity leave could have improved the situation for her husband in the short term,

when the child was first born. However, in the long term, other policies, including flexible working hours, would perhaps have been more important.

In this organisation, studying for further qualifications seems to be a way of progressing one's career. Male respondent M wishes to study in the future. As his wife has the main childcare responsibility, he can do this. For the female managers who would like to progress their careers in this way, childcare issues often stop them from studying, e.g. respondent N.

The issue of childcare responsibility, and indeed the family's attitude to working women, is presented in these interviews. K felt that her family (not her husband) expected her not to work. N works full time, and now has to work on Saturdays; a recent change in the organisation. Her parents look after the children on this day, and not her husband, despite the fact that he does not work on Saturdays. Women seem to be bearing the brunt of childcare, and largely do not appear to have support from their partners. It does seem in this organisation that women really are doing the 'double shift' of full-time work plus childcare responsibilities.

This responsibility that women have may well be reflected in their job satisfaction. Two of the 3 female managers who have such responsibilities do not have full job satisfaction. The two male respondents are both satisfied with their jobs. However, that said, the other female respondent with childcare responsibilities does appear to have job satisfaction.

Overall, many interesting issues concerning diversity climate are raised by these interviews. In particular, the issues of paternity leave, career breaks, mobility, dual-career family, hours of work and childcare responsibility were discussed with reference to the working environment, as was the issue of the organisation appearing

to pay lip-service to EO policies and procedures (as previously identified in the NHS by Maddock and Parkin (1995).

Chart 9 Trust 4

	RESPONDENT 1 'P' MALE SENIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'E' MALE MIDDLE	RESPONDENT 3 'B' MALE MIDDLE
Climate 1.1	Open door policy and inclusive.	Organisation politically active. "Silly discussions have to take place about every aspect of the situation" before decisions can be made. This is due to individuals' egos and having to be involved.	Pleasant interesting & diverse place to work.
Policies/ Procedure 1.2	Sees EO policies fair, but only had 3 days paternity leave & thinks he should have had more. Was the 1st person in Organisation to ask for & get such leave. Org also provides 3 days carer's leave which can be used if child ill, after that has to take unpaid leave or annual leave. He knows of only one mgr who can work flexi-time, he's not in favour of it as dept. needs to be staffed F/t. Knows of 2 staff job-sharing but no managers. Works well for the staff.		In terms of equal opps provide all they need to. Was not aware the Organisation provided paternity leave.
Changes in P/P 1.3			
Satisfaction with Manager 1.4	New manager so could not make judgement about him.	Good relationship with current female boss. Always been impressed with female bosses.	Gets on well with female boss, no concerns about her being female.
Org Justice 1.5	Pay and procedures for the most part fair.	Fair procedures in terms of pay and promotion.	Pay not fair as no flexibility to reward good work. Would be good idea to increase annual leave or menu of rewards, would like some form of profit related pay.
Attitude of Mgr 1.6			
Support for Diversity 2.1	Many of board members are women, due to CEO's influence, although he thinks they can do the job. Those from diverse background should have same support as everyone else & no more.	Whatever gender, ethnicity or disability get treated the same, no one stopped from progressing.	Men & women have the same opps in Org. No one stopped from progressing. Many senior mgrs female. Doesn't know any mgrs with disabilities & very few from ethnic minority backgrounds.
Top Mgt view of groups 2.2	Trust has female chief executive, he sees her as heavily promoting women in organisation.		

Chart 10 Trust 4

	RESPONDENT 1 'P' MALE SENIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'E' MALE MIDDLE	RESPONDENT 3 'B' MALE MIDDLE
Need for Diversity 2.3	So long as can do job, unimportant if ethnic minority or disabled.	Having a mix at mgt level helps relate to customers, Opp 2000 good. Not many ethnic minorities apply, "The opportunities are there for people but if they don't apply for jobs there is not a lot you can do".	
Role 3.1	Works in medical side of organisation.	Non-medical manager.	Does not get enough support for current non-medical middle management role.
Changes in Role 3.2			
Career Sat 3.3			
Career Plans/Progress 3.4	Has moved jobs and organisation to progress. In next 5 years wants to stay in job as does not want to move family. Money not his motivation.	Came from outside industry. Wants to move Org in 18 months to 2 years to larger hospital so can continue career progression.	Sees future with organisation. Like to continue climbing career ladder, current role for another 3 yrs or so.
Family Commitment 3.5	Sees himself as 2 nd wage earner, wife the 1 st . If wife offered promotion would move.	Lives with partner, has daughter, uses crèche, partner works in Org. Partner wanted to job-share after having baby, but not possible, so works F/t now. He had 3 days paternity leave but thinks, "It should be much longer as I would have liked to have been around much more with the baby and [his partner]".	
Job Satisfaction 3.6	Very satisfied with current position	Happy with role and has changed everything he wants to about it.	

5.4.1.4 Analysis of Trust 4

Three managers were interviewed in Trust 4; all were males. Interestingly, in this organisation the Chief Executive was female, and many of the board members were female as well. Therefore, these men were in the same situation that women were in other trusts; that is working in an organisation which had many members of the opposite gender on the board.

As with Trust 2 and 3, paternity leave was mentioned in this organisation. P felt that the 3 days paternity leave given was not enough. He was the first person in the

organisation is commented on by all respondents. They assume that having women in those roles means that other women must be supported, giving support to the ideas of Totta and Burke (1995) and others that top management support and weight of numbers in management will lead to a more positive environment for women and ethnic minorities.

The next indices presented are from the RC interviews.

5.4.2 Retail Company Branches

Chart 11 Branch 5

	RESPONDENT 1 'E' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'P' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 3 'I' MALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 4 'S' MALE JUNIOR
Climate 1.1	Has a very strong culture. "I think that if your face fits you're OK; if not then you won't do well". Definite way of doing things, individuals must conform. "It's an old style culture and that can be difficult if you have had work experience in other organisations". Have to be assertive, & have dominating leadership and good analytical skills to progress. Participatory leadership skill not encouraged or practised.	Intense climate, all pervading, based on hierarchy & rules, politics a way of life, difficult to be an individual, take on organisations values. This store less hierarchical than older stores.	Sees the organisation as having a fair image to its staff.	Control style of management. Managers must emulate this style to be successful. Bureaucratic and restrictive to managers; they have to stick to rules and standards laid down.
Policies/ Procedure 1.2		Organisation pays lip-service to EO, needs to be proactive, job share doesn't exist, should have it. Mobility issue affects progression of women with families, may be a way of reducing women mgrs as nationally mobile doesn't necessarily make a good manager.	EO sometimes lacking as offers positions to F/t & P/t but F/t always get mgt jobs. In terms of EOs organisation doing all it can. EO policies open to interpretation, can have family care leave and paternity leave, discretion of manager can have more off.	Paternity leave for men should be increased & men should be able to have career breaks of up to 5 yrs to bring up families.
Changes in P/P 1.3	Should be more opportunity to job share, should be paternity leave.			
Satisfaction with Mgr 1.4	Has good relationship with female boss.	Happy with relationship with female supervisor, personalities that count, not gender.	Gets on well with manager.	Current manager too restrictive, not concerned if male or female manager.
Org Justice 1.5	Starting salary good, but doesn't increase enough. Start career with RC then poached by those paying more. Doesn't support performance pay at all, does not reflect amount of work people really do, too low.			Middle manager not good, people leave at that level.
Attitude of Manager 1.6				

Chart 12 Branch 5 continued

	RESPONDENT 1 'E' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'P' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 3 'I' MALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 4 'S' MALE JUNIOR
Support for Diversity 2.1	Difficult for women to have children & return to work after a career break, org does not make it easy to work P/t or acknowledge women have family responsibilities. Knows 2 female job-share mgrs & 3 P/t female mgrs. Will affect their progression, but good for them. Concerned with mobility, to progress must be fully mobile, would not want to move when has a family. Limits women, men can be mobile, progress better. Most middle mgrs female, most senior male, but more women work in organisation. No race or disability discrimination, but disabled not able to apply for jobs as cannot do them. Ethnic minorities do not apply for jobs.		Opportunities for disabled limited, can't move round store, One disabled professional member of staff in head office. Two deaf non-managerial staff. Diverse staff shouldn't get extra support, everyone gets support they need. Good organisation for women, can progress well. Only problem is if have families & not fully mobile.	Male & female mgrs treated differently, depending on mgr. Women generally progress well, some get to senior mgt. Org gives men & women same opportunities. Women would want to do well in organisation do not have children as it affects progress.
Top Management view of groups 2.2	Only one women on the board, has a young family, encourages women to think they can progress. Organisation prides itself on EOs. Chairman "treated like royalty", "sexist" as does not allow women to wear trousers.	Considering no. of women in organisation, only 1 board member, very poor as makes organisation-wide decisions concerning women. Chairman "sexist and racist", commented too many women joining as graduates. Women not allowed to wear trousers. The women board member acts "in a very male way, and that's why she has progressed. It may also be that she is a token". She has a nanny & does not see children often due to her work hours. Need to be single, no children, act like a man to progress. Married men with children do well. Women only recently got mgt jobs.	One women on board, MD sexist. Ethnic minorities could do well, but do not apply for jobs.	Chairman "appalling, particularly when he said that there were too many women graduates joining the company". Too much emphasis on getting ethnic minorities in the organisation, skills & abilities should count. Would object to positive discrimination or quotas like the US. Aware of 1 black mgr he trained with. Having women and ethnic minorities is good for business as customers see it as EO organisation.

Chart 13 Branch 5 continued

	RESPONDENT 1 'E' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'P' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 3 'I' MALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 4 'S' MALE JUNIOR
Need for Diversity 2.3		Only 3 black mgrs in organisation. As image is white. Not many applications from ethnic minorities. Image and EO's need to be changed to encourage ethnic minorities. Diverse mgt would help business as ethnic minorities would shop in store. Motivation to see women, ethnic minorities and disabled progress.		No group should get extra support.
Role 3.1				
Changes in Role 3.2				
Career Sat 3.3			Satisfied with career.	Satisfied with career.
Career Plans/ Progress 3.4	Would like to progress as far as possible, before having a family. Wants to go to head office in London for 18 months as important for career progression.	Wants to have family and work P/t , but career will suffer, no stores have crèche.	Wants to stay in organisation for rest of career.	Moved around a lot, has helped career. Wants to stay in organisation for the next 5 yrs.
Family Commitment 3.7				
Job Sat 3.8			Satisfied with job.	Enjoys job & working in organisation.

5.4.2.1 Analysis of RC Branch 5

In Branch 5, four managers were interviewed. The organisation is seen as practising a 'control style of management'; participatory styles of management are not encouraged.

This is an interesting point, as women tend often to have more participatory styles of management than men (Alimo-Metcalf 1996). Therefore, it can be considered that men may progress better in the organisation because of their management style.

Interestingly, one of the respondents who reported this was male, and the other two were female. However, respondent I, a junior male manager, considers the

organisation as good for women, as they can progress well, although he does bring up the issue of women having problems of mobility in the organisation. In this particular organisation, to progress in management, (or to be accepted on to the management track in the first place) staff must agree to be fully mobile within the UK. It is perhaps obvious that such conditions are going to affect women, who may not be able to be as mobile if they have families as men are able to be.

The general feeling within the organisational sample interviewed seemed to be that equal opportunities were there in theory, but again, in common with other organisations surveyed, was not really present in practice. The point was made that although all managerial positions were supposedly available for full-time and part-time workers, in reality only full-timers got the job. Another respondent said that she did know part-time managers, but felt their progression had been affected. Mobility was mentioned as a way of reducing the number of women at managerial levels. Job-sharing and increased paternity leave were also areas in which respondents felt there could be an improvement. It was also noted that most middle managers in the organisation were female, whereas most senior managers were male. This seems odd, as by weight of numbers one would expect women to progress, unless the policies and procedures such as full-mobility are in effect discriminating against them. It is also mentioned by the male junior manager (I) that women who want to do well in the organisation do not tend to have children. It is interesting that this was seen as the situation by a male manager.

The Chairman was considered by all the respondents as sexist. His comments on there being too many women graduates joining the company was also picked up. This shows the importance of top management supporting diversity, as asserted by Moxnes

and DeEilertsen (1991). Another point made by three of the respondents was that there was one woman on the board. Opinions on whether she is a token or not are split, but this appears also to show the importance in creating a climate of having females in high positions. Although this does appeal to some individuals, as showing that women have a chance in the organisation of progressing, others see her as a token, supporting the assertion of Kanter (1977).

Little mention is made of ethnic minorities, apart from respondent I, who mentions that they could do well, but do not apply for jobs in the organisation. Once again, this point is echoed from the Trusts. Other respondents, such as S, know of one black manager and feel that women and ethnic minorities managers are good for business, as the customer sees the organisation as one which supports diversity. P is aware of only three black managers in the whole organisation. She sees it as positive for the organisation to have a higher level of ethnic minorities in management positions. I mentioned that there are now some disabled staff, but not as managers.

Interestingly, P states that married men with children do well in the organisation; this is countered by married women with children not doing well.

In terms of future aspirations, the plans of the two female managers include having a family, with the realisation by P that in doing so and working part-time she will affect her career. Both male respondents wish to stay in the organisation for the next 5 years or so.

Branch 5 of RC seems to reflect many of the issues raised in the Trust interviews, in particular, the issues concerning mobility and number of women in senior management positions.

Chart 14 Branch 6

	RESPONDENT 1 'M' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'R' FEMALE MIDDLE	RESPONDENT 3 'G' MALE JUNIOR
Climate 1.1	Organisation like a family, concerned about each other. Mgt team strong.	Now more interested in profit, less in staff.	Open and good communications. Not many barriers to progression. Good working atmosphere.
Policies/ Procedure 1.2			Not sure of EO policies, but feels people are treated well.
Changes in P/P 1.3	Paternity leave should be increased and improved. Maternity leave is fair.	Conditions for part timers should be improved.	
Sat with Manager 1.4			Gets on well with manager, no personality clashes.
Organisation Justice 1.5	Not happy with pay review, feels it was unfairly dealt with by board. Performance related pay introduced which does not fully reward hard work.		Pay and promotion fair, higher salary than last organisation.
Attitude of Mgr 1.6			
Support for Diversity 2.1	Men & women have same opportunities in organisation.	Being P/t meant not considered for jobs, none of F/t perks. Men & women treated same if both F/t. Does not know any P/t male managers.	Men & women given same opps, but states he may see it like this as male, thinking from male point of view. Everyone should get the same support in organisation, but the best person for job should get it.
Top Mgt view of groups 2.2	"The MD has a very narrow view and I think he stands out as not wanting women to do well in [RC]". Contrasts with rest of board's view, hopes will influence MD's views. "Good" woman representative on board.	Do not see how hard they work at store level.	Top Mgt equally committed to all. But don't appreciate hard work at store level.
Need for Diversity 2.3	Different types of people at mgt, meant bring different skills and perspectives to organisation (gender, ethnic, disability). Shop floor staff with disability, but access difficult for some disabilities.	Those with disabilities should be encouraged (disabled professional) but difficulty getting round store. Deaf staff - no managers. Anyone needing extra support should get it.	Useful to increase diversity to get more customers from diverse backgrounds (ethnic minorities).

