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**A Critical Examination of Enablers and
Constraints of Employee Involvement in a
Unionised Canadian Higher Education
Environment**

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**Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the
degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

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ABSTRACT

The overall purpose of this research is to study the factors that account for the success and failure of employee involvement initiatives with respect to unionised faculty in higher education institutions. Typically, research in High Involvement Work Systems (HIWS) has focused on manufacturing and nonacademic, nonunion service industries. The study sought to fill in the gap in the research on the prevalence of, and requirements for, successful implementation of employee involvement initiatives in unionised, higher education, academic environments. Unlike many existing studies on HIWS that have mainly focused on examining the central research question from either a management or a union perspective, this study examines the faculty perspective with a view to better understanding the factors that promote and constrain faculty's involvement in their jobs and in the broader organisation. The results could provide key input into policy decisions and into the design of practical interventions that could serve to promote the adoption of HIWS in higher education institutions. Accordingly, the central research question is "*What are the factors that account for the success and failure of employee involvement initiatives with respect to faculty in unionised organisations in higher education?*"

The study was conducted in a large community college in Toronto, Canada, among unionised faculty across a broad range of disciplines. For the purposes of this study, a synthesised employee involvement construct was developed from existing models and theories. This construct was the basis for the design of the initial interviews that formed the basis of the qualitative study portion of this research project as well as for the quantitative survey portion that followed up on the results of the initial interviews. In the qualitative study, a semi-structured interview questionnaire was developed and used to interview 22 faculty members across 6 major departments of the college who were selected by a purposive sampling technique. Data from the interviews were analysed using themes and content analysis and the results were then used to design a survey to explore in more depth the key themes that were identified. The survey comprised 54 questions divided into 8 sections. These questions served to provide a comprehensive understanding of participants' attitudes using a 5-point Likert scale. The data were analysed using SPSS, and descriptive


statistics, frequencies, and visual charts were produced to analyse each variable within the sample.

From a theory perspective, the results of the study support the current knowledge on the factors that promote and constrain employee involvement generally across a variety of organisations in keeping with current models of involvement, but also extend the literature by identifying additional factors that apply to white-collar, unionised, higher education institutions. These factors include the need for more intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards, the need for managers to use supportive rather than directive approaches to management, and the importance of using small team-based work groups for information-sharing and problem-solving. Key factors constraining faculty involvement include the existence of a collective agreement that limits faculty autonomy and top-down decision-making and communication channels used by management.

This study also has implications for practice regarding creating a high-involvement culture for faculty in higher education institutions. Key among these are ensuring that recruitment and selection procedures identify managers who have the requisite skills and personalities required for supportive management and training managers in the application of these management techniques. Developmental opportunities for faculty in higher education pursuits would serve to provide them with intrinsic rewards. In addition, such opportunities would fulfil the objectives of higher education institutions in upgrading the credentials and skills of their faculty to meet government requirements and the competitive challenges facing these organisations. Training for managers, faculty, and union stewards in change management processes is another key requirement for the successful implementation of employee involvement initiatives in the higher education environment.

Statement of Originality

This work has not previously been submitted for a degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.



Indira Somwaru

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GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Employee stock ownership plan (ESOP): A credit mechanism that enables employees to buy their employer's stock, thus giving them an ownership stake in the company.

Gainsharing: An incentive plan based on a formula whereby some portion of gains in productivity, quality, cost-effectiveness, or other performance indicators is shared with all employees in an organisation (such as a plant) in the form of bonuses. The basis of the payout is some set of local performance measures, not company profits.

High-involvement work system (HIWS): Management practices that give employees skills, information, autonomy, and accountability in doing their jobs.

Individual incentives: Bonuses or other financial compensation tied to short-term or long-term work group, permanent team, or temporary team performance.

Job enrichment: Design of work that is intended to increase worker performance and job satisfaction by increasing skill variety, autonomy, significance and identity of the task, and performance feedback.

Knowledge/skill-based pay: An alternative to traditional job-based pay that bases pay levels on how many skills employees have or how many jobs they potentially can do, not on the job they are currently holding.

Nonmonetary recognition awards: Any nonmonetary reward (including gifts, publicity, dinners, etc.) for individual and group performance.

Profit sharing: A bonus plan that shares some portion of company profits with employees. It does not include dividend sharing.

Quality circles: Structured employee participation groups in which groups of volunteers from particular work areas meet regularly to identify and suggest improvements for work-related problems. Goals are improved quality and productivity.

Quality of working life (QWL): Joint union-management committees, usually existing at multiple organisational levels, alongside the established union/management relationships

and collective bargaining committees. They are charged with directly addressing noncontractual issues such as changes that will improve both organisational performance and employee quality of working life.

Self-managing work team: An employee work group that is responsible for a whole product or service and makes decisions about task assignments and work methods, generally acting without a supervisor.

Source: E. Applebaum & Batt, 1994.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

There is no question that if there is a crisis in higher education in Canada it is in the quality of undergraduate teaching. Many universities – in response to cutbacks in funding, debt crises, and mounting costs – have grown their undergraduate enrollment rapidly and focused their resources on graduate programs and research. The funding model currently in place puts pressure on universities to grow class sizes, especially in undergraduate programs, which in turn dilutes the quality of faculty-student interactions both inside and outside the classroom. (Riddell, 2014)

As pinpointed in the quote above, Canadian higher education institutions are facing many financial and operational challenges that in turn are having a negative impact on the quality of teaching from both a resource perspective and a teaching perspective. One key aspect of this issue that receives little coverage is the impact on faculty, particularly with respect to maintaining and increasing faculty involvement in their jobs (Ramaley, 2014). Since the beginning of the 1990s, demographic, global, economic, political, technological, and societal forces have been creating the need for change in traditional approaches to both administration and teaching in higher education institutions. Higher education institutions in North America are now confronted with many environmental challenges that require them to move to more progressive, high-involvement approaches to managing employees (Manicas, 1998).

This thesis examines the nature, policies, and practices of employee involvement as it is practised in higher education institutions and describes how these institutions can more effectively apply the principles of employee involvement. Specifically, it examines the factors that account for the success or failure of employee involvement initiatives, focusing on unionised faculty in higher education institutions. A case study approach using a Canadian community college is the platform for conducting the research for this thesis.

1.1 Background and Context of the Research

In Canada, community colleges are government-regulated postsecondary institutions offering 1- to 2-year academic and pre-professional certificates and diplomas, 2-year associate's degrees, and even 3- and 4-year specialised bachelor's degrees. Approximately 900,000 full-time and 1.5 million part-time learners study at more than 150 community colleges, with over 900 campuses across Canada. There are 98 universities in Canada offering a broad range of undergraduate, graduate, and executive-level education and degrees.

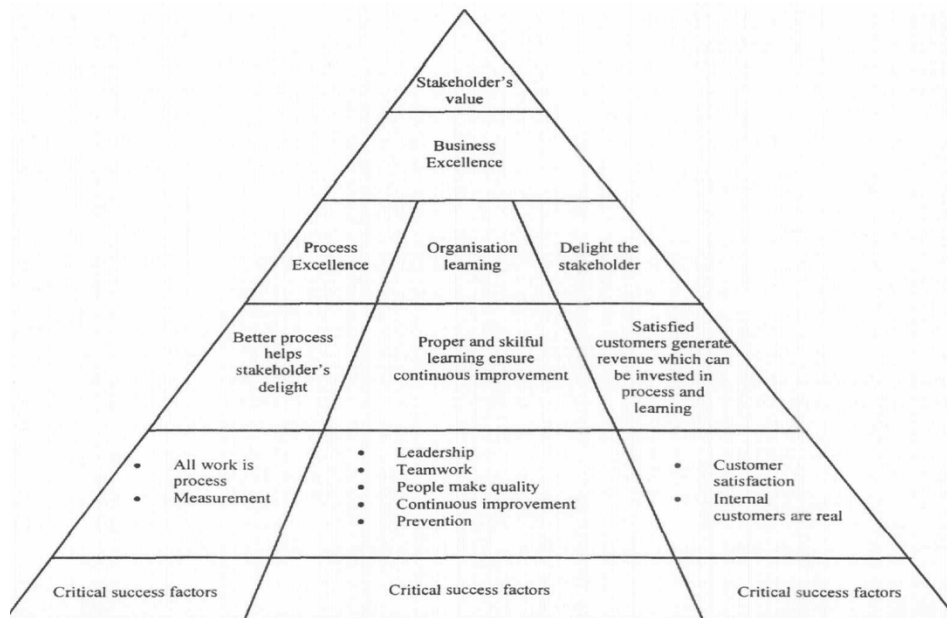
Historically, Canadian universities and colleges have focused on different streams of education. Universities focused on granting degrees with a strongly academic perspective while the colleges linked their curriculum to skills required by the workplace. More recently, colleges have also begun to offer degrees, and there is now less differentiation between universities and colleges with respect to student demographics, curriculum, and degrees granted. In fact, students at community colleges may along the way transfer credits and continue their education at university.

The increase in the number of aging baby boomers, along with a slowing birth rate, has influenced the demographics of Canadian higher education (CHE) students and faculty. More than one third of faculty was at least 55 years old in 2006. As the academic workforces in these higher educational institutions age, the need to invigorate employees to meet external challenges will become more pressing. Most significantly, the need for invigoration, particularly of long-term faculty, will be most challenging as the demographic challenge of retiring baby boomers collides with the shortage of new workforce entrants. Increasing global competition for the best and brightest faculty will increase the pressure to develop innovative attraction and retention strategies particularly in the areas of compensation and quality of working life (Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 2007).

Since the traditional supply of younger students has been decreasing owing to the declining birth rate, CHE institutions are actively recruiting international visa students and mature students seeking retraining for new careers. Non-traditional students create the requirement for CHE institutions to become more flexible and innovative in curriculum as well as instructional methods to accommodate the needs of the new clientele. Globalisation has created new sources of clientele for CHE institutions while at the same time widening the competitive arena. New technological platforms for delivery of education have facilitated both trends. Students who may have attended a local college in the past can now access desired programmes of study across Canada and internationally through the internet. Increasingly, U.S. and Canadian higher education institutions are moving in the direction of providing education for both regularly enrolled students and distance learners. The challenge for traditional institutions will be to offer students programmes and services they cannot get through a virtual university (Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, 2007).

There is a groundswell of opinion from various stakeholders that academia needs to adopt an entrepreneurial spirit to better prepare students for the business world. The implication of this paradigm shift is that the role of the professor must change from that of a conduit for information to that of a cognitive coach. The new model of education requires a higher degree of involvement and interaction between professor and students. Greater access to education both locally and internationally, along with rising costs of education, has intensified the demand by student stakeholders for quality education. The cost of higher education has shifted over time from government to students and their parents. The contribution of federal and provincial governments declined 24% between 1992 and 1998 while the contribution of tuition fees went up 67% (Cameron, 1999). Students today want a more job-focused education as well as a learning experience that is more personal and interactive with their professors. Kanji, Malek, and Tambi (1999) discuss the concept of students as both internal and external customers who perform many roles including buyers, users, and educational partners (see Figure 1). This model implies a significant impact of the student stakeholder group on higher education institutions.

Figure 1
Organisation's Scorecard



Source: Kanji, Malek, & Tambi (1999), p. 132.

Traditional higher education institutions will have to be agile and creative in what they offer students. No longer do students accept the idea of learning for its own sake, and many students are now vocationally oriented. Some argue that students are demanding and impatient, requiring faculty to teach from a more learner-centred perspective while utilising new teaching technologies to a much higher degree (Manicas, 1998).

1.2 Facing the Challenges: The Case for Greater Faculty Involvement

Key trends driving the need for culture change and increased faculty involvement in higher education institutions are the rising costs of education coupled with the demand by students for marketable skills, the increased use of technology-based delivery programmes, changing demographic patterns for both students and faculty, and increased pressure for performance and accountability from government. Higher education, like other service industries, now finds itself in a postindustrial environment characterised by increasing

competitiveness, turbulence and scarce resources. To deal with these challenges, human capital assets need to become more flexible, innovative, and involved. Greater faculty involvement is essential, as organisational outcomes are greatly affected by the cognitive patterns of faculty who perform with a high degree of autonomy in organisations where productivity, performance, and accountability pressures have traditionally been lower than in industry (Ortmann, 1997). The importance of faculty involvement in producing quality education was addressed by Adam Smith in *The Wealth of Nations* (1776/1976):

All that such superiors can force him to do is to attend upon his pupils a certain number of hours, that is, to give a certain number of lectures in the week or in the year. What those lectures shall be must still depend upon the diligence of the teacher; and that diligence is likely to be proportioned to the motives that he has for exerting it. An extraneous jurisdiction of this kind is liable to be exercised both ignorantly and capriciously. (p. 761)

Economic pressures are forcing CHE institutions to seek more cost-effective and innovative ways to manage the business of higher education. One strategy has been to apply quality improvement principles. Approximately 50% of North American universities have established quality councils to engineer quality improvement activities across the organisation. However, the challenges facing higher education institutions today require far more involvement and commitment in promoting innovation by faculty than the level fostered by traditional quality management programmes. A significant economic pressure on CHE institutions is the government quality rating system based on several key performance indicators that now determines the amount of funding annually that CHE institutions will receive. This rating system puts pressure on CHE institutions to engineer significant culture change that imbues a sense of commitment, initiative, flexibility, and entrepreneurship in its employees (Burkhalter, 1996).