Chart 15 Branch 6 continued

	RESPONDENT 1 'M' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'R' FEMALE MIDDLE	RESPONDENT 3 'G' MALE JUNIOR
Role 3.1			
Changes in Role 3.2			
Career Satisfaction 3.3	Pleased with career to date, helped not having a family and being able to work F/t. Recently taken on new role, not sure what future will bring. Wants to be in organisation in 5 years time.		Wants career in company.
Career Plans/ Progress 3.4		Been in organisation 28 years, moved round country to progress. Wants to retire soon at 50. Worked P/t after children born, but it affected her career.	Only been in organisation for 6 months. Slight concern over being fully mobile, for career to develop.
Family Commitment 3.7			
Job Sat 3.8			

5.4.2.2 Analysis of RC Branch 6

In this branch, three people were interviewed, two female and one male. Interesting points raised included the problems that part-time managers have, such as being passed over for jobs. Paternity leave was also mentioned as needing improvement, a point raised in other organisations in the survey. Once more, the Chairman's attitude was considered and thought of as different from the rest of the board's views on women. Respondent M felt it was good to have a woman on the board.

Diversity was thought of as useful at managerial level, but not identified as present in the company.

M, a female respondent, stated that her career had been helped by not having a family, and being able to work full-time. R did work part-time for a while after her children were born; this did affect her career. The male respondent G has some concerns over

having to be fully mobile for his career to develop; he has a house in the area and does not want to move.

The main areas for all managers in the branch appear to relate to issues raised in all the sample organisations. These include part-time working and its limiting effects on career; also mobility, which is seen as an area of importance for the male respondent.

It would be interesting to see if his career is affected in the future, if he is not fully mobile.

Chart 16 Branch 7

	RESPONDENT 1 'M' MALE SENIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'P' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 3 'F' FEMALE MIDDLE
Climate 1.1	Safe & comfortable, recently dynamic and less paternalistic. Redundancies "maximising profit is the number one goal" staff less "looked after".	Caring, through the facilities it offers staff. Smear tests, have been cutbacks but still caring.	Supportive, many benefits, i.e. healthcare, but in last 10 yrs organisation changed, withdrawn some benefits to be more competitive. Can be a case of whether "your face fits", not necessarily your ability.
Policies/ Procedure 1.2	Organisation sometimes has a "smug & self-satisfied" approach to EO, believing it's a good employer. But feels proactive approach needed. Pleased now 7 days paternity leave, but not available when his family was growing up.	Pleased that focus group has agreed 7 days paternity leave.	EO policies such as Paternity leave are a good idea. However, not letting people buy houses for the first 5 years of working for RC at managerial level is wrong.
Changes in P/P 1.3			
Satisfaction with Mgr 1.4		Likes male boss, does not matter if male or female boss.	Gets on well with male superior.
Org Justice 1.5		Pay and promotion fair, Performance Related Pay recently introduced should reward people.	New contracts for staff "not as good as the old ones", staff now expected to work more hours and longer. Fair pay and promotion. But some are seen as having potential early and "groomed for success", staff in middle mgt leave as they can get better pay elsewhere.
Attitude of Mgr 1.6			
Support for Diversity 2.1	Ethnic minorities should be appointed in organisation over others who could do job better, just to get the numbers in (if they can do the job).	No group stopped from progressing up mgt ladder. Now deaf staff, wheelchairs difficult in the store.	All should get support not just particular groups.
Top Mgt view of groups 2.2	Career progression often "your face fitting and not what you know but who you know".	Men and women treated the same at store level, but tough at director level and women often lose out. Sees board members as "sexist pigs", MD has lost touch with the real world.	Top management supportive. But out of touch with ground level.
Need for Diversity 2.3	Should be different types of people in store, to get ethnic customers, difficult to get ethnic minorities to join, now managed to get some for seasonal jobs, two deaf staff. But no mgrs disabled or ethnic minorities that he knows of. Network for black employees.	Store needs more people from ethnic minority backgrounds to expand customer base. But area white, should get same support as everyone.	Recent push for more disabled employees a good thing. Deaf staff also. Should encourage ethnic minorities and support them in progression.

Chart 17 Branch 7 continued

	RESPONDENT 1 'M' MALE SENIOR	RESPONDENT 2 'P' FEMALE JUNIOR	RESPONDENT 3 'F' FEMALE MIDDLE
Role 3.1			
Changes in Role 3.2			
Career Sat 3.3		Happy in current position.	
Career Plans/ progress 3.4	Hope to retire in next 5 years. Did travel round to progress, seconded to a charity for 2 years, interesting, but ready to come back.		Retire in 5 years time. Decided not to have children so could concentrate on career. Put partner's career first so had to move with him.
Family Commitment 3.5	Now not fully mobile as family settled in one area, but has not affected his career.		
Job Sat 3.8		Happy in current position.	Satisfied with job.

5.4.2.3 Analysis of RC Branch 7

In this branch, the organisation is seen as more 'caring' compared with other branches.

However, it is noted that it has changed in recent years.

Paternity leave is mentioned again, and in particular that a recent focus group has just agreed that it should be seven days.

F, a female middle manager, mentions that some individuals are 'groomed for success'. In terms of diversity climate, this is obviously not ideal, as it creates bias and tends to mean that managers groom managers very much like themselves; in top management, that will mean male managers. A formal mentoring system is in place; however, this grooming appears to be informal. The idea of being successful 'if your face fits' is also raised here, emphasising the above point.

Once more, the board is seen as sexist, and the Chairman as having lost touch with the real world.

It is pointed out that it is difficult to get ethnic minorities to join the organisation. However, there is a network for black employees to offer support. Generally, all three respondents feel that there is a distinct need for ethnic minorities and disabled people in the organisation so as to expand the customer base.

Interestingly, F, a female manager, decided not to have children in order to progress within the organisation. In contrast, M, a male manager, is not fully mobile, as his family have settled in one area, but he feels that this has not affected his career. This shows how women have had to make sacrifices for their careers; however, men appear not to have had to do so. Once more, mobility is seen as an issue, but not for the male manager. This could be for two reasons; firstly, because he is very good at his job and therefore has progressed despite his lack of full mobility; or secondly, because, as suggested in previous interviews, mobility is used to limit women managers from progressing. This second possibility would certainly fit with the Chairman's attitudes, which the vast majority of respondents comment on as sexist.

Chart 18 Branch 8

	RESPONDENT 1 'R' MIDDLE FEMALE	RESPONDENT 2 'H' MIDDLE JUNIOR
Climate 1.1	Competitive and very political, particularly among mgt staff. Cliques and "who you know, not what you know".	Climate changed in 15 years. "Originally profit was not as important as it is now. Staff welfare was more important in the past". "It was a family firm; now there are no active members of the board who are from the original founding family".
Policies/ Procedure 1.2		Nothing in the EO policies she would change.
Changes in P/P 1.3		
Sat with Mgr 1.4	Good relationship with mgr, gets on well with male or female managers.	Likes female manager.
Org Justice 1.5	"Considering human beings, the system of promotion is fair on paper". Salaries not always fair due to PRP, depends on what the mgr thinks you should get. "You can reach a point at which no matter how well you perform your salary cannot increase any more".	Pay and promotion fair.
Attitude of Mgr 1.6		
Support for Diversity 2.1	If males and females work F/t and women have male attitude towards work, then up to a certain point they should do equally well, problems if want to move to senior mgt. If women work P/t would not do as well as men. Must be fully mobile, difficult if have family. People not barred from the organisation, if emulate white males, play by rules, then will progress. Only knows one disabled professional in head office. Organisation has a "strong Jewish feel", Jewish people progress well. An increase in regional accents in recent years.	Both men & women have same opps in organisation, emphasised by first women on the board. Those from ethnic minorities could do well, but does not know any managers from such backgrounds. Knows disabled staff only with learning disabilities. Everyone should get the same treatment.
Top Mgt view of groups 2.2	Progression in organisation is very political. Chairman's attitude is sexist and stops women from progressing into senior management. He would prefer women at home or as assistants.	
Need for Diversity 2.3	Important to have diversity to sell to all population.	Would not benefit organisation.
Role 3.1		
Changes in Role 3.2		
Career Sat 3.3		
Career Plans/prog 3.4	Happy with current position hopes to stay in it for a few years, then move to voluntary sector in next 5 years.	Intends to work in organisation all career, might move to different store.
Family Commitment 3.5	Has had to be very mobile, 11 places in 13 years. Now limited mobility due to family illness. But single with no children.	Family responsibilities means cannot be fully mobile. Works F/t as parents help with the children.
Job Sat 3.6	Content with current job.	Enjoys her job.

5.4.2.4 Analysis of RC Branch 8

Both respondents in Branch 8 were female. R thought there was considerable competition between managers in the organisation, and that it was a case of 'who you know, not what you know' when applied to promotion. This again fits with earlier descriptions of the organisations, and this does not appear to enhance a positive climate for diversity in this organisation. Once again, mobility and part-time working are mentioned as problems for women progressing. R also feels that if females emulated white males, then career progression was possible. The Chairman's 'sexist' view is mentioned by R, who feels that it is this attitude shown by the chairman that stops women from progressing. H on the other hand, a junior manager, emphasises that there is now a female board member, and sees this as representing the opportunities that women have in the organisation.

Both respondents feel that increasing diversity in terms of ethnicity and disability in management would benefit the organisation.

Family commitments for both women means that they cannot be fully mobile, and therefore their careers are limited.

5.4.3 Further Analysis of the Interview Data

Once the interview analysis chart had been completed, the next stage involved mapping and interpretation. Ritchie and Spencer (1994) assert that at this stage: “..the analyst reviews the charts and research notes; compares and contrasts the perceptions, accounts, or experiences; searches for patterns and connections and seeks explanations of these internally within the data. Piecing together the overall picture is not simply a question of aggregating patterns, but of weighing up the salience and dynamics of issues, and searching for a structure rather than a multiplicity of evidence.” p. 186. The process which takes place in mapping and interpreting is one which requires “...leaps of intuition and imagination. The whole process of immersion in the data triggers associations, the origins of which the analyst can scarcely recognise.” p. 186.

5.4.4 Discussion of Interviews

Ritchie and Spencer (1994) assert that qualitative research looks for answers to particular questions and concerns. They argue that the aims of qualitative research tend to fall into a number of categories. These categories include looking for explanations of “attitudes, experiences and behaviour”, p. 179. They also include developing strategies, that is identifying “underlying motivations, patterns and explanations” p. 179. For example, individuals may label others as something, but not themselves. Women in this research often referred to female managers as “bitchy”; however, they as female managers did not apply this label to themselves.

Qualitative research may also explore change strategies used by individuals. Here, mobility is a problem for women in RC, who limit themselves to one area of the country. Having to gain extra qualifications limits women with families in the Trusts, as there may well be a lack of childcare available to them. Lack of a seen need for support for diversity also reduces their prospects. In RC, the Chairman’s attitude limits female respondents and their feelings of being supported, although this is tempered with the belief that his attitude is not common amongst board members. Some women saw the female board member as a positive statement and role-model, showing that women with children can make it in the organisation. Others believed her life was so different from their own that she was merely used as a token with little effect, as she was showing a ‘male’ attitude, had a nanny, and spent little time with her children. She was seen as having almost ‘removed’ her femininity to gain her position, so that she was sacrificing more than they, ‘normal’ women, ever would. Also, she was thought of having to work so much harder than the men on the board to achieve her position that most women could not identify with her at all. The token

was mainly identified as that, with a few women seeing her as a positive role model, but not wanting to be in that position themselves.

5.4.5 Creating a Positive Climate for Diversity

Policies and procedures link in very strongly with the outcomes of the model. They also relate to the equity recognition scale. Organisations need to reassess their policies and procedure to ensure equity for all managerial employees. Knowledge and acceptance of these policies and procedures is equally important. In the interview data, it was shown that an organisation may have a policy which individuals would find beneficial, for example career breaks or paternity leave. However, some individuals either had no knowledge of it, or had to discover it for themselves. Policies and procedures that the organisation put in place need to be more than lip-service. During the interviews it came to light that although certain policies were in place, for example part-time work and career breaks, individuals felt that the organisation did not fully support managers taking these routes. As a result of this, interviewees felt that managers careers would suffer if they took these options.

Another interesting point that come across during the interviews was that both men and women seemed to support initiatives that benefited men, e.g. paternity leave. It seems that men were taking their lead from rights given to women, such as maternity leave, and expecting similar rights for themselves. They are gaining the support of women for these rights.

The demographic mix of the organisation also appears to be very important in analysing PCFD. Often interviewees mentioned that a mix of genders at managerial level was important. It is felt from this research that organisations need to address the question of gender balance at managerial levels. It appears that the more

demographically mixed an organisation is at managerial level in terms of race and gender, the more aware managers are of each others needs. This in turn, appears to have an effect on the concept of equity and organisational justice. The greater the gender mix at managerial level, the greater the perception of organisational justice and need and support for diversity.

Another important aspect identified clearly in the retail company interviews is the importance of top management commitment to a PCFD, supporting the assertions of many authors, including Totta and Burke (1995). The Chairman of RC was constantly quoted by interviewees as being “sexist”. This image seemed to influence womens’ satisfaction with the organisation. It also appeared to have made them aware that they may be limited in their aspirations within RC. This was countered to some extent by a women being on the board. However, interviewees often saw her as a ‘token female’, supporting the work of Kanter (1977) on diversity in organisations discussed earlier. This contrasts with the view of the Chief Executive of Trust 1, who is female. She believes that all individuals have the same opportunities in the organisation, no matter what their gender or background. However, this point of view must be questioned, as the respondent was unwilling to allow her staff to be interviewed directly.