In recent years there has been recognition that higher education institutions in North America need to become more flexible and responsive to their stakeholders. However, these organisations are still very slow in adopting innovations to meet the challenges of the

21st century (McRoy & Gibbs, 2009). Siegfried, Getz and Anderson (1995) provide reasons for why these organisations have traditionally been slow in responding to the challenges including the following:

- Each college or university may offer a unique advantage or specialised curriculum.
- The institution may have an assured local market for its services.
- Government provides a generous level of funding dictated by enrollment levels.
- Accountability and ready performance measures are lacking.

Large, unionised higher education institutions face a particular challenge in moving to a high-involvement culture. Their structures and policies work in contravention of the principles of empowering practices cited in the 1985 survey report of the American Management Association entitled *The Changing American Workplace: Work Alternatives in the 1980s* (Goodmeasure Inc., 1985; see also Menon, 2001). These principles that are the foundation for employee involvement cultures include flat organisational structures with autonomous work teams, flexible work arrangements, and participative management. Some higher education organisations have tinkered with implementing such employee involvement programmes such as self-directed faculty work teams, but these initiatives tend to be done sporadically without significant thought given to the broader organisational changes required to support these initiatives (Pil & McDuffie, 1996).

There is an extensive body of literature on employee involvement, particularly with respect to defining and creating high-involvement work systems, in nonunion and unionised organisations (E. Applebaum & Batt, 1994; Godard & Delaney, 2000; Huselid, 1995; Lawler, 1992; Luthans & Sommer, 2005; Ortmann, 1997; Verma & McKersie, 1987). Much of the research focuses on theoretical and practical approaches to promoting employee involvement, particularly within manufacturing and, to a lesser degree, service environments. There is general agreement among these scholars on the components of effective employee involvement programmes and the factors necessary for successful implementation of these programmes in these environments.

1.3 Researcher Expertise and Interest

I have a broad base of education and experience in management and human resources, both from theoretical and practical perspectives. My education credentials include a bachelor's degree in psychology, a teaching degree in elementary education, a master's degree in business administration, and a professional designation in the field of human resources management.

Until my mid-30s, I worked in human resources management positions in a variety of industries including health care, publishing, and real estate. After spending about 15 years in industry, I changed careers after receiving my MBA and became a full-time professor at a large community college that is the case study organisation. Concurrently, I also taught at a large university and taught a broad range of courses at both institutions in the fields of human resources management, general business and organisational behaviour.

Over the course of my employment in two large unionised bureaucracies in higher education, I observed that faculty engagement in their work and levels of organisational citizenship seemed to decline with longer tenure. I wondered about how these types of organisations could create and sustain higher levels of employee involvement and citizenship in their faculty workforce given that they have to operate within the restrictions created on management practices and policies by unions and more specifically by collective agreements.

After a number of years of teaching at both institutions, I then decided to pursue a doctoral degree in business as part of an ongoing career development plan and was granted a scholarship by Griffith University to explore the challenges of implementing employee involvement practices in higher education institutions.

1.4 Focus of this Study and Research Questions

The primary research question for this study is:

What are the factors that account for the success and/or failure of employee involvement initiatives with respect to faculty in unionised organisations in higher education?

The secondary research questions are the following:

1. What are employee perceptions of the benefits of a high-involvement organisation, for both faculty and the organisation?
2. Can high involvement and unionism coexist in the context of higher education?
3. Do individual differences in faculty demographics have an impact on faculty perceptions of the value of employee involvement and the desire to become more involved?

There has been relatively little research done on the subject of promoting a culture of faculty involvement in unionised higher education institutions. More specifically, in this context, little has been written about the factors that will promote or constrain a higher level of involvement in higher education faculty in order to effectively meet the various external challenges identified in this section. Building on the existing literature spanning four decades, this study examines the specific factors that promote or constrain higher education faculty involvement in their work and in broader organisational activities.

Another key aspect of the study examines whether the factors promoting and constraining the successful implementation of employee involvement initiatives differ significantly from those suggested in the literature for manufacturing and service environments given

the very different internal and external environments acting on these organisations. The review of the literature relating to research theories and models of employee involvement enabled the synthesis of a conceptual framework to be used in defining the concept of employee involvement. Much of the literature has examined success factors in implementing employee involvement programmes from union and management perspectives. This study will provide additional dimensions to the discussion in the literature through an examination of employee perceptions of the factors both promoting and constraining faculty.

Relatively little research has been done in this subject area. As a result, this study provides insights about the challenges facing unionised higher education institutions in general and, more specifically, strategies for increasing employee involvement in organisations similar to the case study organisation. The goal of the thesis is that the results may be ultimately used by management to promote higher levels of faculty involvement in their jobs and in the organisation.

1.5 Research Methodology

This study uses a qualitative exploratory approach followed by a quantitative study to explore the factors promoting and constraining faculty involvement within the context of a case study of a Canadian higher education organisation. This organisation is a large community college in Toronto, Ontario, where the researcher has been employed for many years. The research methodology follows a mixed-method approach, and specifically a sequential exploratory approach. This strategy involves a first phase of qualitative data collection using interviews, followed by a quantitative data collection phase using a survey. The purpose of this strategy is to use quantitative data and results to assist in the interpretation of initial qualitative findings in order to obtain more depth of information on themes initially identified in the qualitative study. It is also a useful strategy when the

researcher needs to develop an instrument because existing instruments are inadequate or not available (Babbie, 1990).

1.6 Outline of Thesis

Chapter 2 provides a broad and comprehensive review of the existing knowledge of the topic. Points of debate, ambiguity, and uncertainty in the literature are discussed. This chapter provides theoretical frameworks for discussing the findings and their implications in subsequent chapters.

Chapter 3 describes the methods by which data were gathered for the purpose of this study. Data analysis procedures as well as limitations of the study and ethical considerations are also reviewed.

Chapter 4 provides an introduction to the case study organisation, including its history and growth, union-management relations, and experience with employee involvement initiatives.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the qualitative study. New knowledge is described from the findings of the research. This knowledge is presented based on major themes.

Chapter 6 presents the results of the quantitative portion of the study including displays of the data and summaries of the findings.

Chapter 7 interprets the results of the qualitative and quantitative findings presented in Chapters 5 and 6.

Chapter 8 draws conclusions about the research questions. Implications for theory, policy, and practice are also discussed along with limitations of the study and implications for further research.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter provides the background and context for the purpose of the research study. Key points discussed revolve around the need for change in managing faculty in higher education institutions based on the economic, demographic, technological, and other pressures on these institutions. The next chapter provides a review of the literature in key areas of employee involvement that lead to identifying gaps which in turn lead to the development of the research questions for this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The factors that account for the success or failure of employee involvement initiatives with respect to faculty in unionised higher education institutions is the central question of this thesis study and pertains to the comprehensive development of high-involvement work systems in higher education institutions. The study aims to identify specific factors in the work environment that promote and constrain faculty involvement in the academic environment. The goal of the thesis is that the results may be ultimately used by management to promote higher levels of faculty involvement in their jobs and in the organisation.

This chapter identifies and reviews the conceptual, theoretical, and methodological dimensions of the literature in order to identify key gaps that will lead to formulation of the overarching research question and subquestions. It provides a review of the literature in six key topics in the area of employee involvement that will create a base for pursuing research activities relevant to answering the research question. The topic areas to be examined are as follows: (a) definition and scope of employee involvement; (b) rationale for adopting employee involvement programmes; (c) the union view of employee involvement programmes; (d) the role of commitment in the success of employee involvement initiatives; and (e) the role of the manager in promoting employee involvement

2.1 Definition and Scope of Employee Involvement Programmes

In the past two decades, a number of scholars have examined the link between innovative HR approaches and enhanced organisational productivity. These approaches have been variously called high-involvement (Lawler, 1992), high-commitment (Arthur, 1994), and high-performance (Huselid, 1995). The common theme in the literature is an emphasis on applying a system of management practices that gives employees skills, information, motivation, and latitude to do their jobs. The result is a workforce that is a source of

competitive advantage for the organisation. For the purposes of this thesis, the term *high-involvement* will be applied. Specifically, a *High-Involvement Work System* (HIWS) is considered to be the collective initiatives of the institution that positively correlate to fostering employee engagement, where engagement is presumed to be fuelled by such factors as power, information, knowledge, and rewards (Konrad, 2006). Research suggests that High-Involvement Work Systems, developed around these four factors, contribute to positive attitudes associated with employee involvement and that these practices can generate discretionary effort in employees, leading to improved organisational effectiveness (Guthrie, 2001).

Over the past decades many scholars have defined the concept of high involvement and identified strategies for generating high involvement among employees. Kahn (1990) identifies three psychological conditions that influence motivation and engagement in work: meaningfulness, safety, and availability. Meaningfulness involves employees feeling valued in their work contributions, and the inclusion of enjoyable work conditions such as variety and autonomy. Safety entails creating a work environment and management that create stability and clear consequences for employees. Availability includes the presence of physical resources for getting the work done as well as freedom from emotional distractions such as a stressful personal life that may detract from the employee fully investing emotionally in their work.

Lawler (1992) describes four interlocking principles for developing an HIWS. These principles are: (a) pushing down decision-making to employees at the front lines of the organisation; (b) providing employees with timely and relevant information concerning their work and the organisation; (c) providing employees with training and development to enhance their decision-making capabilities; and (d) rewarding employees for expending discretionary effort to enhance organisational performance.

Ackers, Marchington, Wilkinson, and Goodman (1992) provide a fourfold classification of what is included in employee involvement programmes. These are: downward communications including team briefings; upward problem-solving techniques such as

quality circles; financial rewards such as profit-sharing that is provided to employees; and representative participation of employees through joint consultation. Although participation in decision-making is often thought of as a dichotomy between involvement and noninvolvement of employees in making decisions, Dachler and Wilpert (1978) suggest that participation be seen as a continuum reflecting the degree of actual decision-making and amount of influence that employees can exercise in a given decision outcome.

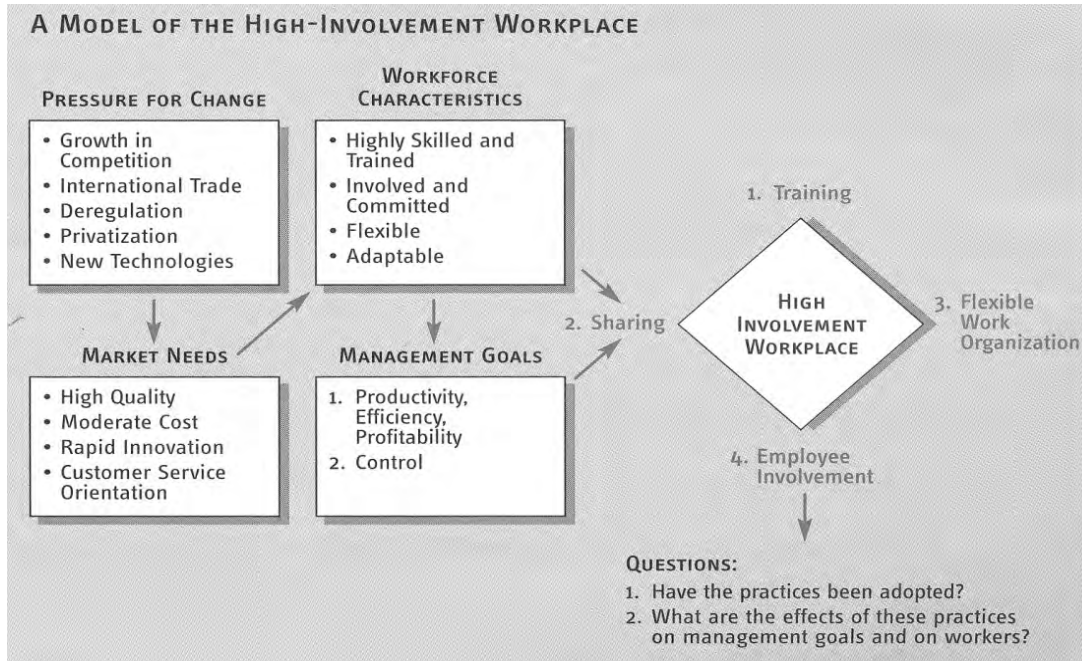
A key feature of an HIWS is the amount of flexibility afforded to the employee in how work is organised and performed. Flexibility becomes evident when the organisational structure moves away from a traditional hierarchy that is restricted by narrowly defined jobs to a more lateral composition promoting interactive networks of intellect and expertise. More evident is employee input on decisions formerly made by management, coordination of work across departments, and worker involvement in quality at all levels and stages of the work process (Gittleman, Horrigan, & Joyce, 1998). These characteristics of the HIWS serve to create employee psychological empowerment with respect to their work.