As can be seen from the results presented above, if organisations wish to create a positive climate for diversity with all its beneficial outcomes on career and organisational attitudes in their organisation, then they should consider the elements which develop a positive climate for diversity, such as organisational policies and procedures. They should also consider that, even if they do have particular policies and procedures in place, the individual characteristics of managers strongly influence

the perceptions of those policies and procedures. Therefore, treatment of individuals and communication to individual managers about the policies and procedures in the organisation which can develop a PCFD is very important. The organisation's policies and procedures are very important in creating a PCFD and the positive outcomes that are related to it. However, individuals from different backgrounds have different perceptions and attitudes (supporting Kossek and Zonia's 1993 work) as to whether the organisation is really presenting these policies and procedures in a useful way to them, or is just doing so as 'lip-service'. This finding was reinforced in interviews carried out in the organisations. It is important that managing diversity is taken into account when trying to develop a PCFD; all individuals need to be treated as such, and not just as members of a group, and all need to be included in the organisation. A PCFD is one aspect of developing an organisational environment perceived by all employees to be inclusive. One measure of inclusiveness is a PCFD, which does appear to have significant effects on individual career and organisational attitudes and perceptions, and therefore organisational effectiveness.

5.5 The Qualitative and Quantitative Data Compared

The examination of both the qualitative and quantitative data regarding PCFD raises some interesting points. From the quantitative data gathered through questionnaire and analysed statistically, it seems that the proposed PCFD model successfully predicts many of the hypothesised outcomes. However, some variance is still to be accounted for. This variance may perhaps be explained by other variables not included in the questionnaire. The qualitative data gained through in-depth interview does lead the researcher to identify possible supplementary variables, which whilst not

measured in the quantitative survey are indeed identified from the qualitative data. These variables may need to be incorporated into an overall PCFD model. However, further research would have to be conducted for one to assess whether they do have particular significance.

The questionnaire and interview data were analysed to determine similarities and differences in the information gathered. Firstly, data was compared by whole sample managerial level and gender. It was then considered in terms of the NHS and RC samples.

5.5.1 Managerial Level

T-test results show that when comparing junior and middle managers, significant differences were found in career planning. Middle managers were much more likely to use it. This was supported by the interview data gathered, where junior managers were less likely to use career planning. A statistical difference on the questionnaire data was also detected in organisational commitment, with middle managers being more likely to report organisational commitment than junior managers. The interview data shows that the majority of junior managers were committed to their organisations, as were most middle managers.

The questionnaire data show significant differences between junior and senior managers in relation to the following variables: career planning, career satisfaction, career future satisfaction, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational justice. The interview data generally follow a similar pattern. Senior managers tended to be very committed and satisfied in terms of the outcome variables. They also perceived more organisational justice than junior managers. This is perhaps

not surprising, considering senior managers had reached the top positions and were therefore likely to be satisfied and committed. One might also assume that they feel they have achieved their position through merit, and so perceived organisational justice to be present.

When comparing senior and middle managers, a similar picture is found to that of junior versus senior managers. Significant differences were found, with senior managers being more satisfied with their careers, more likely to be satisfied with their careers in the future, more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to the organisation. Interview data also supported this. Once again, senior managers had reached the top and therefore, perhaps one could argue, were more likely to be satisfied and committed to the organisation that had enabled them to reach such a position. Middle managers had not progressed as far, and may have experienced barriers in the organisation. Certainly, many interviewees stated that being female and having a family had limited one's opportunities to progress into senior management. That said, two of the interviewees at senior level were female. This may of course, be despite the climate in the organisation not encouraging women to progress. The female Chief Executive of Trust One appeared to be gender and ethnicity blind, and was convinced that all that mattered in progression through management was the ability "to do the job properly". It may be that this blindness to any barriers was her way of coping with problems. That is, by not acknowledging barriers, she was able to break through them. An alternative view may be that as she was working in the NHS, she had more opportunity to progress as a women than she would have had in RC. Indeed, both female senior managers were in the NHS.

The female senior managers appeared to be very determined individuals who would not let family responsibilities stop them from progressing. The Chief Executive from Trust 1, 'S', had to work as she became a single parent, and she was determined to earn a living and be successful. The other senior female manager, 'G' in Trust 1, job-shares in a non-medical capacity. She provides a support function. It is interesting that she is able to job-share. However, she feels that she is unable to do all the work in the limited time she is employed in the organisation. This manager reports to the Board, rather than being a member of the Board, as respondent 'S' is. Childcare responsibilities led G to work part-time. As a senior manager, she may be unusual in job-sharing, but perhaps is able to do this as her job is outside the medical field. Most NHS respondents interviewed felt that it would be very difficult for managers in a medical capacity to work part-time, or to job-share.

Retail company managers interviewed held a similar view to part-time working, as compared to their NHS colleagues. The general view was that those at the 'business-end' of the organisation, that is those on the shop floor, could not or would not be allowed to work part-time or job-share. Some perceived this to be because one could not do the job part-time. Others, mainly women, perceived that it was the organisation which did not allow part-time managers to succeed.

In terms of flexible working hours, the questionnaire data shows that senior managers were more likely to be aware of them as operating in the organisation. This was also borne out in the interview data. It appears that senior managers are more likely to be able to work either official or unofficial flexible working hours. This may well be because they have more control over their jobs than middle and junior managers. This also may explain why they report more positive outcomes than other managers.

When considering the NHS as a whole, questionnaire analysis presents a similar pattern to the overall management analysis. There appear to be significant differences between junior and senior managers in the NHS with regard to career planning, career satisfaction, career future satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The significant differences between junior and middle managers are shown in career planning and organisational commitment, with senior managers using career planning and being more committed to the organisation.

It appears that middle managers are more similar to junior managers than to senior managers. This may be because there are many fewer senior management positions than middle managers. Perhaps those who reach senior positions have different qualities to those in middle management. It may be that it is easier to reach middle management from junior positions than it is to reach senior management from middle management.

Considering the retail company sample, an interesting picture is presented. There appear to be no significant differences between junior and senior RC managers in the t-test results. There also appear to be no significant differences between junior and middle managers and middle and senior managers. This may be because the sample used was quite small. However, results from the interview data appear to show that there is a difference between different managerial levels. Those in junior management were not as likely to use career planning as middle and senior managers.

T-tests showed that male and female managers differed on the questionnaire responses. A significant difference was found in the need for diversity variable, where the female respondents perceived a need for diversity and males did not. The significance level at 0.027 for support for diversity showed a significant difference

between men and women's responses. Men were more likely to perceive that there was support for diversity in organisations than women.

All the other variables did not show significant differences when analysed using t-tests.

When comparing NHS males and females using t-tests, the only significant difference found was in need for diversity, where females were more likely to perceive a need for diversity in the organisation as compared to males. During the interviews it became apparent that respondents with children were more likely to know about childcare facilities. This was true of both men and women. However, women were more likely to have childcare responsibility than male respondents. Women were also more likely to perceive a need for diversity, whereas men were more likely to perceive support for diversity.

The retail sample did not present any significant differences between male and female managers when using t-tests. However, interviews showed that there was some difference in knowledge of equal opportunities, recognition of the need for diversity and perceived support for diversity. When men and women's answers were compared, it was shown that women were more likely to have full knowledge of EO policies and procedures. Women were also more likely to perceive a need for diversity in the organisation. Men were more likely to perceive that diversity was supported in the organisation.

When the whole questionnaire sample was analysed using chi-square, a difference was found between men and women in terms of support for diversity (which men were more likely to perceive) and mentoring (which men were more aware than women).

Examining the NHS and retail organisational samples, the difference detected by Chi-square is analysed that NHS managers are more likely to perceive a need for diversity. Women are also more likely to perceive a need for diversity when compared to male respondents.

The Retail Company sample shows no difference between men's and women's responses.

The interviews have proved a very useful tool in examining further the concept of organisational climate. It appears that the model created via the study of relevant literature and the questionnaire results can be enhanced by consideration of the interview data. Particular aspects of climate are highlighted via the interviews, and these are shown more clearly than in the questionnaire data.

5.6 Conclusions

In terms of EO policies, one extra factor which could be added to the PCFD model is paternity leave. The question could be asked, 'Is paternity leave adequate in this organisation'? It appears from the interviews that most of the other policies, such as having an EO policy, are taken as read by respondents. Although the point made earlier in the questionnaire results section, (that it was not so important an influence whether individuals knew that the organisation had an EO policy, but whether they had seen, taken to mean read, the policy) is also relevant here. This was also related in the quantitative results chapter to whether the manager's superior had provided a copy of the EO policy to the respondent. This point very strongly relates to the issue of a positive climate for diversity being present, not just by the organisation having particular policies, but by individuals having knowledge of them, as the interviewees point out. In addition, the acceptance by the organisation of individuals taking up these 'rights' was also important. The example shown here in these interviews concerns opportunities to take career breaks or work part-time. These options were available to individuals, but they often did not feel that they could take them up. This was either because they were under the impression that they could not do so (that is, they did not have the information concerning policies) or, if they did know about them, respondents still felt that taking such options would seriously affect their careers, and that other managers and their superiors would not take them seriously, as being committed to their career. Certainly the Maddock and Parkin (1994) view that a smart macho culture of long hours had invaded the NHS seems to have been supported by the interviews conducted.

Another point brought out by the interviewees was the common view that opportunities were available for ethnic minorities in the organisations. Indeed, some felt that it would be useful to have a diversity mix of individuals at managerial levels in the organisation (see for example, Trust 4 respondent E) in order to help relate to 'customers' using the service. However, it was largely felt by respondents that individuals from ethnic minority backgrounds did not apply for jobs in the organisation, and that this was the root cause of a lack of ethnic minority presence in the organisation. Some respondents believed that ways of advising or telling people from ethnic minority backgrounds of the opportunities in the organisation would be useful, so that more individuals would apply for jobs, thus increasing the number of people in managerial level jobs. However, others appeared to believe that it was up to individuals to apply for jobs, and that it was not the organisation's responsibility to actively try to attract people from ethnic minority backgrounds.

A point raised in Branch 5 was which style of management was seen as acceptable in the organisation. One respondent referred to it as a 'control style'; and all but one felt the organisation to be hierarchical. Perhaps, like the issue of trust, style of management in the RC branches is also important in influencing the climate for diversity. That is, not only are policies and procedures, need for diversity, support for diversity and organisational justice important factors in creating the climate, but also the management style which the organisation encourages in its managers who wish to be successful.

Mobility, both in the Trusts and RC branches, also appears to be an important point affecting climate in the organisation. For individuals to be considered for the management track in RC, they have to agree to be fully mobile, especially in the first 5

or so years of working there. This, of course, may well affect women managers who have family commitments, and therefore cannot perhaps move to different parts of the country as easily as men. That said, one male senior manager had now decided not to be fully mobile, having his family settled in one place, and he was still able to progress within the organisation. This could be for two possible reasons; firstly, he may be at a position now where his superiors feel that he has had all the experience he needs and therefore does not need to be fully mobile; secondly, it could be because he is male, and therefore his commitment is accepted by the organisation in a way it would not be if he were a woman. Certainly, it seemed that when women were at childbearing age, they were still expected to move around the UK to gain experience, and also, it seems, to stress their commitment to the organisation. Interestingly, many managers appeared to leave the organisation after the first five years or so to get better pay, and they did not have to be fully mobile. Even if managers were not nationally mobile, they were expected to be regionally mobile, which could cause problems in terms of childcare commitments if they were to work at the other end of the region in which they lived. The issue of mobility appears in Trusts as well. Respondents comment that they had to be fully mobile in their careers to progress. This again appears to be acceptable to women before they have families. However, once they have families, they appear not to want to be fully mobile. However, some respondents commented that their families would have to move if they were offered other career development opportunities. So it may well be that mobility is another extra factor that needs to be considered when looking at climate for diversity at managerial level in organisations. That is, does the organisation expect individuals to be fully mobile? This issue also relates to careers in general, and the degree of mobility that is needed

to progress. Do Trusts expect individuals to have worked in different organisations in different parts of the country, and is this necessary to their progression? Considering the comments of one respondent, who regarded promotion prospects as 'dead men's shoes', this may appear to be the case. Many of the Trust respondents were planning to move organisations in the next few years to advance their career. Trusts expecting individuals to have moved around would not be a problem if managers were able to progress their careers in the local area; but speaking to managers, it seemed that many had started work in other parts of the country, and had moved around the UK to progress. This would obviously be a problem for women with families, although it is fair to say that one of the male managers considered his wife the main breadwinner and said that he would move if her career required it.

The Importance of a Token

In looking at the interview data gathered, it appears that women in board positions are seen in two ways. Either they are either seen as a token, and so far removed from 'normal' women that they do not have any motivating effect leading women to believe that they can 'make it' in the organisation. Or they are seen as a role model, generating a feeling that the woman does represent women, and that there are opportunities in the organisation. This appears to be an important factor in creating a positive climate for diversity in an organisation. Moss-Kanter (1977) stated that minorities are often seen as tokens or 'superstars' if they stand out from the rest of the senior managers. They are expected to represent women or minorities in a way which the majority would never have to do. However, their presence may be vital in giving minorities the view that they are taken seriously in the organisation. Even if individuals feel they may be placed there as a token, at least they are there. Therefore,

it has to be said that in terms of management commitment to diversity, the number of women and minorities on the board is an important aspect in the creation of a positive climate for diversity which the interviews appeared to identify and the questionnaire did not.

Mobility may well be a factor which has some influence on individuals' satisfaction with their career. It appears from the interviews that men can progress much more easily, because they are able to be more mobile than women. This may relate to women having to put their career on hold for the family, and also to them following the male partner in his career choices.

Whether individuals are able to work part-time or not and whether shifts are necessary to the work pattern are also important. Perhaps add it is possible to add to the number of indicators of a positive climate for diversity the condition whether individuals can work part-time in their current job if they wished. It may be that the organisation itself needs to look again at the way it has organised work and if it can change this to lead to more job-sharing or other arrangements.

Whether individuals feel they are able to take career breaks or use the options available to them may well be another point which influences the climate that has not been identified in the questionnaire, although knowledge of policies and procedures was included (i.e. what are the policies which relate to you, do you feel you can use the options).

Is it possible that paternity leave needs to be added to either the moderating variables or the indicator variables; more importantly, its length, and if individuals have knowledge of it. This appears to be important in both Trust 2 and 3. Could it be that

when other policies, e.g. maternity leave have been sorted out, men are now expecting other policies to benefit them?

Paternity leave was mentioned by the two middle managers as important. The general feeling was that there were EO policies in place, but that staff were not told of them, and so could not make full use of them. Perhaps one other factor to be added to the moderating variables in the PCFD model is that communications between staff and employers.