Spreitzer (1996) was the first to develop a multidimensional instrument to assess psychological empowerment. On the basis of the work of Thomas and Velthouse (1990), she defines psychological empowerment as intrinsic task motivation reflecting a sense of control in relation to one's work and an active orientation to one's work role that is manifest in four cognitions: meaning, self-determination, competence, and impact.

Gunderson, Ponak, and Taras (2005) present another definition of the characteristics of the HIWS: (a) employees are viewed as assets rather than interchangeable factors of production; (b) bundles of practices including job and workflow redesign and innovative compensation practices are used to motivate employees; (c) management believes that teams lead to better problem-solving and enhanced performance; (d) close supervision is minimised and (e) training is viewed as essential for enhancing worker knowledge and skills. Figure 2 below illustrates a model of the high-involvement workplace as described by Gunderson and Taras (2009).

Figure 2

A Model of the High-Involvement Workplace



Source: Gunderson & Taras (2009), p. 134.

In yet another definition of high involvement, provided by Bélanger (2001, in Gunderson et al., 2005), the concept includes “the various means and processes by which workers take part in decisions concerning the use of their skills and resources in the production process.”

At the core of the HIWS are changes that give employees more say in how to do their work, more teamwork, increased flexibility in work design, and more requirements for problem-solving by employees. The role of the manager has also changed to one of a “coach” or “facilitator.” Teams may also be self-directed, carrying out many of the traditional duties of managers (Osterman, Kochan, Locke, & Piore, 2001)

In describing the characteristic of a high-performing organisation in the public sector, Trahan (2007) identifies the need for organisations to educate and train employees about culture and customers and to align employee compensation with strategic rewards. In most HIWS, the selection process for new employees and new team members is participative

and encourages self-selection. A high-involvement strategy creates high performance expectations from employees. Stretch objectives rather than minimum standards promote continuous improvement and responsiveness to the requirements of the marketplace.

Employees are provided with security not through lifetime employment but through training and retraining as old jobs are eliminated and new ones are created. Expanding on the characteristics of high-performing organisations, Fu (2013) emphasises the use of extensive employee training and development activities to promote firm innovation. Compensation policies are no longer focused on job evaluation formulas, but rather on the individual and team achievement of objectives. Achievement of objectives is promoted and rewarded with programmes such as gain sharing, profit-sharing, and stock ownership (R. E. Walton, 1985). Essentially, the HIWS is a system adopted by an organisation that supports and fosters knowledge workers, collaboration of thoughts, and overall ingenuity that is premised on the idea that transfer of information can be used in furthering organisational objectives and will serve to secure and maintain an advantage in a globally competitive market. While these characteristics of HIWS can lead to organizational effectiveness (Guthrie, 2001), not all organizations are willing or able to adopt these practices.

In considering the types of organizations which would be most likely to adopt HIWS, Roche (1999) suggests that organisations with a relatively high degree of integration of human resource strategy into business strategy are much more likely to adopt bundles of high-involvement practices. He also identifies nonunion companies, multinationals, organisations with a strong strategic capacity, and firms that compete in international markets as many times more likely to have developed consistent bundles of high-involvement human resource management (HRM) practices. Cooke (1994) identifies the different effects of these practices in union and nonunion firms. He proposes that employee involvement programmes may produce better performance in unionised firms but incentive compensation programmes produce the opposite result. E. Appelbaum and Batt (1994), in describing high-involvement practices in the manufacturing environment, discuss the wide variation in the bundles of practices adopted by firms because of the various contingencies

they face. In addition to contingencies, Townsend, Wilkinson, and Burgess (2014) suggest that organisationally, specific forms of employee involvement programmes are dependent upon the HRM systems in operation at the workplace – hence, reliant upon the motivations of managers at any given time. Regardless of the bundles of practices an organisation chooses, they must be combined to ensure vertical fit – that the practices are aligned with organisational strategies – and horizontal fit – that the individual practices within any bundle are consistent with one another – within the organisation (Belcourt & Taggart, 2002).

To assess the use of HIWS in Canada, medium- to large-sized Canadian companies were surveyed about their HR practices in 2004–05. The findings indicate a significant level of penetration of high-involvement practices. About 20% of firms reported the involvement of 21–100% of their employees in problem-solving or quality groups, while 40% indicated noninvolvement. About 21% of firms indicated that 21–100% of their employees worked in self-managing teams while 49% indicated that none of their employees worked in self-managing teams (Konrad, 2006). While the research findings indicate a positive view and adoption of HIWS in Canadian firms, sources of bias in the survey data must also be considered in interpreting these findings.

Appelbaum and Batt (1994) identify three sources of bias that may affect the veracity of surveys of the scope of employee involvement activities in organization. First, firms implementing new practices may be more likely to respond to surveys, leading to overstatement of statistics. Second, surveys are done mostly in large firms, and therefore conclusions may overstate the extent of involvement activities. Understatement may also occur since changes made at large firms may affect more workers than similar changes made at small firms. Third, only managers and executives are generally interviewed. This creates one-sided assessments about the nature and extent of employee involvement practices, since managers have a vested interest in these activities (Godard & Delaney, 2000).

The literature reviewed in this section provides a foundation for exploring the concept

of employee involvement in terms of reviewing the history of workplace structures, identifying the range of definitions and programmes that have evolved into the present day, and understanding the importance and overall integration of employee involvement practices in organisational effectiveness. Table 1 shows some of the models and key principles of employee involvement that have been put forward by leading researchers in the field whose ideas have been presented in the literature review.

Table 1
Major Models of Employee Involvement

Theory proponent	Model structure	Major features	Intrinsic vs. extrinsic focus
Ackers, Marchington, Wilkinson, & Goodman (1992)	4-fold classification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • financial rewards • downward communication such as team briefings • upward problem-solving mechanisms such as quality circles • employee participation through joint consultation 	Extrinsic focus
Lawler (1992)	4 interlocking principles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • employer rewards • push down decision-making • provide timely and relevant information to employees re work • employee training/ development 	Extrinsic focus
Bélanger (2001, in Gunderson et al., 2005)	4-factor model of the high-involvement workplace	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • employee training • teamwork • flexibility in work design • employee voice 	Extrinsic focus
Kahn (1990)	3 psychological dimensions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • employee contributions are valued and work is varied and provides autonomy • employees feel safe • employees have physical and emotional resources to invest in work 	Intrinsic focus
Spreitzer (1996)	4 factors of empowerment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • meaning of work with respect to values • self-efficacy in doing job • self-determination • influence over work outcomes 	Intrinsic focus

Thomas & Velthouse (1990)	4 aspects of empowerment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • changes in work shaped by tasks • right of choice • sense of competency • significance of work 	Intrinsic focus
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2.2 Rationale for Adopting Employee Involvement Programmes

Like most organisations today, Canadian higher education organisations face competitive challenges and the consequent need for change. However, they face a more difficult change process given their bureaucratic structures, budget pressures, and other diversity challenges (Meister-Scheytt & Scheytt, 2005).

More specifically, the foreign student population provides a key competitive market for colleges and universities as challenges arise to attract and retain foreign students who will pay higher tuition fees. This requires a greater investment on the part of the faculty to design and deliver an attractive education package through creative curriculum design and innovative teaching methods. Broadly speaking, this entails an examination of the organisational components including structure, people, and policies as they either support faculty involvement or constrain motivation to be more highly involved.

Changes in the competitive environment in the past three decades including globalisation, technological breakthroughs, and deregulation have prompted North American firms to adopt new paradigms for conducting business. According to Osterman et al. (2001), key among these are: (a) a move to focusing on core competencies and outsourcing of services and functions; (b) a focus on innovation, speed, and flexibility and rapid shifts in the firm's business scope to accommodate new markets and products; (c) the deployment of assets and operations around the globe; and (d) acquisition of human capital in the form of knowledge workers and a decrease in the need for semiskilled employees. These changes to traditional business models require changes in human resource management strategies to ensure congruence between organisational strategies, policies, and programmes. Specifically, employee involvement programmes have been established across a variety of nonunion and unionised industries in the hope of improving company performance,

primarily in the areas of quality, worker productivity, and labour-management relations. Cooke (1992) defines the benefits of employee involvement programmes in terms of the net benefit versus cost to both employees and management. The degree of net benefit to both parties affects commitment to employee involvement and, in consequence, the degree of improvement in organisational performance. The benefits include providing avenues for employees to identify and resolve problems at source that improve organisational performance and employee motivation to participate. Cooke (1992) also identifies other benefits including the use of team rewards and social sanctions on team members by other team members, thus reducing the need for management control.

The benefits of participation may be examined through application of models of participation proposed by a number of scholars. In their meta-analytic literature review, K. I. Miller and Monge (1986) provide an overview of three models of participation and related benefits. First are cognitive models that propose that participation leads to increased productivity by contributing high-quality information to decisions made by employees. These models predict that productivity will be strongest for decisions that draw upon the employee's skills and knowledge in specific decision-making activities. Second are affective models that suggest that participation satisfies higher-order needs of employees; satisfaction of these needs leads to job satisfaction which in turn leads to increased motivation. This is particularly true for employees who are not having higher-order needs satisfied by other aspects of their jobs. Shen et al. (2014) support the notion that employee involvement provides employee with both intrinsic rewards through development and extrinsic rewards with respect to supporting economic, family, and social needs. Third are contingency models that suggest that no single model of participation is appropriate for all employees in all organisations. Rather, employees with high needs for independence and low authoritarianism will be most positively influenced by participation. Employees who place a high value on participation are most likely to be positively influenced by it. These employees are likely to be high-level knowledge workers in research or service industries.

In a study of competing New Zealand firms, Guthrie (2001) tested and confirmed the hypothesis that as firms make greater use of HIWS, employee turnover becomes

increasingly costly and detrimental to firm efficiency. While firms can achieve a sustainable competitive advantage by developing rare and unique human capital, the loss of this capital through turnover increases the quasi-fixed costs associated with its loss. Thus, the failure to retain these valuable human assets may diminish the payoff associated with the use of HIWS. Guthrie (2001) suggests that firms wishing to reduce employee turnover should consider employee retention strategies such as above-market wages that would be offset by reduced turnover costs. Systematic evidence of the effectiveness of HIWS comes from many sources. In particular, the *Survey of Employee Involvement and Total Quality Efforts* conducted in 1993 with Fortune 1000 companies found that companies with high use of HIWS, compared with low-use companies, excelled at return on sales (10.3 versus 6.3), return on assets (6.9 versus 4.7), return on investments (14.6 versus 9.0), and return on equity (22.8 versus 16.6) (Gephart & Van Buren, 1996).

The overall benefits of employee participation programs are supported by research on related work systems such as total quality management (TQM). Batt (1999) examined the strengths and weaknesses of total quality management and self-managed teams as compared to mass production approaches to service delivery among customer service and sales workers in a large unionised regional Bell operating company in the United States. Results of the study showed that participation in a self-managed team was associated with a statistically significant improvement in service quality and a 9.3% increase in sales per employee. The addition of new technology boosted team sales by an additional 17.4% and these effects persisted over time. Supporting the results of Batt's (1999) study, in a meta-analytic study of the impact of employee involvement on organisations, Combs, Liu, Hall, and Ketchen (2006) found that employee involvement practices improved organisational performance by 0.20 of a standardised unit for each unit increase in the use of these practices.

While employee involvement programmes are seen to improve organisation performance in many areas, some scholars have also identified costs associated with these programmes. Cooke (1992) identifies various transaction costs that are incurred as more decision-makers become involved in making and carrying out decisions. Resistance from supervisors and

managers who fear erosion of their authority and employment security may also negatively affect employee commitment and inhibit performance improvements.

Luthans and Sommer (2005) propose that successful transition to an HIWS required the need to change the organisation's culture by changing leadership, specifically by hiring external managers. They also suggest that effectiveness of HIWS is best studied within a specific industry context since practices vary widely across industries and even among different organisations within the same industry. Furthering the discussion on the factors required for successful transition to an HIWS, Gephart and Van Buren (1996) identify some critical success factors for the implementation of an HIWS including: (a) strong reasons for change linked to the company's business strategy; (b) sufficient resources and support for the change effort; (c) early and broad communication; and (d) teams implemented in a systematic context and given adequate support such as training and a performance-based compensation system. In addition to the above factors, they also stress that all elements of the HIWS (structure, subsystems, processes and practices) must be aligned vertically with company goals and horizontally with one another.