This trust was a multi-sited organisation. This appeared to influence the views and perceptions of the staff. For example, respondent V did not see the organisation's climate as important, only that of the unit (part of the organisation) that she worked in. This is an interesting point, as it shows that different parts of the organisation may well have different climates. Interpretation of the overall organisations policies and procedures appears to be different in different parts of the organisation, indicating different climates, despite organisational attempts to create the same conditions throughout. This may be related to management style.

Perhaps another point to be added to the moderating variables in PCFD model that is communications between staff and employers.

In terms of policies and procedures, paternity leave and either its length or having to find out about it oneself appeared to be the main bone of contention with respondents. It is possible that paternity leave needs to be added to either the moderating variables, or the indicator variables and more importantly, its length and if individuals have knowledge of it. It appears to be important in both Trust 2 and 3. Could it be that if other policies, e.g. maternity leave have been sorted out, that now men are expecting other policies to benefit them?

The qualitative analysis has identified previously unrecognised factors which, in this research, appear to have an influence on climate for diversity; for example, whether individuals felt included in the organisation. These factors or variables can be tentatively included or placed in the PCFD model as possibly having an influence on career and organisational outcomes. However, future research on these variables needs to take place. One variable of interest here is that of demographic mix of the department. This factor was originally identified in the PCFD model as an important factor in creating such a climate. However, due to organisational constraints (discussed in the Methodology Chapter) it was not possible to identify the demographic mix in departments of the sample organisations. From the interview data gathered, demographic mix appears to be an important factor in the climate of the organisation, both at department level and indeed at board level. It has been discussed earlier that board-level commitment to diversity and diversity initiatives is very important in creating a positive climate for diversity. It appears that too many men at board level, and too many women at department managerial level, have a negative impact on the staff and their awareness of a positive climate, and indeed on their morale. Morale of course is an important issue which this research has identified as needing further study.

Another factor to come out of the interview research was the issue of mobility. The RC branches insisted on full mobility for their managers for at least the first 5 years. If managers were to be successful and reach senior manager positions, it was accepted by staff that they would have to move around the whole country. Another issue relating to mobility was the rule which meant trainee managers were not able to buy houses for the first 5 years of their employment; again, this was to enable full

mobility. This rule, which staff had to sign-up to in their contracts, appeared to have a great effect on women who wished to have families. Basically, it limited them enormously. Moreover, the issue of dual-career couples was also highlighted by this practice. Generally speaking, in both the RC and Trusts, women tended to put their career second to their partners (this was not the case with one male respondent in Trust 4). Therefore, their mobility was again limited, even if they did not have family responsibilities in the form of children or relatives to take care of. In the Trusts, most respondents talked of how they had had to be mobile in order to progress in their career. Again, it was the male respondents who said they would now move if necessary. Women respondents and male respondents' partners had put their careers more often on hold, and would move if their male partners 'needed' to in order for their careers to progress. Women were the ones sacrificing their career chances with this decision. So mobility is another area that could well be addressed by future research on the subject of PCFD, as could the influence on women and men of dual-career partners and domestic responsibilities. Further, the demographic mix of men and women in organisations needs to be studied more completely. Kossek and Zonia (1994) examine this area in their research, stating how important such a mix is.

The qualitative research was a very interesting part of the overall research, not least in the fact that it identified other areas of interest relating to diversity which would not have been found had only quantitative research been conducted. The interviews found that other factors in the environment did have a large impact on the attitudes and perceptions of managers at all levels: junior, middle and senior. This information will hopefully stimulate further research in diversity and its impact on the working environment.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to examine the concept of a 'positive climate for diversity' (PCFD) at managerial levels in a health care service and retail environment. The concept of PCFD as defined by this study can be shown by various indicators. A further aim was to assess whether any of the hypothesised links between PCFD and organisational and individual outcomes occur.

The study also considered how individual differences in terms of gender, managerial level, age, marital status, domestic care responsibilities, affect individuals' perceptions and attitudes towards the organisational diversity climate, and how these individual differences affect the hypothesised outcomes of the PCFD Model.

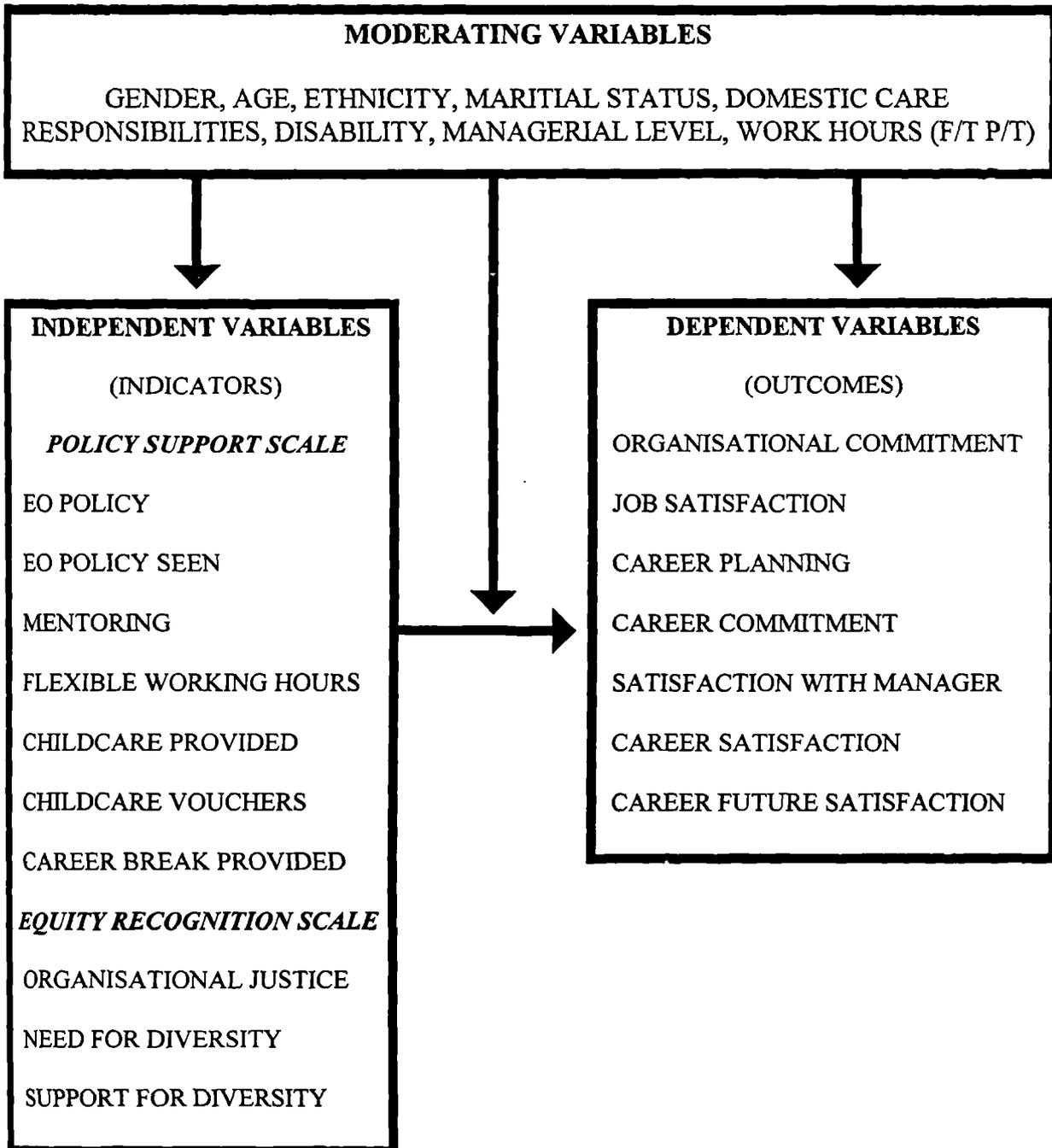
6.2 Hypotheses

As stated in Chapter 1, the research is based on two main hypotheses. Firstly, that the independent variables which form the positive climate for diversity will predict positive outcomes for both individual managers and the organisation. Secondly, that the moderating variables will influence the perception of a positive climate for diversity and outcome variables.

6.3 The Original Hypotheses and Model

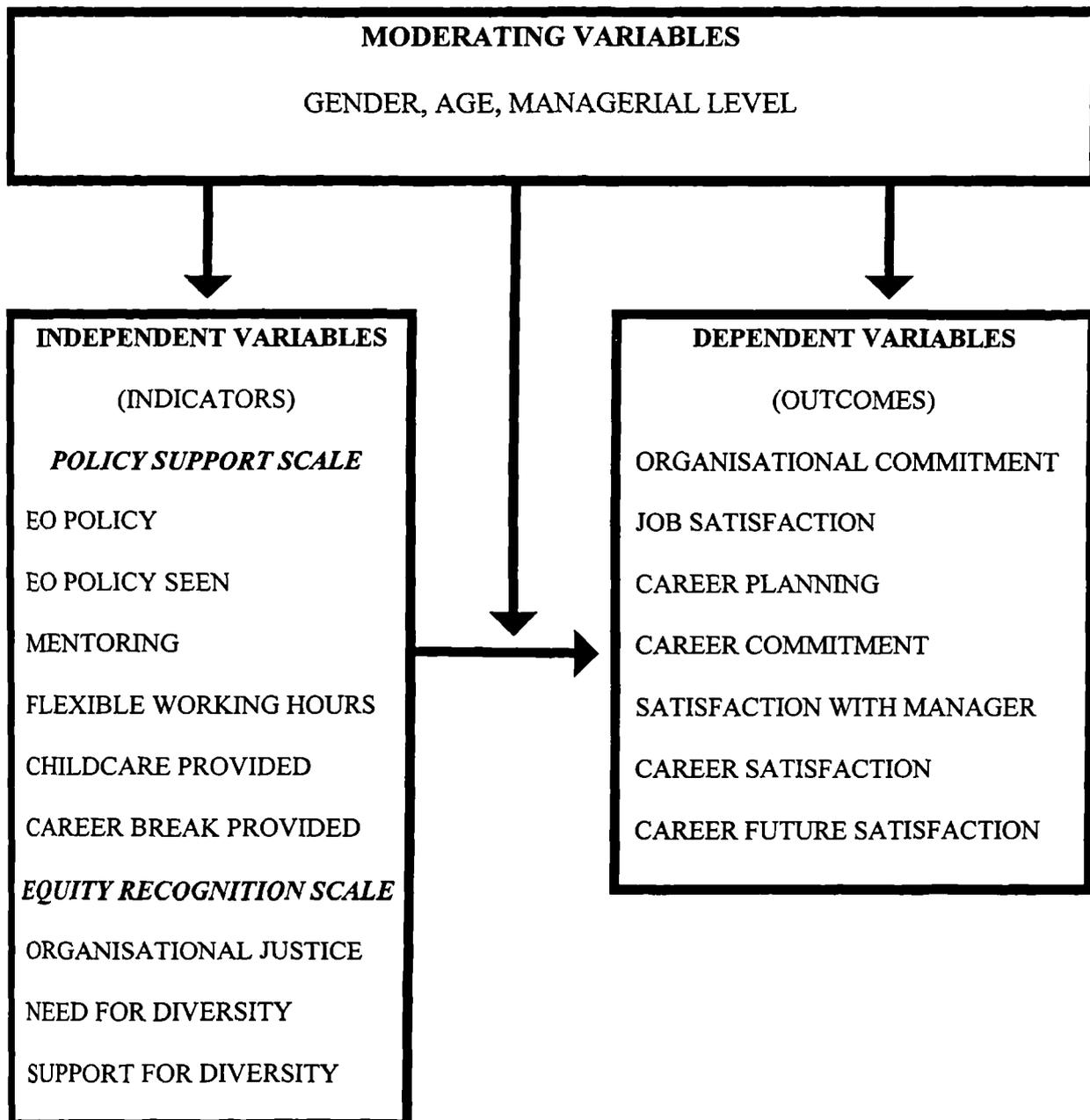
Using statistical data gathered from both the NHS and RC, it is possible to compare and contrast the original model and the revised one, based on the research conducted.

Figure 68 Original Positive Climate For Diversity Model



Having analysed the questionnaire data via statistical methods, such as correlation coefficient, ANOVA and regression analysis, it is now possible to re-draw the original PCFD model showing the statistically supported relationships. This re-drawn model is shown below.

Figure 69 Positive Climate for Diversity Re-drawn Model 2



6.3.1 Comparing the Two Models

The PCFD model, climate for diversity is shown to consist of:

- 1) policy support scale: organisation has an EO policy, EO policy seen, childcare provided, flexible working hours, mentoring and career breaks.
- 2) equity recognition scale: support for diversity (with sub-scales support for women and support for ethnic minorities), recognition of the need for diversity, and organisational justice.

PCFD does appear to affect outcomes, especially the PCFD variables of flexible working hours, organisational justice and support for diversity.

Gender and managerial level moderate the impact of these relationships. Other variables were untested, due to sample limitations and could perhaps be investigated in future research.

It was found that perceptions and attitudes varied with level and gender. T-tests and ANOVA showed this relationship. e.g. commitment, satisfaction, need for diversity, organisational justice, support for diversity were affected by level. Mentoring (supporting Kanter's (1977) ascertain), childcare provided, need for diversity and support for diversity (supporting Kossek and Zonia's ascertain) are all influenced by gender.

The original model (figure 68) differs from the re-drawn model 2 (figure 69) in a number of ways. The organisational samples did not include a significant number of people from ethnic minorities or those with disabilities to allow the researcher to conduct separate analyses on them, as Kossek and Zonia (1993) had done. Therefore, these categories were dropped from the PCFD model. This was also the case in terms

of work hours. Not enough of the sample worked anything other than full-time for acceptable statistical analysis to be conducted on the work hours variable. However, the variables on which work could be conducted are shown in the model above: gender, managerial level, age. Further research could be conducted on ethnicity, disability, marital status and domestic care responsibilities to more fully explore their impacts on diversity climate. The finding that management level and gender in particular moderate a positive climate for diversity echoes the results of Kossek and Zonia's (1993) research. Howe (1977) also asserts that hierarchical position affects one's view of a climate, which this research showed. Further Cox's (1993) ascertain is also supported, that is, majority group members (in this case men) have different views to non-majority group members (women in management).

In terms of the climate for diversity indicators, commitment by the organisation through policies and procedures is still included in model 2 (figure 69), under the heading of 'policy support scale'. This result supports Kossek and Zonia's (1993) assertion that policies influence diversity climate in an organisation. Organisational justice is also included in the model together with 'need for diversity' and 'support for diversity', with sub-scales support for women and support for ethnic minorities (from the work of Kossek and Zonia 1993), under the 'equity recognition scale'. It was found that women did indeed support the need for diversity, in an organisation, more than men, again echoing the results of Kossek and Zonia (1993). In terms of support for diversity, men were more likely to report that there was support for diversity in the organisation than women. This supports the notion by Kossek and Zonia that when the dominant group (men) find resources moved away from them, for example in diversity initiatives, they may feel 'resentful' of that re-distribution. Whereas

women still felt, as shown in this research, that the organisations were not doing enough to support diversity.

In terms of the outcomes of the PCFD model, all the original hypothesised outcomes, (that is; organisational commitment, job satisfaction, career planning, career commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction), were found to be present after statistical analysis. This supports the work of Cox (1993) who asserts that diversity climate leads to positive outcomes such as job and career satisfaction. Indeed, findings also support the work of Naylor et al (1980) who argue that climate influences job satisfaction. Further, this result supports the ascertains of Dastmalchian et al (1989) as the research has shown climate does “influence the satisfaction, motivation and behaviour patterns of individuals in the workplace”, p22. The research also supports Dastmalchian et al’s (1989) assertion that climate is directly created by organisational policies. And, this research was able to use the concept of climate as suggested by Dastmalchian et al (1989) as both “a diagnostic” and “predictive tool”, p22.

Analysis showed that PCFD as a whole, and specific scales in particular, (e.g. organisational justice and support for diversity) predicted all the outcomes hypothesised (organisational commitment, jobs satisfaction, career planning, career commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction).

6.4 Hypotheses Revisited

6.4.1 The First Hypothesis

The first hypothesis stated that the independent variables in the positive climate for diversity model will predict positive outcomes for both individual managers and the organisation. This was tested using a variety of statistical analyses. It was found that both the policy support scale and equity recognition scale predicted the outcomes, supporting research by Cox (1993) and Sidney (1994). However, the policy support scale did not predict all of the outcomes, unlike the equity recognition scale. The individual climate for diversity variables were also tested to see if they predicted any of the PCFD outcomes. They were found to predict some of the outcomes, but not others. Using analysis of variance, the awareness of career breaks being present in the organisation was found to predict the following; career future satisfaction, job satisfaction and career satisfaction. Childcare provided was found to predict the outcome variable: career commitment, again supporting Cox's (1993) ascertain that effective management of diversity leads to organisational commitment. EO policy was found to influence satisfaction with manager, and seen EO policy also predicted satisfaction with manager. Flexible working hours predicted satisfaction with manager, career commitment, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Need for diversity predicted career commitment, career future satisfaction, career satisfaction, career planning, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Regression analysis showed that the PCFD variables as a whole predicted organisational commitment (supporting Cox's 1993 work), job satisfaction, career

commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction. The policy support scale predicted organisational commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction. The equity recognition scale predicted organisational commitment, job satisfaction, career planning, career commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction, that is, all of the outcome variables.

In terms of the individual climate for diversity variables, organisational justice was found to predict organisational commitment, job satisfaction, career planning, career commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction. That is, all the outcome variables were predicted by organisational justice. This supports the work of both Lind and Tyler (1988) and Folger and Konovsky (1989) who assert that procedural justice (part of organisational justice in this study) will strongly influence individual's attitudes concerning organisational outcomes.

Therefore it is possible to say that Hypothesis 1, that PCFD predicted the outcomes of the model, was supported; the relationships are shown below:

- i) Policy support influenced organisational commitment, satisfaction with manager, career future satisfaction and career satisfaction.
- ii) Equity recognition influenced organisational commitment, job satisfaction and career future satisfaction.
- iii) PCFD scales showed positive relationships with the following outcomes: organisational justice and EO policy seen both influenced organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Organisational justice, flexible working hours, EO policy seen and support for diversity showed a positive relationship with

satisfaction with manager. Organisational justice showed a relationship with career satisfaction. Organisational justice, flexible working hours, career break and support for diversity showed a relationship with career future satisfaction.

iv) PCFD does appear to affect outcomes. In particular, the PCFD variables of flexible hours, organisational justice and support for diversity appear to influence most outcomes.

v) Organisational justice and flexible hours influenced the outcomes of organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Organisational justice influenced both career planning and career satisfaction. Organisational justice and seen a copy of the EO policy influenced career commitment. Organisational justice, flexible working hours, seen a copy of the EO policy and support for diversity influenced satisfaction with manager. Finally, organisational justice, flexible working hours, career break and support for diversity influenced career future satisfaction.

6.4.2 The Second Hypothesis

The second hypothesis stated that the moderating variables will influence the perception of a positive climate for diversity and moderate the outcome variables. It was found that there was a relationship between the moderating variables and perceptions of both the policy support scale and the equity recognition scale; that is, the climate for diversity policies and procedures in the organisation. However, some of the moderating variables had an influence on particular climate for diversity variables, whereas others did not; these are discussed below.

Analysis of Variance showed that gender predicted childcare provided, mentoring and need for diversity. Managerial level predicted career breaks.

Also, it was found that gender predicted whether individuals perceived a mentoring system in the organisation. Managerial level predicted the perception of flexible working hours. Managerial level also predicted career breaks. Both age and managerial level predicted whether individuals had seen a copy of the EO policy and organisational justice. Domestic care responsibilities predicted childcare provided. Using regression analysis, it was found that gender predicted both support for diversity and need for diversity.

Using statistical analysis, it was found that the moderating variables did moderate the perception of the PCFD outcomes. However, individual prediction for each variable differed; these are discussed below.

Using analysis of variance, it was found that managerial level predicted the following outcome variables: career commitment, career future satisfaction, job satisfaction, career planning, career satisfaction, organisational commitment and organisational justice.

Regression analysis was conducted on the independent variables and the outcomes of PCFD. Flexible working hours predicted organisational commitment, job satisfaction, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction. EO policy seen predicted satisfaction with manager.

Both gender, management level and age appear to moderate the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, however, further research on the effects of other moderating variables on this relationship is needed.

Therefore it is possible to say that Hypothesis 2, that is, the moderating variables will influence the perception of a positive climate for diversity, the outcomes and

relationship between the independent and dependent variables, is supported and shown below:

i) Gender, managerial level and age are shown to have a moderate impact on the outcome variables (organisational commitment, job satisfaction, career planning, career commitment, satisfaction with supervisor, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction). The research has shown that diversity attitudes and perceptions vary with level and gender (t-test, ANOVA and regression analysis have shown this). For example, commitment, satisfaction, need for diversity, organisational justice and support for diversity are influenced by managerial level. Mentoring, childcare provided, need for diversity and support for diversity are influenced by gender.

ii) Regression analysis has shown that of one of the scales creating the PCFD variables, the policy support scale influences the following outcome variables: organisational commitment, satisfaction with manager, career satisfaction and career future satisfaction.

The equity recognition scale influences organisational commitment, job satisfaction and career future satisfaction.

6.4.2.1 Consideration of the Results

As can be seen from the above results, particular variables were shown to influence other variables in the PCFD model, and both organisations and HR practitioners need to be aware of these relationships. Gender and managerial level influence both the PCFD indicator variables and also the outcome variables. For example, the fact that an organisation had an equal opportunities policy seemed to be of little consequence; what seemed to matter more to individual managers was whether they had seen a copy

of it or not (in this research, that is taken to mean read). Seeing the policy was influenced by age and managerial level. Whether managers had seen a copy of the EO policy in turn influenced whether they were satisfied with their manager.

The individual variables were combined into scales in order to assess their overall influence. Therefore, three scales were created. Firstly, the individual characteristics scale took all individual characteristics and related them to the PCFD variables. The other two scales were created from the PCFD variables; firstly, the policy support scale and secondly, the equity recognition scale (consisting of need for diversity, support for diversity and organisational justice). These scales showed different degrees of influence on the outcome variables.

The importance of human resource diversity with organisations will continue to grow. It is hoped that this study may aid understanding of it, and the benefits it can bring.

6.5 Recommendations

Based on this research, the following seven recommendations are presented for managers and organisations.

6.5.1 Value Diversity

This recommendation is that organisations fully recognise the importance of diversity in their organisations and the wider community. That is, they become aware of the benefits diversity brings. This research suggests that many organisations still view diversity from an equal opportunities perspective; that is that, it costs money to introduce different policies and procedures, and there are few financial benefits to be gained from them. The change in viewpoint to one of managing diversity is hard to bring about, unless top management are made aware of the business case and the

advantages of having a positive climate for diversity. Research such as this may hopefully inform some organisations of the merits of the MD business case. The reports which were sent to the organisations participating in this research are a possible starting point for dissemination to top management and to HR practitioners the benefits of diversity.

6.5.2 Show Commitment

Related to the first recommendation is the issue of management commitment. Unless top management is committed to creating as positive a climate for diversity as possible and managing diversity effectively, organisations will continue to struggle with the issue of diversity and not fully appreciate the benefits that such richness of variety can bring.

6.5.3 Monitor

It is recommended that organisations should monitor the following; ethnicity, gender, disability, work hours and age of individuals in management and at all levels in the organisation. It is suggested that organisations monitor each department, job type and managerial level if possible. They should ensure that they are able to know easily for example, how many female junior managers work in a particular department. This would enable organisations to more fully understand the position they are in with regard to diversity in the organisation as a whole, and the position at different managerial levels. This would help remove any 'head in the sand' attitude that top management may have with regard to diversity and opportunities in their organisation. They would therefore not be able to assume that there were adequate opportunities and

a good demographic mix in management, if such monitoring showed this not to be the case. The Chief Executive of Trust 1 appeared to be in this position, as she assumed that having a female Chief Executive meant the organisation was one in which a PCFD was present. Top management in organisations would also be able to consider the demographic mix in different departments, and in particular consider if some had many more women than men as managers and vice versa. This should help ensure that particular types of people are not ghettoised in some sections or departments. Full monitoring of all departments would also mean that organisations could not claim that they employed a particular group of ethnic minorities, for example, and therefore would not have to improve the demographic mix in the organisation. They would be aware of any departmental or managerial level glass ceilings or walls in the organisation.

So in summary, it is recommended, based on this research, that the organisations make sure by monitoring that they have as full a picture as possible concerning the demographic make up of their organisation.

6.5.4 Assess Management Perceptions

Recommendation four concerns the management staff themselves. A fuller survey should be conducted on the views of a more representative managerial sample so as to canvass their opinions on diversity initiatives. This research set out to test hypotheses concerning the PCFD model, to see if a PCFD did in fact relate to positive outcomes in the organisation. It has established a link between a PCFD and these outcomes. It was also concerned with individual managers' views on diversity policies and procedures. This element of the research should be extended to a more representative

sample of managers, and an investigation into their views on such policies and the advantages and disadvantages of them should be considered. In addition, a consideration of what working practices managers would like to see in place and why (with what they see as the advantages to them and others, as well as the possible problems) should be carried out.

6.5.5 Evaluate Policies and Procedures

If an organisation wishes to create a PCFD and help realise its potential positive outcomes, it should consider the actions and policies affecting for example, the make up of the management in the organisation and all the policies and procedures currently in place.

6.5.6 Support Diversity Through Policies

Support for diversity through policies is an important area that needs to be considered by organisations, if they wish to make the most of the individual managers in their organisation. For example, this research has shown the importance to male managers of mentoring, organisations should ensure that all managers have access so such support mechanisms.

6.5.7 Practice Organisational Justice

Generating a sense of organisational justice in policies and procedures e.g. outcomes and procedures, especially appeals, fairness, job relevance, inter-personal treatment and two way communication are important, so that individuals feel that the organisation is informing them of its policies and procedures and everyone has a level

playing field. Therefore, it is important, for example, that individuals feel that all organisational members live by the same rules, and that these rules are communicated to all. This would for example, stop situations where one individual knew about the organisation's policies on career breaks and chose to take one, where as other individuals in different parts of the organisation had no knowledge of such options being available, or heard about them much later when it may have been 'too late' for them to take advantage of them. This situation appears to lead to discontentment amongst staff and a general feeling of 'it not being fair' which in means that individual perceive the organisation as being low in terms of organisational justice.

6.6 Recommendations for Future Research

The qualitative data has identified previously unrecognised factors which, in this research, appear to have an influence on climate for diversity. For example, whether individuals felt included in the organisation, appeared to be important. These factors or variables can be tentatively included or placed in a revised PCFD model (see Fig 69). Further, the demographic mix of men and women in organisations needs to be more completely studied. Kossek and Zonia (1994) examine this area in their research, stating how important such a mix is. This factor was originally identified in the PCFD model as an important factor in creating such a climate. However, due to organisational constraints (discussed in the Methodology Chapter) it was not possible to identify the demographic mix in the departments of sample organisations. From the interview data gathered, demographic mix appears to be an important factor in the climate of the organisation, both at departmental level and indeed at board level. It

has been discussed earlier that top management commitment to diversity and diversity initiatives is very important in creating a positive climate for diversity. It appears that too many men at board level, and too many women at department managerial level, have a negative impact on staff, their awareness of a positive climate, and indeed their morale. Morale of course is an important issue which this research has identified as in need of further study.

Another factor to come out of the interview research is the issue of mobility. The RC branches insisted on full mobility for their managers for at least the first 5 years. If a manager was to be successful and reach a senior management position, it was accepted by staff that s/he would have to move around the whole country. Relating to this mobility issue was the company rule which meant trainee managers were not able to buy houses for the first 5 years of their employment; again, this was to enable full mobility. This rule, which staff had to sign-up to in their contracts, appeared to have a great effect on women who wished to have families. Basically, it limited them enormously. Moreover, the issue of dual-career couples was also highlighted by this practice. Generally speaking, in both the RC and Trusts, women tended to put their career second to their partners. This was not the case with one male respondent in one of the trusts. Therefore, their mobility was again limited, even if they did not have family responsibilities in the form of children or relatives to take care of. In the Trusts, most respondents talked of how they had had to be mobile in order to progress in their career. Again, it was the male respondents who said they would now move if necessary. Women respondents and male respondents' partners had put their careers more often on hold, and would move if their male partners 'needed' to in order for their careers to progress. Women were the ones sacrificing their career chances with

this decision. So mobility is another area that could well be addressed by future research on the subject of PCFD, as could the influence on women and men of dual-career partners and domestic responsibilities.