The literature reviewed in this section deals primarily with the benefits and costs associated with employee involvement programmes as well as the requirements for successful transition to a high-involvement organisation. A gap in this part of the literature reviewed leads to the question: *What are employee perceptions of the benefits of a high-involvement organisation?*

2.3 The Union View of Employee Involvement Programmes

Programmes attempting to increase employee participation have become increasingly common in the union sector of the North American economy since the 1980s. However, the labour community has been divided on whether or not these programmes represent a threat or an opportunity for unions and their members (Eaton, 1990). Numerous articles cite strong reasons for labour and management to work cooperatively in achieving the organisation's goals, such as the need to engage the workforce in addressing competitive

challenges through implementation of innovative solutions to produce goods and services efficiently. For example, with respect to manufacturing, as product variety and complexity increase, human resource practices and work organisation that increase the skills and problem-solving abilities of the workforce become increasingly advantageous to the firm (E. Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg, & Kalleberg, 2000). This section discusses the union view of employee involvement programmes from the perspectives of perceived benefits and threats to unions and their members.

2.3.1 Benefits of Employee Involvement Programmes

Proponents of employee involvement programmes tout such benefits as improving labour productivity, better product quality, increased employee motivation, and better employer-employee relations. Dawkins and Frass (2005) identify many benefits of involving employees in decisions affecting the firm. First, employees often have the expertise to identify problem areas and provide practical solutions. Second, employee involvement generally leads to increased acceptance of change initiatives since employees generally resist projects initiated unilaterally by management. An added benefit of joint changes is that they are usually more sustainable and permanent than changes unilaterally imposed by management.

Arguably, this is realised through the interactions of employees with organisational leaders and supervisors, and the initiative of ongoing performance management and information sharing that gives employees a better understanding of the challenges facing the organisation. Through this increased transparency, employees further understand the reasoning behind certain constraints or limitations on management's decision-making authority as impacted by external constraints or limitations on management's decision-making authority as impacted by external constraints, and realise the influence of their own position and work-related decisions on the work outcomes, at both the unit and organisational level. In support of Dawkins and Frass (2005), Gruman and Saks (2011) argue that engagement is developed by effective leadership, autonomy, and control, which largely encompass the willingness of management to foster employee development by promoting the practice of participative decision-making. Participative decision-making

enables the employee to work with management in gaining a better understanding of business systems, problems, and potential solutions by jointly optimising the best combination of ideas and experiences and working together to create the most desirably effective organisational practices. The ability of an employee to participate in the development of an integrated organisational framework, policies, and protocols that use and reflect their task-related knowledge and expertise then makes the job psychologically meaningful and may solidify task-related self-efficacy. Gruman and Saks state that “psychological meaningfulness” is achieved when people feel that they are worthwhile and valuable and that they matter. Such perceptions are influenced by task characteristics, role characteristics, and work interactions (Gruman & Saks, 2011).

To gain a better understanding of the significance of the challenges of labour-management cooperation and increased desire by workers for involvement in decisions affecting the firm and their work lives, it is useful at this point to examine the historical evolution of labour-management relations in North America. Cooperation and change have been difficult to bring about in union settings owing to the long history of conflict and mistrust between labour and management. Management’s primary interest in the continual reduction of expenses, increasing flexibility and improving productivity to enhance profitability has traditionally clashed with the union’s role of protecting the job security and earnings of its members (Schuster & Weidman, 2006). Extensive reviews of the evolution of labour-management philosophy exist in many scholarly texts (E. Appelbaum et al., 2000; Gunderson, Ponak, & Taras, 2005; Osterman et al., 2001; Rinehart, 2006). A synthesis of the various perspectives is presented in the following section.

2.3.2 Evolution of Labour-Management Relations to the 1950s

In the 19th century, economies in both England and North America were rapidly industrialising, with factories becoming the major centres for manufacturing goods. As technological change began to erode the skill basis of workers’ power, the collective strength of the union was substituted as a defence against managerial control. Around the beginning of the 20th century the advent of Taylorism further undermined the craft-based

mode of production by diluting skills and increasing the need for cheap, unskilled labour that could complete narrowly defined tasks under the guidance of managers who now controlled the production process and directed work activities. Thus began the separation between the “planning” and “doing” of work: mental work was done by managers, and workers carried out the manual labour. The compartmentalisation and regimentation of work in the early factory system was heightened in the early 20th century by the application of the principles of scientific management promulgated by Frederick Taylor.

Taylor’s principles were adopted by manufacturers in the early decades of the 20th century as the basis for assembly line production. The assembly line and not the worker now affected the pace of work and production sequence. Management philosophy was based on the assumption that workers who were not carefully monitored by supervisors would shirk work. Shop floor employees engaged in mundane and repetitive jobs with few opportunities to make decisions or solve problems. Mistrust and frustration were prevalent in the work environment (Braverman, 1974).

As the century progressed, Taylor advocated the division of planning and execution that drove a culture of organisational mechanics. In a review of the principles of scientific management, Oswald Jones (2000) notes that Taylor’s advocacy of retention of control in work systems meant that jobs were designed to be performed in a mechanistic fashion by removing opportunities for worker discretion. He goes on to highlight the benefits for organisations as it pertains to limiting opportunities for workers to exaggerate the time to process and complete simple tasks, while providing management with a greater ability to accurately measure productivity and the training time required for unskilled workers to achieve optimal production. This view has a built-in assumption of low trust in the workers, and provides a high need for direct supervision.

Taylor’s principles assume people will put forth the lowest effort for production – the production process will be delayed as a result of workers’ fear of losing their jobs if higher production occurs because there is only so much work to be done (Thompson, 2003). Despite Taylor’s assumption that this fear resulted in noncooperation and diminished

effort, contemporary views pose an alternative argument giving credit to workers for thinking about the implications of their work for the greater good of the organisation, not only out of self-interest but also out of interest in remaining in business (although, it seems unlikely that Taylor would have given any credit to workers, since he directly sought out those of a lesser class and skill set). However, Taylor did believe that the best way to increase production was to ensure that the interests of workers should be the same as management, and the best way to ensure this was through paying for performance (which was evaluated by the calculated rate of production). Management could easily assess production rates by numerical count, and by comparing workers against one another in the same organisation.

Taylor has been criticised for the adverse impact that his system of scientific management has imposed on the value of workers. Scholars have argued that the system has been counterproductive to production rates because it omits consideration of the nonmonetary factors that promote motivation and employee engagement. Jean-Louis Peaucelle (2000) points out that Taylor explicitly inscribed an indicator of efficiency: human productivity, a technical indicator measurable as the ratio of the quantity produced to the time spent by the workers in producing that quantity. He further notes that the scientific organisation of work argues for the pursuit of productivity gains with minimum investment, thereby lowering costs. This directly relates to the argument that assignment to specific routine tasks enables a company to employ a larger number of unskilled workers who command lower pay, and to ensure that the repetition involved in the focus of their work will effectively increase production rates by allowing the worker to excel at that one specific task.

This point of view arguably contradicts contemporary views regarding the value of job rotation and task variety to generating employee motivation and increasing self-efficacy and affective commitment to the job. Taylor's principles are entirely rooted in the monetary value of the work, and assume that workers will just be satisfied with the fact they are employed and generating some form of income. Taylor referred to these employees as the "average worker" with observable operational modes and "standard" work rate. These workers are selected according to their skills but have no industrial experience (Peaucelle,

2000). This is the unskilled workforce that may not otherwise be employable. It is evident that this frame of mind pushed Taylor to seek out these workers. Arguably, the principles underlying organisational structures as provided for by scientific management would not have been representative of the best way to manage workers within an organisation, because the unskilled workforce is not representative of the greater working population. Any employee who exhibits a form of ambition to learn has no place in the Taylorist system of management.

Alternatively, in support of Taylor and scientific management, scholars have highlighted its benefits to the workforce and to management, in that Taylorism is a movement not just for efficiency but also for providing jobs in the production process for the middle class (Pruijt, 2000). Sigmund Wagner reviews Taylor's principles and argues in favour of scientific management as the foundation of institutional economics, drawing a parallel between Taylorism in the prewar era and the present-day objectives of contemporary organisations, while highlighting the similarities between the two as it pertains to the structure and intentions of today's workforce. He states that Taylor argued that profit increases achieved by scientific management were to be shared among all who had contributed to generating them, and that there can be no prosperity for the employer in the long term unless it is accompanied by prosperity for the employee, and vice versa (Wagner-Tsukamoto, 2007). He goes on to say that Taylor recognised the ability of managers to take advantage of the workers. In this, one could argue that the piecework pay system enabled the workers to be fairly and equitably compensated for their effort, and limited the opportunity for management discretion in the distribution of rewards.

In the 1950s, reformers and social scientists began to shift their focus from problematic workers to problems in work design. This movement was known as the group relations approach, and scholars such as Douglas McGregor, Abraham Maslow and Frederick Herzberg argued that the design of work itself was the key to motivation (Madsen, 1974). McGregor's Theory Y proposed a more enlightened management approach while Maslow argued that work would be motivating if various human needs were fulfilled, the highest being the need for self-actualisation. Herzberg focused on extrinsic and intrinsic factors

that, if present in their work environment could motivate individuals to superior performance. Hackman and Oldham made a significant contribution in this area, arguing that the autonomous work group could serve to promote self-actualisation and make work more fulfilling by allowing employees to share much of the decision-making about how work should be planned and executed (Madsen, 1974).

2.3.3 Socio-Technical Systems Theory

Parallel to arguments favouring the recognition of workers and their participation in planning the work is the consideration of how a whole piece of work is produced. Here, Socio-Technical Systems Theory views a whole piece of work as the sum of its parts. Employees perform work tasks driven by interrelated and interdependent systems that must fit together to produce the whole work outcome. The theory relies heavily on the value of the interaction between social and technical components in the workplace for securing flexibility and adaptability to external environmental challenges. According to S. H. Appelbaum's (1997) review of the theoretical impacts on organisational development, "the socio-technical system design is based on the premise that an organization or a work unit is a combination of social and technical parts and that it is open to its environment because the social and technical elements must work together to accomplish tasks, work systems produce both physical products and social/psychological outcomes . . . otherwise referred to as joint optimization" (p. 452) This is in stark contrast to Taylor's principles of scientific management, whose idea of joint optimisation entirely overlooked the importance that psychological forces had on the impact of production rates.

2.3.4 Quality of Working Life Movement

The North American economy began to sputter in the 1970s and stall in the 1980s as a result of increased international competition and inflationary pressures. Consequently, business began to reorganise labour to increase productivity. This was done by the re-engineering of business processes that included increasing the use of technology and production systems and the redesign of jobs to respond to rapidly changing market conditions. Organisations began to recognise the value of worker input towards increasing

production and organisational efficiency through initiatives such as quality of working life programmes. The quality of working life (QWL) movement was driven largely by the recognition of human resources as a central component of competitive advantage and a need to address the rising numbers of issues affecting mental health at work. Organisations began to consider multiple demands on the employee, such as work demands, relationships, coworker relationships, and working hours, all of which correlate with stress and tension in the workplace (Martel & Dupuis, 2006). Evidence suggests that there is an inextricable link between one's quality of working life and overall quality of life. Given that a large portion of one's life is dedicated to one's work, it is in the interest of organisations to facilitate positive workplace environments and relationships in an effort to alleviate some of the general tensions that negatively impact employee performance.

To foster a work environment that alleviates stress, organisations had to turn their attention to individual worker needs, analysing employee behaviours and interactions in the workplace in an effort to identify the resources necessary to meet employee needs at work. According to Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel, and Lee (2001), QWL became premised on the belief that happy employees led to increased involvement, more affective behaviours, and engagement which generates increased productivity and, therefore, economic advantage. In this manner, Sirgy et al. (2001) state that QWL is concerned with employee satisfaction with a variety of needs through resources, activities, and outcomes stemming from participation in the workplace. This is synonymous with needs satisfaction to affect behavioural responses in the organisational context.

Central to this is the interaction between worker behaviours, as shaped by the availability of resources to meet their needs, and overall organisational effectiveness. In this regard, organisations must consider whether it is in their interest to allocate resources by evaluating the congruence between the worker needs and larger organisational goals. Sirgy et al. (2001) identify four primary groups of employee needs: survival, social, ego, and self-actualisation. While survival relates to basic needs outside of work, these are reliant on the financial fundamentals of life that work provides. All others can be grouped into needs that could be fulfilled through programmes aimed at fostering a positive working environment.

Table 2 outlines a number of organisational initiatives that stem from the needs satisfaction concept of QWL.

authority, empowered and recognised by management as the set of interrelated

Table 2

QWL Policies and Programmes That Satisfy Employee Needs in Work Life

Work environment	Job facets	Management/ supervisory duties and responsibilities	Corporate policies related to employee pay and promotion
Decentralised organisational structures	Participation in decision-making and high-involvement programmes	Total Quality Management	Promotion opportunities from within
Teamwork	Job enrichment programmes	Performance feedback and role clarity behavior	Incentive plans
Parallel structures and quality circles	Programmes to enhance occupational status and prestige	Ethical supervisory practices	
Ethical corporate mission and culture		Co-leadership	
Organisation's work schedule			

Source: Sirgy, Efraty, Siegel, & Lee (2001), p. 245.

Table 2 highlights a variety of programmes and initiatives that began to evolve in an effort to address employee needs, while at the same time shaping alignment with organisational goals. Central to these programmes was the notion of employee involvement, which centres on the participation of employees in decision-making regarding issues that affect them and their business units.