The qualitative research was a very interesting part of the overall research, not least in the fact that it identified other areas of interest relating to diversity which would not have been found had only quantitative research been conducted. The interviews found that other factors in the environment did have a large impact on the attitudes and perceptions of managers at all levels: junior, middle and senior. This information will hopefully stimulate further research in diversity and its impact on the working environment.

6.6.1 Creating a Model for Future Research

The following model (Fig. 69) identifies relationships which have not yet been fully explored, but may well have positive outcomes for individuals and organisations. These have been identified via the qualitative research, that is the interviews. These relationships could be tested via quantitative methods in future research and also through qualitative methods. Discussion of possible moderating variables is presented first, before discussion of possible independent and dependent variables.

With regard to the questions used on the questionnaire, it is now felt that it would have been useful to have included one on organisational tenure, as Howe (1977) argues for its importance in organisational climate. Tenure may be included in future research.

Another area which could have been added is that of job function, which Cox (1993) includes in his IMCD model. Although the research was not primarily interested in this, perhaps future research may consider function as one of the moderating variables, together with gender and managerial level. However, there is a potential problem with including function; respondents may not have been as willing to complete questionnaires if they felt that they may be able to be identified through divulging their job function. Also, future research could consider the relationship between the different outcome variables and the different indicator variables. The management style of the individual respondent and its 'fit' with the organisational environment, appeared to be an important moderating factor shown by the interviews. Mobility, as shown in particular by the interviews, is another area of potential importance. This often linked with the issue of dual career families and individuals responsibilities within them.

In terms of the independent variables, a number of areas were identified, in particular during the interviews, as potentially important in creating a PCFD. These were the availability of paternity leave, which was seen as of increasing importance to both male and female respondents. Communication of PCFD type policies in the organisation also appeared to be important. Linked with this was support of individuals who choose to make use of the opportunities provided by the policies. This area appears to be of great importance and is supported by the work of Procter and Padfield (1999) who assert that women did not wish to choose between having a career or a family, but wanted both.

Morale of the organisation or indeed the individual department if the organisation was a large or multi-sited one, appeared to be very important. Therefore, this should be an area included in future research. Kettley (1995) defines morale within organisations as relating to the following; an individual's job, the group one works with, the organisational financial incentives and finally and particularly relevant to possible future research, the managerial practices.

Related to morale was the issue of the management style of superiors, and the accepted management style of the organisation as a whole. Moxnes and DeEilerston (1991) have argued that management style has an important part to play in organisational climate. Scase and Goff (1989) assert that women often feel the need to adopt a male management style in order to progress in the organisation. Therefore, both of the above areas need to be considered in future research.

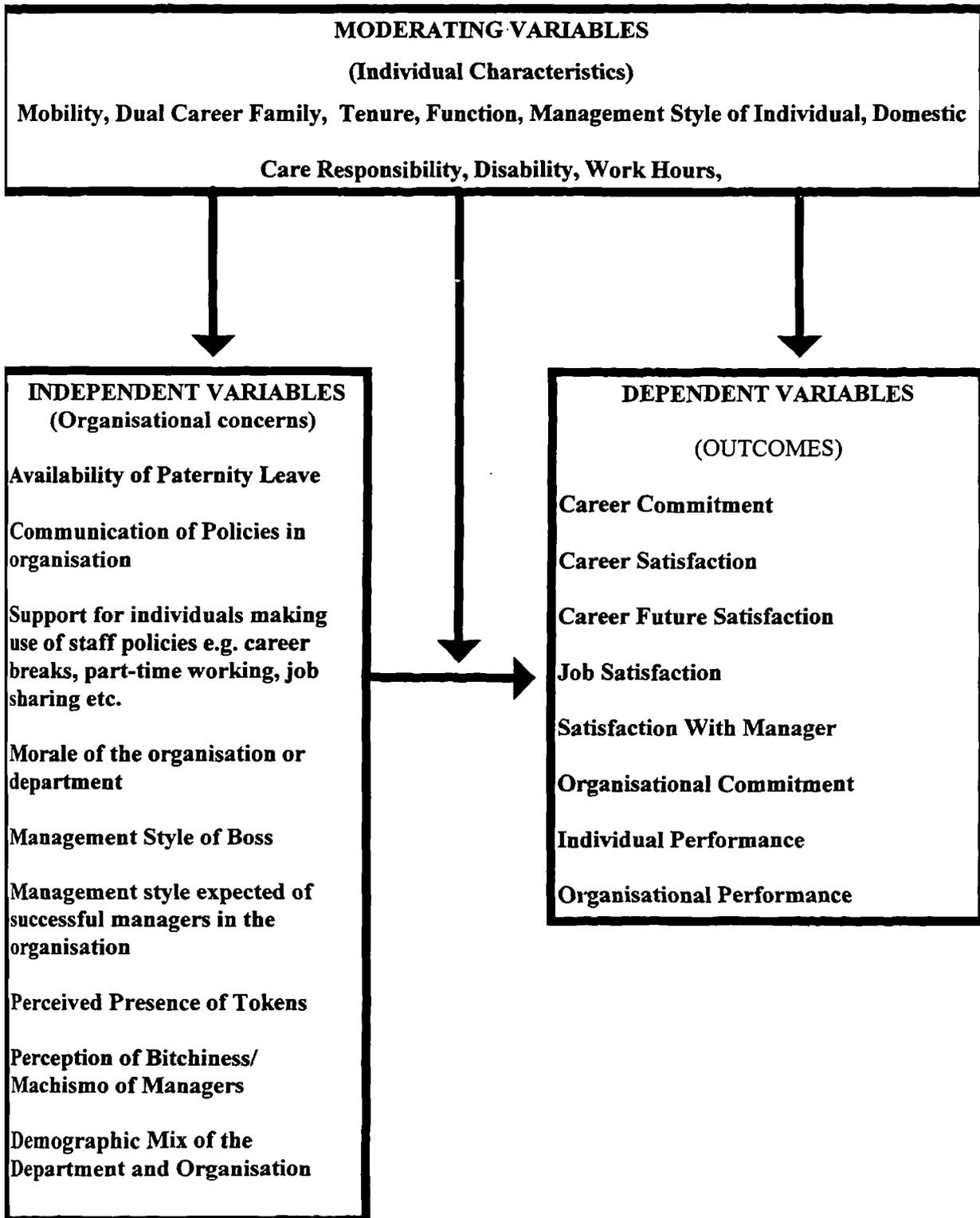
Other areas which may be important for future research include the perceived presence of a token. This came out in the interviews as important in relating to individual respondent's perception of a PCFD. Indeed, both Kanter (1977) and Simpson (2000) have argued for the important role that a token plays in an

organisation. Kanter argues that if women only represent 15% of the total number of employees in a particular position (i.e. at management level in an organisation) then they are a token.

Other areas of potential for future research also include the perception of 'bitchiness' or 'machismo' in the organisation, as this appeared to again influence perceptions of PCFD in the organisation. With regard to 'machismo', Simpson (2000) found a similar result in her research on gender imbalance in organisations; that is, that women often felt that management largely dominated by males tended to show this characteristic. Finally, some consideration of the demographic mix of the whole organisation should be included as previously discussed, in particular as the work of Kossek and Zonia (1995) shows its importance.

Further research should also explore the impacts of a PCFD on individual behaviour and organisational performance as well as on individual attitudes and perceptions, which are the focus of this research.

Figure 70 Proposed Future Research Model Based on Interview Analysis



The importance of human resource diversity within organisations will continue to grow, as the literature review has made clear. It is hoped that this study may begin to aid understanding of it and the issues it raises for organisations and individuals. In particular, it gives a clearer understanding of what might constitute a positive climate for diversity and its impacts on individual attitudes, perceptions and behaviours. It also gives and a better appreciation of organisational policies and procedures to adopt in creating and maintaining a positive climate for diversity.

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Appendix A

Opportunities at Work

What are your views?

**Deborah Hicks-Clarke
The Centre For HRD
Liverpool Business School
Liverpool John Moores University
January 1996**

CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information given below will be treated in the strictest confidence

Instructions for completing the questionnaire
--

Thank you for helping in this research, which is aimed at increasing our understanding of managers views on opportunities, in relation to themselves and others in their organisation.

The questionnaire is divided into **SIX** main sections:-

Section 1. Benefits and policies in your organisation.

Section 2. Your opinions regarding your organisation using a 7 point scale.

Section 3. Your career plans using a 6 point scale.

Section 4. Your opinion on your organisation and your career using a 5 point scale.

Section 5. Comparing different people's opportunities in your organisation using a 3 point scale.

Section 6. Questions about yourself.

**PLEASE TAKE THE TERM 'ORGANISATION' TO MEAN THE UNIT, IN WHICH
YOU ARE WORKING.**

Any information given here will be treated as confidential

This questionnaire should not take more then 15 minutes to complete.

**Please return the completed questionnaire in the stamped addresses envelope
provided**

ANY INFORMATION ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WILL BE TREATED AS STRICTLY
CONFIDENTIAL

Section One

1. Does this organisation have an Equal Opportunities Policy

Yes ₁ No ₂ (*go to question 3*) Don't Know ₃ (*go to question 3*)

2. Have you seen a copy of the Equal Opportunities Policy?

Yes ₁ No ₂ Don't Know ₃

3. Does your organisation have a mentoring system in practice?

(e.g. senior colleague either in the organisation or outside it who gives guidance and advise to junior member of staff on how to do their job effectively).

Yes ₁ No ₂ Don't Know ₃

4. Does this organisation provide flexi-time agreements for staff (e.g. an agreement whereby staff can arrange the hours they work, so long as they are in work for a 'core period' defined by the organisation and make up the hours).

Yes ₁ No ₂ Don't Know ₃

5. Does your organisation provide child care facilities, i.e. a crèche, nursery or out of hours group for staff's children or holiday play scheme, at work?

Yes ₁ No ₂ Don't Know ₃

6. Does your organisation provide child care vouchers to help employees toward the cost of child care?

Yes ₁ No ₂ Don't Know ₃

7. Does your organisation provide career breaks (i.e. opportunities for people to take time off work, usually unpaid in order to raise children or take further qualifications, and be able to come back to their old job or a job of a similar grade)?

Yes 1

No 2

Don't Know 3

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Section Two

These questions are designed to gauge your opinion. Please circle the number which corresponds most closely with your own opinion.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very						very
strongly	strongly	disagree	neither	agree	strongly	strongly
disagree	disagree		nor disagree			agree

1. I am quite proud to tell people who it is I work for.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. I'm not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Even if the organisation were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. I feel myself to be a part of the organisation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. In my work I like to feel I am making some effort not just for myself but for the organisation as well

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. I would not recommend to a close friend that they join our staff

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Please circle the number which corresponds most closely with your own opinion.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very						very
strongly	strongly	disagree	neither agree	agree	strongly	strongly
disagree	disagree		nor disagree			agree

9. To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of the organisation would please me

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. In general, I don't like my job.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. In general, I like working here.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. In general, my job is stressful

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. In general, my job is stimulating

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. I receive all the training I require to do my job effectively

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. My current boss performs his or her job well

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. I am happy with the way my current boss manages me

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Please circle the number which corresponds most closely with your own opinion.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very						very
strongly	strongly	disagree	neither agree	agree	strongly	strongly
disagree	disagree		nor disagree			agree

18. I feel very happy about my future with this organisation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. The way my future with the organisation looks to me now, hard work does not seem very worthwhile

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. I feel I'm making progress in getting ahead in this organisation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. I have achieved a lot for myself in this organisation so far

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. Working in this organisation is helpful to my career

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

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Section Three

Please note that the scale now changes to 6 points:-

Please circle the number which corresponds most closely with your own opinion.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very					very
strongly	strongly	disagree	agree	strongly	strongly
disagree	disagree			agree	agree

1. I have not really decided what my career objectives should be yet

1 2 3 4 5 6

2. I have a plan for my career

1 2 3 4 5 6

3. I have a strategy for achieving my career goals

1 2 3 4 5 6

4. I know what I need to do to reach my career goals

1 2 3 4 5 6

5. My career objectives are not clear

1 2 3 4 5 6

6. I change my career objectives frequently

1 2 3 4 5 6

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Section Four

Please note the scale has changes to 5 points:-

Please circle the number which corresponds most closely with your own opinion.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither agree nor disagree	agree	strongly agree

1. Getting on this organisation is based on how well you can perform in the job

1 2 3 4 5

2. This organisation appraises job performance in a consistent manner

1 2 3 4 5

3. This organisation provides timely and informative feedback on pay, performance and promotion decisions.

1 2 3 4 5

4. This organisation is open and honest about the decision it takes regarding employees

1 2 3 4 5

5. Employees are treated with courtesy and respect in this organisation

1 2 3 4 5

6. Two way communication between employees and the organisation is a characteristic of this organisation

1 2 3 4 5

7. Employees are given opportunities to challenge and review decisions taken about them in this organisation

1 2 3 4 5

8. The procedures used in this organisation are helpful to all employees

1 2 3 4 5

Please circle the number which corresponds most closely with your own opinion.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither agree nor disagree	agree	strongly agree

9. If I could get another job in an area outside my career field and paying the same amount, I would probably take it

1 2 3 4 5

10. I definitely want a career for myself in this field

1 2 3 4 5

11. If I could do it all over again I would not choose to work in this field

1 2 3 4 5

12. If I had all the money I needed without working, I would probably still continue to work in this field

1 2 3 4 5

13. I like this career too much to give it up

1 2 3 4 5

14. This is the ideal career for a life's work

1 2 3 4 5

15. I am disappointed that I ever entered this field

1 2 3 4 5

16. I spend a significant amount of personal time reading career-related journals or books

1 2 3 4 5

17. If this organisation is to remain a high performance organisation, it must recruit and retain more ethnic minority employees.

1 2 3 4 5

Please circle the number which corresponds most closely with your own opinion.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither agree nor disagree	agree	strongly agree

18. If this organisation is to remain a high performance organisation, it must recruit and retain more women employees.

1 2 3 4 5

19. If this organisation is to remain a high performance organisation, it must recruit and retain more employees with disabilities.

1 2 3 4 5

20. Increasing the number of women in the organisation is important if the organisation is to promote greater understanding and co-operation between men and women.

1 2 3 4 5

21. Increasing the number of ethnic minority employees is an important way to achieve multi-cultural understanding and co-operation.

1 2 3 4 5

000000

Section Five

In the following questions the scale changes from 5 points to 3 points:-

1	2	3
less	the	a
chance	same	better
	chance	chance

Please complete the sentence by circling the most appropriate number

- | | Less chance | Same chance | Better chance |
|--|-------------|-------------|---------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 1. Compared to men, women have _____ of receiving management support to help them perform their job effectively. | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2. Compared to non-ethnic minority employees, ethnic minority employees have _____ of reaching management positions, in this organisation | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3. Compared to non-ethnic minority employees, ethnic minority employees have _____ of receiving salary increases through performance bonuses | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4. Compared to male employees, women have _____ of reaching management positions in this organisation | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5. Compared to male employees, women have _____ of receiving salary increases through performance bonuses | 1 | 2 | 3 |

----- 000000 -----

Section Six

This section is designed to find out more about you. All information will be treated as **confidential**.

Please tick the relevant box.

1. Are you male ₁ or female ₂

2. How old are you?

Under 21 ₁ 21-30 ₂ 31-40 ₃ 41-50 ₄ 51-60 ₅ Over
60 ₆

3. Which of these categories best describes your ethnicity:-

White ₁ Black:-Caribbean ₂ Black:-African ₃ Black:-Other ₄
Indian ₅ Pakistani ₆ Bangladeshi ₇ Chinese ₈ Other (*please
specify*) _____ ₉

4. Are you married or living with a partner?

Yes ₁ No ₂

5. Do you have any childcare or other domestic care responsibilities?

Yes ₁ No ₂

6. Are you:-

Not disabled ₁ Registered disabled ₂ Disabled but not registered ₃

7. At which level of management would you describe yourself?

Junior (managing other staff) 1 Middle (managing other managers) 2 Senior 3 (reporting to the board)

8. Do you work Full-time in your current job?

Yes 1 No 2

----- 000000 -----

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

**ALL INFORMATION WILL BE TREATED AS CONFIDENTIAL:
NO ONE INDIVIDUAL WILL BE IDENTIFIABLE**

WHAT TO DO ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Please return the questionnaire to me in the enclosed freepost envelope.

Appendix B

This appendix shows the correlation coefficients for the PCFD model variables as detailed in Chapter 4, Questionnaire Results. Those scores which were significant are marked with an *. The sample size for each calculation is shown in brackets.

Table I Pearson's Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Satisfaction with Manager	Career Commitment	Career Future Satisfaction	Career Planning	Career Satisfaction	Career Breaks
Satisfaction with Manager	1.0000 P= . (271)	.2302 P= .000* (263)	.5490 P= .000* (268)	.1745 P= .004* (270)	.3203 P= .000* (271)	-.0548 P= .370 (270)
Career Commitment	.2282 P= .000* (263)	1.0000 P= . (265)	.3322 P= .000* (263)	.3425 P= .000* (264)	.3364 P= .000* (265)	.0139 P= .822 (264)
Career Future Satisfaction	.5490 P= .000* (268)	.3130 P= .000* (263)	1.0000 P= . (270)	.3928 P= .000* (269)	.6025 P= .000* (270)	-.1325 P=.030 *(269)
Career Planning	.1323 P= .030* (270)	.3425 P= .000* (264)	.2262 P= .000* (269)	1.000 P= . (272)	.1869 P= .002* (272)	-.0646 P= .289 (271)
Career Satisfaction	.3203 P= .000* (271)	.3305 P= .000* (265)	.6025 P= .000* (270)	.2497 P= .000* (272)	1.0000 P= . (272)	-.1164 P= .055 (272)
Career Breaks	-.0549 P= .370 (270)	-.0059 P= .926 (264)	-.1325 P= .030* (269)	-.1107 P= .069 (271)	-.1164 P= .055 (272)	1.0000 P= . (272)
Childcare Provided	-.0356 P= .560 (270)	-.0085 P= .894 (264)	.0276 P= .652 (269)	.0487 P= .425 (271)	-.0393 P= .519 (272)	.0507 P= .406 (271)
Equal Opps Policy	-.1144 P= .060 (271)	-.0149 P= .809 (265)	-.0364 P= .551 (270)	-.0515 P= .398 (272)	-.0314 P= .606 (272)	0.3120 P=.000 *(272)
Equal Opps Copy	-.1856 P= .003* (263)	-.1364 P= .029* (257)	-.0543 P= .381 (262)	-.0869 P= .159 (264)	-.0563 P= .361 (265)	.2910 P=.000* (265)
Flexible Working Hours	-.1946 P= .001* (268)	-.0699 P= .259 (262)	-.1727 P= .005* (267)	-.1026 P= .093 (269)	-.1849 P= .002* (270)	.2027 P=.001* (269)
Job Satisfaction	.4550 P= .000* (270)	.4294 P= .000* (264)	.6675 P= .000* (269)	.3101 P= .000* (271)	.5036 P= .000* (272)	-.0784 P= .198 (271)

Table I (continued). Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Satisfaction with Manager	Career Commitment	Career Future Satisfaction	Career Planning	Career Satisfaction	Career Breaks
Diversity Needed	.0378 P= .549 (253)	.2221 P= .000* (250)	-.0687 P= .278 (251)	.0438 P= .488 (253)	.0356 P= .572 (254)	-.1106 P= .079 (253)
Support for Diversity	.1842 P= .002* (269)	.0060 P= .925 (263)	.1199 P= .050* (268)	.0434 P= .478 (270)	.0972 P= .110 (271)	-.0030 P= .960 (270)
Mentoring System	-.0819 P= .179 (271)	-.0342 P= .592 (265)	-.0924 P= .130 (270)	-.1146 P= .059 (272)	-.1152 P= .057 (273)	.1743 P= .004* (272)
Organisation Commitment	.4755 P= .000* (269)	.3665 P= .000* (264)	.6817 P= .000* (268)	.2654 P= .000* (270)	.5590 P= .000* (271)	-.0884 P= .147 (270)
Organisation Justice	.4637 P= .000* (265)	.3391 P= .000* (261)	.5843 P= .000* (264)	.1867 P= .002* (266)	.4240 P= .000* (267)	-.0743 P= .226 (267)
Gender	-.0242 P= .693 (267)	.0784 P= .223 (261)	-.0932 P= .130 (266)	-.0143 P= .816 (268)	-.0718 P= .240 (269)	-.0387 P= .528 (268)
Age	.1575 P= .010* (266)	.0420 P= .501 (260)	.0356 P= .564 (265)	.1078 P= .079 (267)	-.0226 P= .713 (268)	-.0422 P= .492 (267)
Ethnicity	.0805 P= .187 (270)	-.0353 P= .568 (264)	.0313 P= .609 (269)	.0306 P= .616 (271)	.0288 P= .636 (272)	.0814 P= .181 (271)
Marital Status	.0789 P= .198 (268)	.0966 P= .118 (263)	.0244 P= .691 (267)	-.0178 P= .771 (269)	-.0152 P= .804 (270)	.0386 P= .528 (269)
Care Responsibility	-.0055 P= .928 (269)	-.0117 P= .850 (264)	-.0261 P= .671 (268)	-.0876 P= .151 (270)	-.0171 P= .779 (271)	-.0011 P= .985 (270)
Disability	.0667 P= .282 (262)	.0798 P= .203 (257)	.0116 P= .852 (262)	-.0056 P= .928 (263)	.0568 P= .358 (264)	.0822 P= .184 (263)
Managerial Level	.1014 P= .096 (270)	.1942 P= .002* (264)	.2633 P= .000* (269)	.1333 P= .028* (271)	.2653 P= .000* (272)	-.1371 P= .024* (271)
Working Hours (F/t P/t)	-.0810 P= .185 (269)	-.1446 P= .023* (263)	-.0841 P= .170 (268)	-.0717 P= .240 (270)	-.0493 P= .419 (271)	.0213 P= .728 (270)
Vouchers	.0270 P= .658 (271)	.0119 P= .847 (265)	-.0344 P= .574 (270)	-.0986 P= .105 (272)	-.0455 P= .454 (272)	.2107 P= .000* (272)

Table II Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Childcare Provided	Seen Copy of EO Policy	Org Has EO Policy	Flexible Hours	Job Satisfaction	Diversity Needed
Satisfaction with Manager	-.0356 P= .560 (270)	-.1856 P= .003* (263)	-.1144 P= .060 (271)	-.1946 P= .001* (268)	.4550 P= .000* (270)	.0378 P= .549 (253)
Career Commitment	-.0034 P= .957 (264)	-.1888 P= .003* (257)	-.0149 P= .809 (265)	-.0699 P= .259 (262)	.4367 P= .000* (264)	.1125 P= .076 (250)
Career Future Satisfaction	.0276 P= .652 (269)	-.0543 P= .381 (262)	-.0364 P= .551 (270)	-.1727 P= .005* (267)	.6675 P= .000* (269)	-.0687 P= .278 (251)
Career Planning	.0126 P= .836 (271)	-.0802 P= .159 (264)	-.0515 P= .398 (272)	-.1026 P= .093 (269)	.1997 P= .001* (271)	.0438 P= .488 (253)
Career Satisfaction	-.0393 P= .519 (272)	-.0563 P= .361 (265)	-.0314 P= .606 (272)	-.1849 P= .002* (270)	.5036 P= .000* (272)	.0356 P= .572 (254)
Career Breaks Provided	.0507 P= .406 (271)	.2910 P= .000* (265)	.3120 P= .000* (272)	.2027 P= .001* (269)	-.0784 P= .198 (271)	-.1106 P= .079 (253)
Childcare Provided	1.0000 P= . (272)	.1868 P= .002* (264)	.3302 P= .000* (272)	.1667 P= .006* (269)	-.0092 P= .880 (271)	.0089 P= .888 (253)
Seen Copy of EO Policy	.1868 P= .002* (264)	1.0000 P= . (265)	.4932 P= .000* (265)	.2530 P= .000* (263)	-.0958 P= .121 (264)	-.2048 P= .001* (246)
Org has an EO Policy	.3302 P= .000* (272)	.4932 P= .000* (265)	1.0000 P= . (272)	.3109 P= .000* (270)	-.0404 P= .507 (272)	-.0463 P= .462 (254)
Flexible Hours	.1167 P= .006* (269)	.2530 P= .000* (263)	.3109 P= .000* (270)	1.0000 P= . (270)	-.1432 P= .019* (269)	-.0781 P= .217 (252)
Job Satisfaction	-.0092 P= .880 (271)	-.0958 P= .121 (264)	-.0404 P= .507 (272)	-.1432 P= .019* (269)	1.0000 P= . (272)	-.0340 P= .590 (253)
Need for Diversity	.0089 P= .888 (253)	-.2048 P= .001* (246)	-.0463 P= .462 (254)	-.0781 P= .217 (252)	-.0340 P= .590 (253)	1.0000 P= . (254)
Support for Diversity	.0564 P= .356 (270)	.0231 P= .709 (263)	-.0370 P= .544 (271)	-.0353 P= .565 (268)	.1174 P= .054 (270)	-.1550 P= .014* (253)
Mentoring System	.0805 P= .185 (272)	.1549 P= .012* (265)	.1320 P= .029* (272)	.0886 P= .146 (270)	-.0563 P= .355 (272)	-.0895 P= .155 (254)
Organisation Commitment	-.0874 P= .152 (270)	-.1052 P= .087 (263)	.0233 P= .703 (271)	-.1584 P= .009* (268)	.7584 P= .000* (270)	-.0346 P= .585 (252)
Organisation Justice	.0313 P= .832 (266)	-.1426 P= .021* (260)	-.0040 P= .949 (267)	-.0276 P= .655 (264)	.5816 P= .000* (266)	-.0774 P= .223 (250)

Table II (continued) Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Childcare Provided	Seen Copy of EO Policy	Org Has EO Policy	Flexible Hours	Job Satisfaction	Diversity Needed
Gender	-.1431 P= .019* (268)	-.0238. P= .702 (261)	-.0503 P= .411 (269)	-.0340 P= .581 (266)	-.0682 P= .266 (268)	.1790 P= .005* (250)
Age	.0163 P= .791 (2670)	-.1215 P= .050* (260)	-.0306 P= .618 (268)	-.0543 P= .379 (265)	.0677 P= .271 (267)	-.0131 P= .837 (249)
Ethnicity	.0089 P= .884 (271)	.0743 P= .229 (264)	-.0123 P= .839 (272)	.0292 P= .633 (269)	-.0241 P= .692 (271)	-.0389 P= .538 (253)
Marital Status	.0084 P= .891 (269)	-.0105 P= .866 (262)	-.0490 P= .423 (270)	.0305 P= .620 (267)	.0850 P= .164 (269)	.0532 P= .401 (251)
Care Responsibility	.1224 P= .044* (270)	.0260 P= .675 (263)	.0269 P= .660 (271)	.0689 P= .261 (268)	-.0171 P= .780 (270)	.0647 P= .306 (252)
Disability	-.0385 P= .534 (263)	-.0381 P= .544 (256)	-.0098 P= .874 (264)	.0136 P= .827 (261)	.0323 P= .602 (264)	.1145 P= .073 (246)
Managerial Level	-.0699 P= .252 (271)	-.1778 P= .004* (264)	.0017 P= .977 (272)	-.1788 P= .003* (269)	.2101 P= .000* (271)	.0784 P= .214 (253)
Work Hours (f/t or p/t)	-.0002 P= .997 (270)	.0668 P= .281 (263)	-.0227 P= .709 (271)	-.0182 P= .767 (268)	-.0479 P= .433 (270)	-.0582 P= .357 (252)
Childcare Vouchers	.1508 P= .013* (272)	.2531 P= .000* (265)	.4249 P= .000* (272)	.2844 P= .000* (270)	-.0136 P= .823 (272)	-.0083 P= .895 (254)