Sirgy, Reilly, Wu, and Efraty (2008) find that participation in decision-making and high-involvement programmes contribute positively and significantly to work. High-involvement programmes act as a conduit to help employees express their thoughts and feelings in important organisational decisions, and this input is likely to influence the final management decision. High-involvement programmes afford employees a greater sense of meaningfulness in their activities, which increases the value of their work and role identity.

Expanding on Sirgy et al.'s (2008) findings on the effectiveness of participative decision-making, Boudrias et al. (2010) identify the supervisor's ability to effectively communicate organisational objectives as key in enhancing employee involvement in their work. The foundation of high-involvement programmes rests upon the willingness of managers to relinquish absolute decision-making authority and open themselves up to a more democratic measure of roundtable discussions. This serves to enhance employee satisfaction, where there is a visible effect of employee contribution in the workplace. Consequently, improved employee participation would lead to greater job satisfaction as employees would be actively involved in shaping their own work and managing their personal career growth.

2.3.5 High-Involvement Systems and Trade Unionism

Rau (2012) posits that the industrial relations system is evolving from conflict towards cooperation. In support of Rau's view, in a study of 840 manufacturing plants in Britain, S. Wood (1996) found that unionism was not incompatible with high-involvement management although the presence of a union does slow the diffusion of human resource management practices in the organisation. However, Guest (1995) states that unionism limits the extent to which management can fully explore high-involvement initiatives in the areas of functional flexibility and job redesign. Gill (2009) opines that one of the main barriers to effective and sustained adoption of high-involvement practices is management resistance to implementing a costly array of practices that take time to deliver results.]

The education sector in Canada has undergone many changes as a result of new practices in public sector management. Donais (2010) stresses the importance of engaging union leadership as a first step in engaging a unionised workforce. Guest (1999) proposes that the more HRM practices workers experience, the more satisfied they seem to be with their psychological contract. Workers associate their positive HRM experiences with higher levels of fairness of treatment and trust in management. Sisson (1993) makes the observation that it is in union rather than nonunion organisations that elements of HRM practices are found, supporting the notion of a positive relationship between unions and high-involvement practices. Russell (1999) studied managerial strategies in five unionised

mining sites. Concluding that there was no evidence that workers were empowered by new forms of work organisation, he questioned the wisdom of unions giving up traditional protections for new rights. Like Russell, Wells (1987) suggests that employee involvement programmes augment managerial power while weakening labour's presence in the employment relationship, particularly when these programmes lead to job losses or unfulfilled promises of workplace improvement. On the other hand, Lévesque and Murray (2010) suggest that unions can leverage their vertical and horizontal networks inside and outside of the organisation to their advantage. That means engaging with the organisation in new initiatives rather than refusing to engage in programmes such as employee involvement.

While unions may have good reasons for collaborating with management, they also have many reasons for opposing collaboration. Many trade unions have voiced concerns that participative programmes create a second channel of communication between workers and managers that may ultimately erode the collective bargaining process and the union's role in the organisation (Eaton, 1990). Participation programmes can also create the impression that labour and management are in collusion and therefore reduce the union's motivation to push worker demands or grievances (Reshef, Kizilos, Ledford, & Cohen, 1999). Other forces opposing collaboration include differing philosophical goals between union and management, lack of knowledge and experience by unions with respect to organisational development issues, and past adversarial roles between union and management. Unions also fear that participation programmes could damage workers individually through increased workloads and job losses resulting from changes in the organisation of work (Godfrey, Wilkinson, & Marchington, 1997).

Unions in North America and internationally have responded in various ways to the implementation of employee involvement initiatives. These have included outright rejection of the programme if they feel that the overall impact of the changes would disadvantage their members. Union leaders may also adopt a wait-and-see attitude, allowing innovation to proceed while observing from a distance in the hope that their image will not be tarnished if the programme self-destructs. Unions may also engage in protective involvement that involves bargaining with management for controls over the process and

outcomes of the participation programme. Finally, unions may wholeheartedly cooperate in the programme, viewing the innovations as potentially beneficial for their members in terms of greater job security or enhanced job satisfaction (Eaton & Voos, 1989). In a study of 1,000 employees at a large unionised electric utility company in the United States, R. E. Allen and Van Norman (1996) found that employee participation in employee involvement programmes increased worker expectations that the work environment would improve. Without improvement, employees develop negative attitudes towards both the employer and the union. They propose that unions are better off when they cosponsor and get involved in employee involvement programmes as this stimulates worker willingness to participate. The education sector in Canada has undergone many changes as a result of new practices in public sector management. In light of this, G. Murray, Lévesque, and Le Capitaine (2014) identify the need for local union representatives to be adequately trained in the implementation of change management processes in order for employee involvement initiatives to succeed.

For a complete picture of the union perspective on employee involvement, it is also necessary to review the effect of participation programmes from the individual employees' perspective rather than the broad philosophical view of trade unions about the organization. Verma (1989) studied programme and selection effects of joint union-management sponsorship on workers in five diverse organisations in the United States. Programme effects are defined as changes in worker attitudes related to participation in an employee involvement (EI) programme. Selection effects are defined as the sorting of workers into pro-union and anti-union camps in the presence of an employee involvement programme. The findings of the study are that a positive programme effect and a nonnegative selection effect exist. If the union is involved in the EI programme there are unlikely to be adverse outcomes for the union. Workers will be more likely to participate in union affairs and have more favourable assessments of the union. Regarding selection effects, the study concluded that where the union is a joint sponsor of an EI programme, worker attachment to the union is less likely to have a major influence on the decision to participate voluntarily.

Verma and McKersie (1987) assert that workers will participate in EI programmes if doing so is beneficial to them and not harmful to their interests. They also express the view that workers who desire self-expression and personal achievement are the ones who will be interested in EI programmes. These workers tend to be energetic and optimistic in outlook and, although satisfied with their current work situation, believe that improvements are possible and beneficial to all parties involved in the programme. A key finding in their research is that there is no inconsistency between union activism and participation in an EI programme if the union supports the programme. R. W. Miller and Prichard (1992) also support the view that workers look to EI programmes as a vehicle for self-expression and personal achievement. Participants are likely to be younger, more educated, more ambitious, and more oriented towards personal and organisational improvements than nonparticipants. A major finding of their study is that management should attempt to create more interest in EI programmes for senior employees since their knowledge and experience would enrich the process and outcomes of the EI programme.

Leana, Ahlbrandt, and Murrell (1992) studied the effects of EI programmes on unionised employees' work attitudes, union commitment, and influence in decision-making. On the negative side they found that participants in the EI programme reported less positive attitudes towards their jobs than nonparticipants. They speculated that once participants were involved in the EI programme and armed with information, they realised how little influence they actually had in workplace decisions. On the positive side, participants realised the benefits of the EI programme and satisfaction with the union remained high. A criticism that has been levelled at attempts at employee involvement is that employees become disillusioned and cynical because of the contradictions between senior management talk about the need for positive, strategic change and results of these changes that may include larger class sizes or increased workloads (Diefenbach, 2009).

A review of the requirements for successful labour-management cooperation in EI initiatives will now be examined. The degree of union involvement in EI programmes depends on whether the participation initiatives are permanent and create serious innovation or whether they are short-lived fads (Eaton & Voos, 1989). Lawler and Drexler

(1978) invoke Lewin's force field theory to identify strategies for reducing negative forces acting against joint projects. These include the use of objective third parties to serve as a communications link, the creation of joint labour-management committees as an adjunct to the collective bargaining process, and the provision of education about joint projects to both union and management leaders (including visits to other projects). Graham and Verma (1991) suggest that managers need to manage increase the worker's affective response) to ensure a positive affect towards EI programmes. Some strategies for managing proximity are to plan for rapid diffusion of the EI programme throughout the organisation, thus reducing rumors and fears about its effects. Another tactic for managing proximity is to brief all employees about the programme regardless of the rate at which it will be diffused.

The literature reviewed in this section of the chapter provides a range of perspectives on the union view of the value and benefits of employee involvement programmes to their members from a private industry perspective. Little research in this area is available in the education industry. A gap in the literature leads to the question: *Can high involvement and unionism coexist in the context of higher education?*

2.4 The Role of Commitment in the Success of Employee Involvement Initiatives

Organisational commitment is considered an important determinant of individual attitudes and behaviour in the workplace and has three distinct dimensions: *affective commitment* defined by the emotional attachment an employee feels for the organisation, *normative commitment* defined by the feelings of obligation that compel an employee to remain with the organisation, and *continuance commitment* defined by the employee's decision to stay with the organisation because of accumulated investments and the paucity of comparable alternatives for employment upon leaving the organisation (Belcourt & Taggart, 2002). N. J. Allen and Meyer (1990) posit that as these types of commitment increase, the employee's desire to stay with the organisation increases as well. In addition, each employee experiences these types of commitment in varying degrees and in different ways. Those who are older may have a stronger affective commitment owing to maturity and length of

experience with the organisation. In the first year of employment the employee determines whether the organisation meets their needs. Between the second and fourth years, the employee develops their career and determines their potential for success or failure. As the maturity stage approaches, from the fifth year onward, the employee's commitment to the organisation becomes more intense .

proximity (the degree of a worker's personal involvement which can be expected to

Organisations adopting high-involvement work systems aspire towards empowering employees to develop strong feelings of control and competence in their jobs, believing these feelings will increase their affective commitment to the organisation, making them more willing to engage in extra-role behaviour such as organisational citizenship behaviour (Menon, 2001). The concept of perceived competence is found in much of the literature on employee empowerment (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; R. E. Wood & Bandura, 1989). Developing employee competencies leads to increased feelings of self-efficacy that in turn increases employees' desires to become more involved in work activities. Wu and Chaturvedi (2009) propose that the perceptions of fairness generated by a high-involvement culture ultimately lead to an increase in employees' affective commitment.

Research on a sample of Korean service sector employees in the hotel industry found that empowerment was associated with organisational commitment and extra-role customer service. Empowerment contributed to organisational commitment through the medium of job satisfaction. The authors identified mechanisms for empowerment such as the use of self-managing teams and employee planning and scheduling of work. A significant conclusion of the study is that employee management should be shifted from a transactional to a relationship-building perspective (Lee, Nam, Park, & Lee, 2006).

OCB derives from organisational commitment. Robbins (2001, in S. H. Appelbaum et al., 2004) defines OCB as a discretionary behaviour that is not part of an employee's formal job requirement but that nevertheless promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. It has become increasingly important to the success of organisations since formal policies and procedures such as written job descriptions cannot produce the array

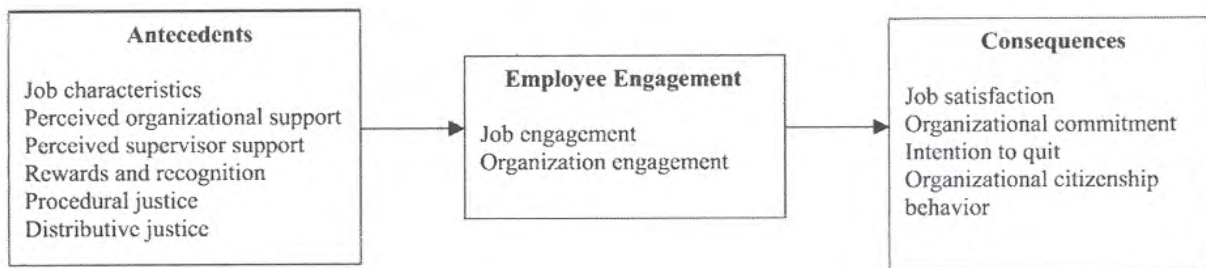
of behaviours needed to achieve organisational goals. In practical terms OCB improves organisational effectiveness by increasing innovation and adaptability and allowing the organisation to more effectively allocate financial and human resources. Research at a Canadian manufacturing plant found that low levels of productivity were a direct result of poor corporate citizenship and low attachment to the organisation (S. H. Appelbaum, Adam, Javeri, & Lessard, 2005).

Additional support for the positive link between empowerment and organisational commitment is provided by Tang and Ibrahim (1998), who studied the antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). They also suggest the use of self-managing teams and job design to promote intrinsic satisfaction as means of increasing citizenship behaviour. They conclude that OCB is useful in improving efficiency in both public and private organisations. Lashley (1995, as cited in Lee et. al, 2006, p. 254) suggests that empowerment has several benefits in the service sector including more responsive service, efficient handling of customer complaints, and higher service quality. It also increases employee self-esteem and loyalty and produces highly motivated staff.

In a series of roundtables with senior public servants and a survey of 854 member organisations of the Institute of Public Administration of Canada, Belcourt and Taggart (2002) identified several key findings on the commitment of public sector employees: (a) organisations must commit to employees before expecting employees to commit to them; (b) affective commitment is associated with higher levels of performance and attendance; (c) employees will make personal sacrifices and perform beyond normal expectations if committed at the affective level; (d) older employees at the management level were highly affectively committed while younger employees (below 39) had high continuance commitment, based on the high cost of leaving the public sector; and (e) low affective commitment by younger employees was attributed to low autonomy and recognition in the job, lack of positive feedback, low level of group work, an authoritarian management style, and lack of employee input in decision-making.

Lincoln and Kalleberg (1996) studied the effects of organisational structure, employment practices, and other factory attributes on employee commitment to the firm. Survey data from employees at all levels in 45 U.S. plants indicate that long-term tenure with a firm fosters commitment in many ways. Feelings of commitment may be engendered by the sunk costs of foregone opportunities that may be then viewed as accumulated investments in the organisation. Tenure also develops firm-specific socialisation that increases employee identification with a single organisation. In a study of the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement, Saks (2006) identifies the factors required for employee engagement and the benefits to the organisation of engagement (Figure 3).

Figure 3
Factors Required for, and Benefits of, Employee Engagement



Source: Saks (2006), p. 604.

Underlying the antecedents required to produce employee engagement is the concept of the “psychological contract”, based on the employee’s beliefs concerning the mutual obligations that exist between the employee and the organisation. The employee expects a fair day’s pay in exchange for a fair day’s work. Pay can be defined extrinsically in terms of competitive pay and benefits, but may also include other rewards such as job security and opportunities for development (Rousseau, 1995).

Significant elements that enter into all definitions of the psychological contract include the beliefs, values, expectations, and aspirations of employer and employee promises and obligations, and the extent to which these are perceived to be met or violated. While not necessarily explicit, expectations pertaining to the respective promises and obligations of

each party may be implied and hinge on the level of trust, fairness, and good faith between employer and employee. The contract can be continually negotiated, changing with employee and organisational expectations as well as shifting social and economic contexts. Each individual has a different perception of the psychological contract that will in turn influence the way in which they perceive organisational events (Roehling, 1997).

In recent times the North American economy has faced challenges, and many companies have altered their employment practices. This in turn changed employee perceptions of the psychological contract. Many traditional inducements such as job security are now being taken away in response to economic pressures that lead employees to perceive a breach of the psychological contract. In a study of instructors at a U.S. technical college, the researchers found that perceived breach of the psychological contract is positively correlated with increased employee commitment to the union, since the union represents a potential means of forcing the employer to meet its obligations (Turnley, Bolino, Lester, & Bloodgood, 2004).

Coyle-Shapiro (2002) discusses the employee's willingness to engage in OCB as a function of their anticipation of receiving future inducements from the employer. Therefore the psychological contract captures future expectations as well as present inducements. If the future inducements are not fulfilled, this would represent a contract breach and undermining of trust central to the exchange relationship between employer and employee. A significant implication of the study is that managers must be careful about what they promise and actually deliver.

The literature reviewed in this section addresses the types of employee commitment that are demonstrated by employees, and the potential for employee involvement initiatives to increase commitment, leading ultimately to increased organisational citizenship behaviour. This material provides a framework for exploring the research question: *What are the factors that promote and constrain employees' engagement in their jobs?*

2.5 The Role of the Manager in Promoting Employee Involvement

Saks (2006) defines employee engagement as the degree to which an employee is attentive and absorbed in the performance of their job. Engagement is distinguished from organisational commitment behaviour in that organisational commitment behaviour involves voluntary extra-role performance and informal behaviours that can help coworkers and the organisation, while engagement is reflected in the employee's formal role performance. Further, Saks identifies two levels of engagement: job engagement and organisational engagement. Job engagement is defined in terms of the employee's psychological presence in their job, which can be identified in such a way that they are wholly committed to succeeding in their position through active learning and enjoyment in what they are doing. Engagement is accomplished through tasks that provide challenging work, variety, allowing the use of different skills, personal discretion, and the opportunity to make important contributions. Organisational engagement refers to psychological presence in the organisation, such as through participation in larger group or company-sponsored events, and the degree to which the employee takes an active interest in the success of the whole organisation (Saks, 2006).

In relation to Kahn's (1990) three psychological conditions required for employee engagement at work (meaningfulness, safety, and availability), supervisors have a particular role in promoting safety, described as rewarding coworker and supportive supervisor relations. Psychological safety is created in open and supportive environments that allow employees to experiment and try new things without fear of consequences. A lack of supervisor support has been linked to employee burnout (Maslach, Schaufelli, & Leiter, 2001). In addition, first-line supervisors are believed to be especially important in building employee engagement and to be at the root of employee disengagement (Bates, 2004). Employee engagement may be facilitated by a sense of self-determination, feelings of self-efficacy, and a sense of having an impact on the larger organisation. Contrary to lack of supervisor support identified by Maslach et al. (2001), micromanagers also create a sense of personal incompetence in employees who are consequently less intrinsically motivated (Lawler, 1992).

Building trust between employees and managers is crucial for effective operation of the firm with respect to performance, citizenship behaviour, and problem-solving. Schuler (1992) proposes that one of the greatest challenges for organisations is to build a positive cycle of trust through implementation of innovative human resources practices. Jones and George (1998) also emphasise the value-added component of employee empowerment in increasing employees' trust in their managers, dissolving the perceived boundaries between "them" and "us."

In a study of project teams in a large, public Australian R&D organisation, Zucker (1986) found that the strongest predictor of trust in the leader was consultative leadership which is characterised by consulting team members when making important decisions and communicating a value-driven vision to the team. The consultative approach serves to reduce uncertainty about the leader's future behaviour, building trust in the leader and making employees more inclined to rely on the leader's judgment and to disclosure of sensitive information. Expanding on Zucker's views of trust, S. H. Appelbaum et al. (2004) suggest methods for increasing levels of trust and hence engagement through coaching of employees and well as increasing management's accessibility to staff. As relationships become more personalised, the employee's sense of trust in management and the organisation increases. Spreitzer and Mishra (1999) also highlight the importance of trust as the lubricant that facilitates the relationship between managers and employees. Managers trust employees when they feel employees are concerned about the needs of the organisation, open to sharing sensitive information, and competent to make good decisions. If these conditions exist, then managers will be more willing to involve employees in decision-making. For example, in a study of frontline bank employees, researchers determined that management commitment to service quality (as demonstrated by empowerment, training, and rewards) had a significant positive effect on employee job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003). On the subject of rewards, Andrews (2011) reports that among educators intrinsic rewards such as recognition and opportunities for development are more valued than extrinsic motivators such as merit pay.

Spreitzer (1996) argues that an empowered manager is more likely to be successful in creating an empowering environment for employees. She also identifies the benefits of a wide span of management control in creating an empowering work environment. Tesluk, Vance, and Mathieu (1999) identify several management requirements for establishing a participative climate. First, senior management support is required to maintain quality through monitoring of quality processes and standards and providing training and resources. The organisation also needs to ensure that managers at all levels are supportive of employee involvement and are communicating their support to those below. While senior managers may introduce the employee involvement process, they depend on middle management to implement and support these initiatives. However, middle managers often see their role as administrators rather than as participants in the process and often resist the process of implementing participative practices because of concerns over job security. Thus, organisations need to ensure that managers at all levels are supportive of employee involvement initiatives and are communicating their support to employees below. Two important points from their study are that individual involvement is greatest when the organisational climate is consistent at all levels and that participative climates at the unit level have the greatest impact on individual unit-level outcomes and in turn on organisational level outcomes. Diefenbach (2009) points out that all too often strategic changes such as employee involvement programmes may be used by managers primarily for their individual ambitions, including career advancement and higher salaries. This diversion eventually impedes the quality improvement goals of the programmes.

Managerial ideology affects behaviour and outcomes at all levels of the organisation, and top managers play a leading role in developing ideology. Employees are most likely to look to their managers for guidance in ideological areas even while resisting official beliefs (Goll & Zeitz, 1991). In a study of 293 Canadian firms, Godard (1997) examined the effect of managerial ideologies on the adoption and effectiveness of employee involvement programmes. On the basis of a review of managerial actions at three levels (strategic, functional, and workplace levels), he concluded that managerial ideologies play an important role, ultimately impacting employee attitudes, productivity, quality, and absenteeism.

Fisher (1986) describes executive management roles during the five stages of development of an HIWS and identifies five characteristics of HIWS managers. First, they are leaders committed to continuous improvement who symbolise the core values of the organisation and model desired behaviours. Their function is visioning and empowering rather than controlling. Second, they manage by principles rather than rules, allowing employees flexibility in responding to the changing needs of the business. Third, they believe that employees will do what is right provided they are given appropriate resources, experiences, and information to do the job successfully. Fourth, HIWS managers recognise the need to coach the team to work together effectively. If the HIWS manager is successful, their team will work together effectively, produce a high level of results with little external influence, and keep team members well informed. Fifth, they periodically assess the organisation for behavioural congruence with the values on which the participative management system is built and deal appropriately with deviations from those values.

Simons (1995) reinforces the concept that effective managers believe in the innate potential of their employees to innovate and add value. To unleash this potential, the senior manager must give up control over many kinds of decisions and push down authority to the lowest levels of the organisation. Klein (1984) identifies many reasons why managers might resist employee involvement initiatives. They include the concern over job security, lack of well-defined responsibilities, and extra work around programme coordination. Furthermore managers who have enjoyed the prestige of their positions do not want to lose the status of being the boss. They view the sharing of their role with employees as a reward that has not been earned and a diminishing of their position in the eyes of the employees. Middle managers want the middle to have some say in the decisions made above them as well as those concerning the employees below, desiring to see the benefits of employee involvement in improving their quality of working life. Finally, managers who relish their power to reward or penalise employees feel that employee involvement programmes reduce their mechanisms of influence as teams become relevant for assigning jobs and controlling the flow of information.

Richardson (1985) stresses that participation does not mean management abdication of operating responsibility through an overemphasis on participation. He also stressed that implementation of participation programmes should proceed gradually, after providing training to supervisors in how to handle the new style of supervision. R. E. Walton and Schlesinger (1979) discuss key success strategies for addressing management difficulties in a participative environment including (a) coaching of new supervisors by senior managers versed in the participative model, (b) training for supervisors (formal and on-the-job) in human relations skills and group dynamics, (c) linking evaluation and reward systems to supervisory achievement in team development, (d) performance feedback for supervisors by team members, peers, and their managers, and (e) off-site support for supervisors through use of organisational development consultants. Legge (2005) cautions that a soft model approach to HRM has some drawbacks including the potential for the union role to be marginalised and for employees to experience a competing focus of loyalties if HRM policies generate high levels of organisational commitment.

The literature reviewed in this section discusses the roles of managers at various levels the organisation in promoting a high-involvement culture and reasons for resistance of employee involvement initiatives. Roles and behaviors of senior and middle-level management were emphasised in building a high-involvement culture. The importance of the first-line supervisor was identified as the prime factor in building participation at the unit level and ultimately in the organisation as a whole. A key question arising out of the literature reviewed in this section is: *What are the behaviours and attributes required in a first-line supervisor to build an effective high-involvement culture in higher education institutions?*

2.6 Employee Involvement in the Educational Sector

The education sector has been affected over time by various societal, economic, and technological pressures. Ortmann (1997) identifies several pervasive trends in higher education and attributes them to the impact of technology and market pressures. These trends include: (a) the requirement for reorientation of curricula towards skills that are

marketable, (b) the rising levels of use of contract faculty, and (c) the increased use of computerised delivery programmes. He likens the use of contract faculty to industry's increased use of outsourcing and concludes that these developments address the need for quality teaching and curricular innovations. In particular, these developments prompt educational institutions to change, not as a result of voluntary reforms from within but through the pressure of market forces in a postindustrial environment. Ortmann describes postindustrial environments as characterised by increasing competitiveness, unstable environments, and scarcer resources.

While the need for reform is increasingly recognised, reforms in higher education have been guided primarily by administrators and academic researchers. Even though concepts such as customer orientation, reengineering, and Total Quality Management are now entertained by institutions of higher learning, faculty and students have been marginalised in the process (Siegfried, Getz, & Anderson, 1995). Mizaur (1992) argues that it is important to recognise the stakeholders in the current university environment and to understand their needs in order to make effective reforms. Employee stakeholders want to have jobs that are meaningful, to feel involved and empowered, and to sense that their ideas are sought out and used. They want to feel pride in their work and be equitably compensated. The funders are the second group of stakeholders and they are the taxpayers who desire productivity, efficiency, and a good return on their investment in the form of graduates who have skills to work in the new economy. The third group of stakeholders are consumers who want quality products and services from educational institutions. Kanji, Malek, and Tambi (1999) present a model of the customers of higher education as divided into two major camps: an internal camp comprising employees and students as educational partners, and external camps comprising government, industry, and parents.

Kanji et al. (1999) propose that higher education institutions are more concerned with traditional approaches to promoting excellence in education such as degrees, authorship, and research activities. A focus on these areas has hindered their responsiveness to the need for satisfying external and internal customers that has become more pressing in an increasingly challenging environment. Controversy surrounds the applicability of the

concept of the student as customer in higher education. Meirovich and Romar (2006) discuss the complexity of roles of both students and teachers, which prevent a straightforward application of the “customer” concept. For example, unlike typical customers, students actually participate in the delivery of the output. They may also engage in deviant behaviour such as cheating and arguing with the teacher about low grades that detracts from student-as-customer behaviour. The teacher’s autonomy in instructional design, delivery, and grading may also be compromised by the student-as-customer concept. For example, students may seek the easiest courses and soft assessments while punishing academically demanding staff through critical feedback (Clayson & Haley, 2005).