Table III Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Support for Minorities	Mentoring System	Organisational Commitment	Organisational Justice
Satisfaction with Manager	.1842 P= .002* (269)	-.0819 P= .179 (271)	.4755 P= .000* (269)	.4637 P= .000* (265)
Career Commitment	.0069 P= .911 (263)	-.0342 P= .592 (265)	.3845 P= .000* (264)	.3366 P= .000* (261)
Career Future Satisfaction	.1199 P= .050* (268)	-.0924 P= .130 (270)	.6817 P= .000* (268)	.5843 P= .000* (264)
Career Planning	.0434 P= .478 (270)	-.1177 P= .052 (272)	.2654 P= .000* (270)	.1867 P= .002* (266)
Career Satisfaction	.0972 P= .110 (271)	-.1152 P= .057 (272)	.5590 P= .000* (271)	.4240 P= .000* (267)
Career Breaks Provided	-.0030 P= .960 (270)	.1743 P= .004* (272)	-.0884 P= .147 (270)	-.0743 P= .226 (267)
Childcare Provided	.0564 P= .356 (270)	.0805 P= .185 (272)	-.0874 P= .152 (270)	.0131 P= .832 (266)
Seen EO Copy	.0231 P= .709 (263)	.1549 P= .012* (269)	-.1057 P= .087 (263)	-.1426 P= .021* (260)
Org has an EO Policy	-.0370 P= .544 (271)	.1320 P= .029 (272)	.0233 P= .703 (271)	-.0040 P= .949 (267)
Flexible Working Hours	-.0353 P= .565 (268)	.0886 P= .146 (270)	-.1584 P= .009* (268)	-.0276 P= .655 (264)
Job Satisfaction	.1174 P= .054 (270)	-.0563 P= .355 (272)	.7584 P= .000* (270)	.5816 P= .000* (266)
Need for Diversity	-.1550 P= .014* (253)	-.0895 P= .155 (254)	-.0346 P= .585 (252)	-.0774 P= .223 (250)
Support for Diversity	1.0000 P= . (271)	-.0304 P= .618 (271)	.0940 P= .124 (269)	.1375 P= .025* (265)
Mentoring System	-.0304 P= .618 (271)	1.0000 P= . (272)	-.0958 P= .116 (271)	-.1119 P= .068 (267)
Organisation Commitment	.0940 P= .124 (269)	-.0958 P= .116 (271)	1.0000 P= . (271)	.6306 P= .000* (265)

Table III (continued) Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Support for Diversity	for Mentoring System	Organisational Commitment	Organisational Justice
Organisational Justice	.1375 P= .025* (265)	-.1119 P= .068 (267)	.6306 P= .000* (265)	1.0000 P= (267)
Gender	-.1354 P= .027* (267)	-.2041 P= .001* (269)	-.0479 P= .436 (267)	-.0233 P= .706 (263)
Age	.0317 P= .607 (266)	-.0674 P= .271 (268)	.1427 P= .020* (266)	.1911 P= .002* (263)
Ethnicity	.0341 P= .577 (270)	.0411 P= .499 (272)	.0787 P= .197 (270)	.0111 P= .857 (266)
Marital Status	-.0259 P= .673 (268)	.0531 P= .385 (270)	.0595 P= .332 (268)	-.0069 P= .911 (264)
Care Responsibility	.0285 P= .641 (269)	-.0134 P= .827 (271)	.0073 P= .906 (269)	.0094 P= .878 (265)
Disability	.0112 P= .856 (262)	.0226 P= .715 (264)	-.0037 P= .953 (262)	-.0461 P= .461 (258)
Managerial Level	.0052 P= .933 (270)	-.0516 P= .396 (272)	.2668 P= .000* (270)	.2051 P= .001* (266)
Work Hours (F/t or P/t)	-.0179 P= .770 (269)	-.0124 P= .839 (271)	-.0436 P= .476 (269)	-.0128 P= .835 (265)
Childcare Vouchers	.0739 P= .225 (271)	.1560 P= .010* (272)	-.0262 P= .667 (271)	-.0098 P= .873 (267)

Table IV Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Marital Status	Care Responsibility	Disability
Satisfaction with Manager	-.0242 P= .693 (267)	.1575 P= .010* (266)	.0805 P= .187 (270)	.0789 P= .198 (268)	-.0055 P= .928 (269)	.0667 P= .282 (262)
Career Commitment	.0784 P= .223 (261)	.0420 P= .501 (260)	-.0353 P= .568 (264)	.0966 P= .118 (263)	-.0117 P= .850 (264)	.0798 P= .203 (257)
Career Future Satisfaction	-.0932 P= .130 (266)	.0356 P= .564 (265)	.0313 P= .609 (269)	.0244 P= .691 (267)	-.0261 P= .671 (268)	.0116 P= .852 (262)
Career Planning	-.0565 P= .357 (268)	.1078 P= .079 (267)	.0306 P= .616 (271)	-.0178 P= .771 (269)	-.0876 P= .151 (270)	-.0056 P= .928 (263)
Career Satisfaction	-.0718 P= .240 (269)	-.0226 P= .713 (268)	.0288 P= .636 (272)	-.0152 P= .804 (270)	-.0171 P= .779 (271)	.0568 P= .358 (264)
Career Breaks Provided	-.0387 P= .528 (268)	-.0422 P= .492 (267)	.0814 P= .181 (261)	.0386 P= .528 (269)	-.0011 P= .985 (270)	.0822 P= .184 (263)
Childcare Provided	-.1431 P= .019* (268)	.0163 P= .791 (267)	.0089 P= .884 (271)	.0084 P= .891 (269)	.1224 P= .044* (270)	-.0385 P= .534 (263)
Seen Copy of EO Policy	-.0238 P= .702 (261)	-.1215 P= .050* (260)	.0743 P= .229 (264)	-.0105 P= .866 (262)	.0260 P= .675 (263)	-.0381 P= .544 (256)
Org has EO Policy	-.0503 P= .411 (269)	-.0306 P= .618 (268)	-.0123 P= .839 (272)	-.0490 P= .423 (270)	.0269 P= .660 (271)	-.0098 P= .874 (264)
Flexible Working Hours	-.0340 P= .581 (266)	-.0543 P= .379 (265)	.0292 P= .633 (269)	.0305 P= .620 (267)	.0689 P= .261 (268)	.0136 P= .827 (261)
Job Satisfaction	-.0682 P= .266 (268)	.0677 P= .271 (267)	-.0241 P= .692 (271)	.0850 P= .164 (269)	-.0171 P= .780 (270)	.0323 P= .602 (264)
Need for Diversity	.1790 P= .005* (250)	-.0131 P= .837 (249)	-.0389 P= .538 (253)	.0532 P= .401 (251)	.0647 P= .306 (252)	.1145 P= .073 (246)
Support for Diversity	-.1354 P= .027* (267)	.0317 P= .607 (266)	.0341 P= .577 (270)	-.0259 P= .673 (268)	.0285 P= .641 (269)	.0112 P= .856 (262)
Mentoring System	-.2041 P= .001* (269)	-.0674 P= .271 (268)	.0411 P= .499 (272)	.0531 P= .385 (270)	-.0134 P= .827 (271)	.0226 P= .715 (264)
Organisational Commitment	-.0479 P= .436 (267)	.1427 P= .020* (266)	.0787 P= .197 (270)	.0595 P= .332 (268)	.0073 P= .906 (269)	-.0037 P= .953 (262)
Organisational Justice	-.0233 P= .706 (263)	.1911 P= .002* (269)	.0111 P= .857 (266)	-.0069 P= .911 (264)	.0094 P= .878 (265)	-.0461 P= .461 (258)

Table IV (continued) Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Marital Status	Care Responsibility	Disability
Gender	1.0000 P= . (269)	.0027 P= .965 (266)	-.1548 P= .011* (269)	-.0321. P= .601 (267)	.0229 P= .709 (268)	.0379 P= .542 (261)
Age	.0027 P= .965 (266)	1.0000 P= . (268)	.1112 P= .069 (268)	-1050. P= .088 (266)	-.0428 P= .486 (267)	-.0889 P= .152 (261)
Ethnicity	-.1548 P= .011* (269)	.1112 P= .069 (268)	1.0000 P= . (272)	-.0179 P= .770 (270)	-.0299 P= .625 (271)	-.0100 P= .872 (264)
Marital Status	-.0321 P= .601 (267)	-.1050 P= .088 (266)	-.0179 P= .770 (270)	1.0000 P= . (270)	.2924 P= .000* (270)	.1069 P= .084 (262)
Care Responsibility	.0229 P= .709 (268)	-.0428 P= .486 (267)	-.0299 P= .625 (271)	.2924 P= .000* (270)	1.0000 P= . (271)	.0729 P= .238 (263)
Disability	.0379 P= .542 (261)	-.0889 P= .152 (261)	-.0100 P= .872 (264)	.1069 P= .084 (262)	.0729 P= .238 (263)	1.0000 P= . (264)
Managerial Level	-.1244 P= .041* (269)	.1193 P= .051 (268)	.0064 P= .916 (272)	.0495 P= .418 (270)	-.1076 P= .077 (271)	-.0298 P= .629 (264)
Work Hours (F/t or P/t)	.1218 P= .046* (268)	-.0570 P= .352 (268)	-.0231 P= .705 (271)	-.1059 P= .083 (269)	-.0989 P= .105 (270)	-.0184 P= .767 (263)
Childcare Vouchers	-.1149 P= .060 (269)	-.0970 P= .113 (268)	-.0228 P= .708 (272)	.2107 P= .000* (270)	.2227 P= .000* (271)	-.0296 P= .632 (264)

Table V Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Managerial Level	Work Hours (F/t or P/t)	Childcare Vouchers Provided
Satisfaction with Manager	.1014 P= .096 (270)	-.0810 P= .185 (269)	.0270 P= .658 (271)
Career Commitment	.1942 P= .002* (264)	-.1446 P= .023* (263)	.0119 P= .847 (265)
Career Future Satisfaction	.2633 P= .000* (269)	-.0841 P= .170 (268)	-.0344 P= .574 (270)
Career Planning	.1544 P= .011* (271)	-.0820 P= .179 (270)	-.0986 P= .105 (272)
Career Satisfaction	.2653 P= .000* (272)	-.0493 P= .419 (271)	-.0455 P= .454 (272)
Career Breaks Provided	-.1371 P= .024* (271)	.0213 P= .728 (270)	.2107 P= .000* (272)
Childcare Provided	-.0699 P= .252 (271)	-.0002 P= .997 (270)	.1508 P= .013* (272)
Org has EO Policy	.0017 P= .977* (272)	-.0227 P= .709 (271)	.4249 P= .000 (272)
Seen Copy of EO Policy	-.1778 P= .004* (264)	.0668 P= .281 (263)	.2531 P= .000* (265)
Flexible Working Hours	-.1788 P= .003* (269)	-.0182 P= .767 (268)	.2844 P= .000* (270)
Job Satisfaction	.2101 P= .000* (271)	-.0479 P= .433 (270)	-.0136 P= .823 (272)

Table V (continued) Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Managerial Level	Work Hours (F/t or P/t)	Childcare Vouchers
Need for Diversity	.0784 P= .214 (253)	-.0582 P= .357 (252)	-.0083 P= .895 (254)
Support for Diversity	.0052 P= .933 (270)	-.0179 P= .770 (269)	.0739 P= .225 (271)
Mentoring System	-.0516 P= .396 (272)	-.0124 P= .839 (271)	.1560 P= .010* (272)
Organisational Commitment	.2668 P= .000* (270)	-.0436 P= .476 (269)	-.0262 P= .667 (271)
Organisational Justice	.2051 P= .001* (266)	-.0128 P= .835 (265)	-.0098 P= .873 (267)
Gender	-.1244 P= .041* (269)	.1218 P= .046* (268)	-.1149 P= .060 (269)
Age	.1193 P= .051 (268)	-.0570 P= .352 (268)	-.0970 P= .113 (268)
Ethnicity	.0064 P= .916 (272)	-.0231 P= .705 (271)	-.0228 P= .708 (272)
Marital Status	.0495 P= .418 (270)	-.1059 P= .083 (269)	.2107 P= .000* (270)
Care Responsibility	-.1076 P= .077 (271)	-.0989 P= .105 (270)	.2227 P= .000* (271)
Disability	-.0298 P= .629 (264)	-.0184 P= .767 (263)	-.0296 P= .632 (264)
Managerial Level	1.000 P= . (272)	-.0746 P= .221 (271)	-.0626 P= .304 (272)
Working Hours (F/t P/t)	-.0746 P= .221 (271)	1.0000 P= . (271)	-.0614 P= .314 (271)
Childcare Vouchers	-.0626 P= .304 (272)	-.0614 P= .314 (271)	1.0000 P= . (272)

Table VI Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Organisation justice	Support for Ethnic Minority	Support for Women	Gender	Management Level	Career future Satisfaction
Organisation Justice	1.000 P=. (267)	.2940 P=.000 (265)	.1128 P=.066 (266)	-.0233 P=.706 (263)	.2051 P=.001 (266)	.5843 P=.000 (264)
Support for Ethnic Minority	.2940 P=.000 (265)	1.000 P=. (271)	.1881 P=.002 (271)	.0192 P=.755 (267)	-.0349 P=.568 (270)	.1095 P=.073 (268)
Support for Women	.1128 P=.066 (266)	.1881 P=.002 (271)	1.000 P=. (272)	-.3324 P=.000 (268)	.0434 P=.476 (271)	.2310 P=.000 (269)
Gender	-.0233 P=.706 (263)	.0192 P=.755 (267)	-.3324 P=.000 (268)	1.000 P=. (269)	-.1244 P=.041 (269)	-.0932 P=.130 (266)
Management Level	.2051 P=.001 (266)	-.0349 P=.568 (270)	.0434 P=.476 (271)	-.1244 P=.041 (269)	1.000 P=. (272)	.2633 P=.000 (269)
Career future Satisfaction	.5843 P=.000 (264)	.1095 P=.073 (268)	.2310 P=.000 (269)	-.0932 P=.130 (266)	.2633 P=.000 (269)	1.000 P=. (270)
Need for Diversity	-.0774 P=.223 (250)	-.2691 P=.000 (253)	-.1934 P=.002 (244)	.1790 P=.005 (250)	.0784 P=.214 (253)	-.0687 P=.276 (251)
Satisfaction with Manager	.4637 P=.000 (265)	.1482 P=.015 (269)	.2084 P=.001 (270)	-.0242 P=.693 (267)	.1014 P=.096 (270)	.5490 P=.000 (268)

Table VI (continued) Correlation Coefficient Matrix of the Whole Management Sample

	Need for Diversity	Satisfaction with manager
Organisational Justice	-.0774 P=.223 (250)	.4637 P=.000 (265)
Support for Ethnic Minorities	-.2691 P=.000 (253)	.1482 P=.015 (269)
Support for Women	-.1934 P=.002 (254)	.2084 P=.001 (270)
Gender	.1790 P=.005 (250)	-.0242 P=.693 (2670)
Management Level	.0784 P=.214 (253)	.1014 P=.096 (270)
Career Future Satisfaction	-.0687 P=.0278 (251)	.5490 P=.000 (268)
Need for Diversity	1.000 P=, (254)	.0378 P=.549 (253)
Satisfaction with Manager	.378 P=.549 (253)	1.0000 P=, (271)