Short and Rinehart (1992) identify six dimensions of teachers’ empowerment that include: (a) level of teacher involvement in decisions affecting their work, (b) teachers’ perceptions of opportunities for development, (c) teachers’ perceptions that their colleagues respect their expertise, (d) teachers’ perceptions that they possess the skills and ability to help students learn, (e) teachers’ perceptions that they have autonomy over certain aspects of their work, and (f) teachers’ perceptions that they have influence. Although fairly limited, there are higher education examples of attempts to engage faculty more fully in reforms concerning improved quality of teaching and learning.

Pollay, Taylor, and Thompson (1976) report on the successful use of horizontal power-sharing and decision-making by faculty at a large university in selecting a dean. Use of small meetings and surveys combined with frequent feedback gave faculty members the opportunity for direct participation in the decision. The authors conclude that participatory mechanisms can be useful and successful in resolving complex issues in the organisation. An unintended benefit of the participatory process was that faculty were forced to examine the organisation’s future prospects and hence their own, which in turn facilitated a self-adaptive process in organisation learning. Anitha (2014) also gives support to the benefits of decentralisation of decision-making and sharing of power between management and the workforce as a key benefit of employee involvement programmes.

Buch and Shelnutt (1995) provide a case study of the implementation of TQM at the University of North Carolina. Two interesting findings are presented based on surveys of faculty and administrative employees at the beginning of the implementation of the quality programme and 2 years later. Employees felt less than satisfied with the administration's response to their suggestions, reducing in turn their sense of empowerment in the process. The role of unit managers was also found to be critical in supporting and promoting quality efforts. In a study of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment for university faculty, Cetin (2006) concludes that job satisfaction leads to higher levels of organisational commitment. Specifically, it has a high correlation with both affective and normative commitment and a negative correlation with continuance commitment, in that as employees experience more job satisfaction they are less bound to the organisation by extrinsic rewards and more by intrinsic rewards offered by the job and their increased commitment to the organisation. Shared goals and opportunity for advancement also lead to higher levels of organisational commitment. Most importantly, both the organisation and the employee have responsibility for establishing the culture of commitment.

In a study of the effect of teachers' participation in decision-making on their organisational commitment behaviour, Bogler and Somech (2005) conclude that teachers who are involved in decision-making related either to their classroom or more broadly to the school will tend to exhibit organisational commitment behavior towards their students and colleagues as well as to the school. A key finding of the study is that it is important to involve teachers in decision-making within the managerial arena to increase their sense of empowerment. At a time when organisations in both private and public sectors are being challenged to increase productivity and efficiency, it becomes increasingly vital for schools at levels to promote mechanisms for increasing teachers' organisational citizenship behaviours (Clement & Vandenberghe, 2000). Employees who feel wronged are likely to reduce their commitment to the organisation (Kickul, 2001).

Not all of the literature reports favourably on the application of employee involvement initiatives in the academic environment. Townley (2002) critiques the role of context-

independent employee involvement techniques such as TQM and their wholesale transplantation into nonbusiness environments. She argues that the universal and homogeneous application of management concepts focused on the most efficient use of resources, divorced from context, works against the essential purpose of these organisations. In support of Townley's views, Du Gay (2007) warns that the wholesale application of entrepreneurial reforms such as participative management to public enterprises may serve to incapacitate a particular organisation's ability to retain its identity and goals. Going further, Thomas (as cited in Shields and Evans, 2002, p. 83) states that organisational change tends to be disorderly and rife with problems. Managers need to reflect on their own organisational situations and tailor organisational change initiatives to suit. He further states that there are dangers in applying private sector models to the public sector. There are greater challenges in public sector adoption of change initiatives because of their distinctive internal environments, decision-making processes, and cultures.

The literature reviewed in this section of the chapter provides an overview of employee involvement initiatives that have been implemented in the educational sector, the potential benefits, and the requirements for successful implementation. The literature review also reflects disagreement about the various benefits of employee involvement initiatives.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research approach and methodology that were used to conduct this study, including the data collection methods and instruments, sampling considerations, data analysis techniques, and potential limitations of the study. The purpose of the study was to obtain data that could be used by management to promote higher levels of faculty involvement in their jobs and in the organisation.

The focus of the study was unionised faculty at a higher educational institution. To answer the research questions pertaining to this group, a mixed methods research design was developed and implemented within the faculty of a community college located in Toronto, Canada.

The central research question for this study is:

What are the factors that account for the success and/or failure of employee involvement initiatives with respect to faculty in unionised organisations in higher education?

The secondary research questions are:

1. What are employee perceptions of the benefits of a high-involvement organisation for both the faculty and the organisation?

2. Can high involvement and unionism co-exist in the context of higher education?
3. Do individual differences in faculty demographics have an impact on faculty perceptions of the value of employee involvement and the desire to become more involved?

3.1 Research Methods

3.1.1 Research Design

This thesis uses a research design, which follows a sequential exploratory strategy within the context of a case study. One purpose of selecting this approach is to determine the distribution of a phenomenon within a chosen population. It is also a useful strategy when the researcher needs to develop an instrument because existing instruments are inadequate or not available (Babbie, 1990). The qualitative section of the study comprised interviews that explored the dimensions of the issues and the quantitative follow-up survey was able to test these findings across a larger population.

The sequential exploratory strategy has many advantages. Its two-phase approach of qualitative research followed by quantitative research makes it easy to implement and straightforward to describe and report results. It is also useful to a researcher who wants to explore a phenomenon but also wants to expand on the qualitative findings. A key disadvantage of this strategy is that it requires a great amount of time to complete both data collection phases. In addition, the researcher has to make some key decisions about which findings or themes from the initial qualitative study will be focused on in the subsequent quantitative phase (Cresswell, 2009).

On the basis of an extensive review of the literature regarding the definition of employee involvement, of which an overview is provided in Chapter 2, a construct for defining

employee involvement was developed as a framework for exploring both phases of the research study. This construct includes concepts of employee involvement based on the work of a number of scholars, most significantly the definition of employee involvement based on the four criteria of knowledge, power, information, and rewards put forward especially by Lawler (1992).

3.1.2 Case Study Research

This thesis uses a single organisational case study, a method that is “an exploration of a bounded system or a case over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context” (Cresswell, 1998, p. 61). In particular, the context of the case involves placing it within its setting, which may be physical, social, historical, and/or economic. The case itself may be studied or the case may be used instrumentally, as it is in this research study, to illustrate an issue. Yin (2003) describes three types of case studies: (a) explanatory case studies, (b) exploratory case studies, and (c) descriptive case studies. The method of inquiry for this research is a mixed methods study where an exploratory case study is first conducted using a single case based on collection of qualitative data from both primary and secondary data sources. This qualitative study is then followed up by a quantitative survey that explores the themes identified in the qualitative study in more depth.

3.1.3 Qualitative Research

There are many circumstances that favour the use of qualitative research. First, qualitative research is useful for research questions that seek to address “what” or “how” issues, such as the research questions in this study. Second, a qualitative approach is best for topics that need to be explored where variables cannot easily be identified and theories are not available to explain the behaviour of participants. Third, a qualitative approach provides a detailed view of the topic when the distant view will not suffice and the close-up view does not exist. Fourth, a qualitative approach provides an opportunity to study individuals in their natural setting and reduces the likelihood of contrived findings that are out of context. Fifth, the qualitative approach allows for the writer to use a literary style and to bring herself into the study. Sixth, a qualitative study may be employed effectively if sufficient

time and resources are available to spend on extensive data collection in the field and detailed data analysis of textual information. Seventh, qualitative research is appropriate if the audience is receptive, as it may be in an academic institution (Cresswell, 1998).

Qualitative interviewing is an appropriate research method when the researcher needs to explore nuance and subtlety, take a new approach to a practical problem, and understand how a current situation evolved from prior events. Interviewees should be chosen from a variety of perspectives since “reality is complex and to accurately portray that complexity you need to gather contradictory or overlapping perceptions and nuanced understandings of different stakeholders” (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 67).

Interviews can enable the interviewer to probe the interviewee for clarity or more detailed information. However, they are typically more time-consuming and costly than questionnaires. The degree of standardisation of the interviews falls into three categories: the fully structured interview, the semi-structured interview, and the unstructured interview (Robson, 2002). The fully structured interview uses predetermined questions, usually in a preset order, requiring predominantly open responses. The semi-structured interview also uses predetermined questions, but order can be varied and the wording can be changed and clarification given. The unstructured interview is the purest form of qualitative interview format. where questions emerge from the natural flow of the conversation (Johnson & Turner, 2003). This study used semi-structured interviews, because while they may be time-consuming to conduct and analyse, they allow for an informal and open interview approach which not only wins the cooperation and trust of interviewees but also allows the interviewer to keep asking questions for an in-depth understanding of the issues.

Rubin and Rubin (2005) outline a number of considerations when assessing the feasibility of a qualitative research study. Chief among the considerations is that the study fall within the financial and time constraints of the researcher. In addition, the project should be not too emotionally draining, since in-depth interviewing may uncover stressful issues. A feasible study also requires access to appropriate interviewees at convenient times and

locations. Rubin and Rubin suggest that choosing a site where the researcher works or has close friends would facilitate access to research participants. However, the researcher is cautioned to be wary of a strong positive bias that could create interviewing problems. In this study, the above suggestions have been considered in assessing the feasibility of the proposed research methods. In consideration of the aforementioned recommendations, the researcher sought approval to use the case study organisation where she was employed as the research site. She also chose arms-length candidates from outside her immediate department to increase objectivity and reduce personal bias in the interviews.

3.1.4 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research may be used to test objective theories by examining the relationship among variables related to answering a research question. Variables are defined as a characteristics or attributes of an individual or an organisation that can be observed or measured and that varies among the people being studied. These variables may then be measured by instruments such as surveys so that numerical data can be analysed using statistical procedures. A survey design provides a numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population (Cresswell, 2008).

Babbie (1990) goes further in explaining the purpose of survey research: to generalise from a sample to a population so that inferences can be made about some characteristics, attitudes or behaviours of the population. He cites the benefits of surveys, including economy of the design and rapid turnaround in data collection.

Davis and Cosenza (1993) describe quantitative research as research that uses larger samples, involves structured questioning, and is subsequently numerically and statistically analysed. They also discuss two types of data collection, *passive* and *active*, which may be used in qualitative as well as quantitative research. Passive data collection involves the observation of characteristics of individuals, objects, and organisations used in research, while active data collection requires study participants to actively participate in the process

of obtaining data. Davis and Cosenza (1993) also address the degree of structure with respect to the amount of formalisation in the data collection process. Structured active methods are typically highly structured questionnaires, either written or verbal used in the data collection process. This study used faculty at the case study organisation to study attitudes related to employee involvement. The data were collected in the form of a structured survey and involved active data collection where faculty members were asked to complete the survey anonymously.

3.2 Mixed Methods Research Design Methodology

For this research primary data were collected using a mixed methods approach. The literature suggests that mixed methods methodology has received support for the interpretation is meaningful (Toomela, 2008). Mixed methods provide a deeper understanding of complex phenomena. For example, the findings of Schulze (2003) indicate that mixed methods research provides more breadth, depth, and richness as compared with either quantitative or qualitative methods alone. Moreover, Bryman (2006) indicates that most researchers say the rationale for using mixed methods is to enhance the findings.

Table 3 provides a timeline of the methodology portion of the study.

Table 3
Methodology Timeline

Date	Activity
January 2007 – December 2007	Design of interview questionnaire
January 2008 – June 2009	Interviews and data analysis
March 2011 – January 2012	Design of survey and pilot test
June 2012 – December 2014	Survey administration and data analysis

Phase 1

3.3 Qualitative Study

3.3.1 Data Collection Method

The qualitative portion of the study involved interviews with faculty of the academic institution under study. Data derived from personal reflections by the author of this study were included in the findings. Secondary data were collected from a variety of organisational documents including the results of employee satisfaction surveys conducted by Human Resources.

For this research study a semi-structured interview protocol was adopted to allow for clarification, but the order of the predetermined questions was maintained. The protocol included:

- A letter of information for the interviewer to introduce the process (Appendix A)
- An informed consent form (Appendix B)
- A script for the semi-structured interview (Appendix C).

The process for field interviews entailed (a) mailing out an introductory letter and the interview questions in advance to all participants, (b) contacting the participants to notify them of upcoming interviews, and (c) meeting individually with participants to conduct semi-structured interviews. Interviews were conducted face-to-face solely by the researcher. They were held in a private meeting room at the institution and were one hour in duration. Twenty-two professors were interviewed. To protect interviewee identities, pseudonyms were assigned to each of the interviewees and their discipline backgrounds and other identifying features are not disclosed.

3.3.2 Interview Guide Design

The interview guide was designed to address the major research question to broadly pinpoint the major factors that promote and those that constrain faculty involvement. Based on both the construct defining employee involvement (Table 4) and the key characteristics of the major models of employee involvement described in the literature (Table 1), the interview questionnaire was then divided into six broad areas: Work Practices, Resources, Management Style, Reward Systems, Organisation Structure, and Conclusions. Within each section, specific items defining characteristics of employee involvement were addressed (Appendix D). Participants were then asked questions and their responses were rated using a Likert scale to capture their answers.

Table 4
Employee Involvement Construct

Key criteria	Defining characteristics
Supervisor support	Degree of supervisory support with respect to “coaching” versus “bossing.”
Flexibility	Degree of autonomy with respect to discretion in job design and decision-making regarding work practices.

Knowledge	Employee is provided with appropriate training and development to maximise job performance.
Opportunity for problem-solving	Employee has opportunities for problem solving through group, teams or other quality improvement processes.
Information	Employee is given timely and relevant information on work processes through downward communication channels.
Power	There is joint consultation with management on work and organisational decisions. Employee has final authority and accountability for work related decisions.
Discretionary work effort	Employee has opportunities to further the organisation's goals beyond job parameters.
Reward	Employee is rewarded for good job performance and for expending discretionary work effort.

3.3.3 Sampling Design

The population from which the sample was drawn was unionised faculty at the case study organisation in Toronto, Ontario, Canada where the researcher is employed. Although the institution has subsidiary locations in Toronto, the research was conducted at the main campus that has 500 permanent, full-time, and contract faculty members.

There are two types of sampling techniques: (a) probability sampling where each element in a population is randomly selected and has a known, nonzero chance of being selected, (b) nonprobability or purposive sampling where the chance of selection for each element in a population is unknown, and for some elements is zero (Arber, 1993). Purposive sampling was used in the selection of the research participants for the study. Purposive sampling is the selection by the researcher of a limited number of information-rich cases suitable for in-depth research and is most commonly associated with qualitative research. (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). For the qualitative portion of this study, purposive sampling was used because of its advantages, including its being relatively inexpensive and

involving very little time to prepare for fieldwork. It also allowed the researcher to obtain an objective and representative sample from various departments, at arm's length from the researcher's department. However, its major shortcomings are that variability and bias of estimates cannot be measured or controlled (Davis & Cosenza, 1993).

Sample size depends on several factors: (a) scope of the study, (b) nature of the topic, (c) quality of the data, (d) study design, and (e) research method (Robson, 2002). The scope of this research study was narrowly focused on the views of faculty with respect to employee involvement in a single organisation, and the nature of the topic was clearly defined.

Participants were invited to participate voluntarily in the exploratory study. The researcher used a purposive sample selection approach in inviting selected employees across the six major departments of the college via email to participate in the study. Selection criteria included gender, age ranges, education level, and employment status. Twenty-two staff volunteered for the study. This was deemed an adequate number of participants for the qualitative portion of the study, as Crouch and McKenzie (2006) propose that 15 to 20 relatively homogenous participants in a qualitative study help a researcher build and maintain a close relationship and thus improve the open and frank exchange of information. This can help mitigate some of the bias and validity threats inherent in qualitative research. The researcher explained that the benefit to each participant and the organisation was the confidential feedback provided by the researcher outside of the research analysis and dissertation completion process. Previous support for employees conducting research within the institution and support of academic research suggested that participants would respond positively to the invitation. Table 5 provides a summary of the demographic characteristics of the participants.

Table 5
Participant Demographic Data – Qualitative Study

Gender	Education level	Age group	Full-time	Contract
Male	Bachelor's degree	30–40	1	0
		40–50	1	0
		50+	1	0
	Master's degree	30–40	1	1
		40–50	2	1
		50+	1	0
	PhD	30–40	1	0
		40–50	1	1
		50+	0	0
Female	Bachelor's degree	30–40	1	0
		40–50	1	1
		50+	1	0
	Master's degree	30–40	1	0
		40–50	1	0
		50+	1	1
	PhD	30–40	1	0
		40–50	1	0
		50+	0	0

The construct for defining employee involvement provided the framework for the interview guide used in the semi-structured interviews (see Chapter 2). The questions in the interview guide were reviewed by a panel of subject matter experts who were the human resources teaching team at the college. The expertise and advice of this review panel guided the development and refinement of the instrument design. Members of the panel were asked to provide recommendations regarding the instrument design and the wording of questions and statements. Additional revisions were made after feedback from the dissertation advisors was received.

3.3.4 Data Analysis

There are two major phases in the data analysis process. First, the interviewer prepares transcripts, refines concepts and themes, and then codes the interviews to retrieve relevant interviewee comments. In the second phase, the interviewer may compare concepts and themes across the interviews or combine separate events to formulate a description. The ultimate goal of data analysis is to answer the research questions in ways that allow for the formulation of broader theoretical conclusions (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

Miles and Huberman (1994) define qualitative analysis as “consisting of three concurrent flows of activity: data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing/verification” (p. 10). Data reduction refers to the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data that appear in the transcriptions (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The data obtained from the semi-structured interviews was transcribed and coded, using the employee involvement construct as the conceptual framework for the coding of the qualitative data. After coding the interviews, data were sorted by grouping all data units with the same code and examined for systematic similarities and differences between interviewees on the same concepts and themes.

Content analysis was also used to analyse data in order to provide a quantitative aspect to the analysis. Content analysis involved identifying and counting certain key words in a piece of writing or in the recording of an interview or conversation or surveys that include unstructured responses (Riley, Wood, Clark, Wilkie, & Szivas, 2000). Content analysis does have its disadvantages. It assumes that if an idea, view, or action is not mentioned, then it does not exist. It does not provide enough data for interpretation and meaning and has the sampling problems inherent in a quantitative approach (Riley et al., 2000).

Phase 2

3.4 Quantitative Study

3.4.1 Data Collection Method

The quantitative portion of the study involved the design and distribution of a survey in the form of a self-administered questionnaire to faculty in all six departments across the main college campus. The survey design was based on an analysis of the major themes identified in the qualitative portion of the survey that were identified and expanded upon in the survey questionnaire to probe more deeply into reasons for the qualitative study results.

As with the qualitative study, the population from which the sample was drawn was unionised faculty at the main campus (which has 500 permanent and contract faculty members) of one of three large higher education institutions in Toronto where the researcher is employed. The surveys were delivered to mailboxes of all faculty members across the six major departments of the college. They were asked to complete the survey anonymously and return the completed survey to the researcher's business office. The researcher picked up the surveys after the survey completion due date.

3.4.2 Survey Design

Survey research provides a numeric description of attitudes and opinions of a population through study of a sample of that population. It involves cross-sectional and longitudinal studies using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection with the intention of generalising from a sample to a population (Babbie, 1990). An assumption of using surveys is that participants are willing and able to provide truthful and accurate answers. To that end the researcher must be aware of possible biases in these responses. There are many possible biases, a key one being the social desirability bias where participants give a response that would reflect most favourably on the participant. In the case of this study's survey, the fact that surveys were anonymously completed and returned mitigated the influence of the social desirability bias.

The survey comprised a total of 54 questions, divided into eight sections plus a concluding section. These sections are Background Information, Work Processes and Practices, The Union and Employee Involvement, Rewards and Recognition, Future Growth and Opportunity, Work Environment, Organisational Values/Systems/Policies, and Management Practices. A majority of the questions were constructed in the form of a five-point Likert-type scale survey. Some questions required respondents to answer “yes” or “no” to statements or provide demographic information (categorical), while others required respondents to rank a list of statements in terms of significance. Together, these 54 questions serve to provide a comprehensive understanding of people’s attitudes towards answering the main question and its sub-questions, while supplementing in a quantitative manner the feedback received through the interviews in the qualitative portion of the study.

The Likert scale is a common and widely accepted rating format for surveys; a format in which respondents indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement with a variety of statements about some attitude, object, or event (Babbie, 1990; Davis & Cosenza, 1993). For example, respondents could be asked to rank a quality from high to low, or best to worst, and so forth, using a five- or seven-point scale. The Likert scale can be highly reliable when it comes to the ordering of people when one is interested in determining the extent to which respondents hold a particular attitude or perspective (Davis & Cosenza, 1993). The data produced from using a Likert scale are ordinal in nature. It allows for the ordering or ranking of responses but not for the measurement of distance within the scale. Therefore, it is generally understood that common discretion statistics such as mean and standard deviation are invalid parameters when dealing with an ordinal scale. The use of nonparametric statistics based on rank, median, and range, however, are appropriate for analysing these data, along with frequencies, percentages, and contingency tables.

The researcher designed the survey instrument to capture information in more depth than was brought to light by the initial qualitative study. Great care was taken in writing the questions, as improper wording may reduce understanding by participants and therefore produce inaccurate responses (Babbie, 1990). The questions were worded for simplicity,

avoiding jargon or technical terms. In addition, care was taken to avoid loaded questions, questions that had negative phrasing, or double-barrelled questions. To establish content validity, reliability in interpreting survey questions, and ease of answering the survey, a pilot test was conducted with five faculty members from the faculty team in the department where the researcher is employed. The comments garnered from the pilot test were incorporated in the final survey instrument (Appendix D).

3.4.3 Sampling Design

Unlike the qualitative study, where purposive sampling (Arber, 1993) was chosen, probability or random sampling was used in selecting the participants for the quantitative study, as randomisation allows for the results from a sample to be generalised to a larger population. A cross-sectional study using a cluster sampling procedure was implemented where the researcher first identified departments (groups) and then distributed surveys to each department administrator to put in faculty mailboxes.

Sample size depends on (a) scope of the study, (b) nature of the topic, (c) quality of the data, (d) study design, and (e) research method (Robson, 2002). The scope of this research study was narrowly focused on the views of faculty with respect to employee involvement in a single organisation and the nature of the topic was clearly defined.

Participants were invited to participate in the research study by way of a cover letter that accompanied the survey. The benefit to each participant and the organisation was the confidential feedback that was provided by the researcher outside of the research analysis and dissertation completion process. Previous support for employees conducting research within the institution and support of academic research suggested that participants would respond positively to the invitation. With respect to sample size and response rates, 500 surveys were delivered to participants and 175 were returned, signifying a 35% response rate, deemed an acceptable response rate for surveys conducted internally in an organization (Cresswell 2008). The length of the survey may have affected the response rate negatively as the survey took about 15 minutes on average to complete. Table 6 provides a summary of the demographic characteristics of the participants.

Table 6
Participant Demographic Data – Quantitative Study

Categories	Males	Females
Age		
25–29	6	7
30–39	16	16
40–49	15	16
50–59	32	22
60+	25	19
Education		
Graduate certificate	3	2
Bachelor’s degree	18	20
Master’s degree	50	47
PhD	14	17
Employment status		
Full-time	71	58
Contract	22	21
Time spent in organization		
Less than 1 year	6	7
1–5 years	16	15
6–10 years	20	10
11–20 years	28	13
More than 20 years	30	27
Years in union		
Less than 1 year	5	3
1–5 years	20	10
5–10 years	19	13
11–20 years	17	18
More than 20 years	30	27
Teaching Experience		
Less than 1 year	6	4
1–5 years	17	10
5–10 years	18	11

10–20 years	22	20
More than 20 years	48	16

3.4.4 Data Analysis

Fifty-four questions were used in the survey, comprising Likert, ranking, and yes-or-no questions. In total there were 175 respondents whose survey responses were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The survey allowed for respondents to opt out of many of the questions through the insertion of a Likert option under the heading “don’t know / not relevant.” In addition, there were ranking questions that asked respondents to rank only their top three out of five. This resulted in many blanks in the data, which inhibited the possibility of reliability testing, particularly Cronbach’s α for measuring internal reliability, which cannot work if there is at least one blank in each participant’s answers. Therefore, the data were cleansed and completed taking into consideration the blanks where respondents opted out or chose not to reply. Once this was completed, Cronbach’s α was computed for the data set as a whole and the data set excluding the independent variables with a focus on just the dependent variable questions.

Descriptive statistics. The next step in the data analysis process was an analysis and overview of the study variables representing the sample. Descriptive statistics, frequencies, and visual bar charts were produced to analyse each variable within the sample. While most of the data may be ordinal, means, medians, modes, and skewness can help the reader visualise where the distribution landed on a technical scale, and suggest particular importance for the binary variables, which can indicate which descriptor is more prominent. Such was the case with gender and union status, for example. The results were then discussed relative to the potential implications of the sample in the study.

Inferential statistics. While the questions developed for this thesis are answered by qualitative research design, a number of quantitative statistical measures were also to triangulate the research findings. Correlational research techniques were used to

understand the association of different variables such as employee work involvement, management practices, organizational values/norms/system, union presence and working environment. Although correlational design does not imply causation, some of the recently developed complex correlational designs allows for some very limited causal inferences (Stanovich, 2007). Moreover, knowing the correlation between variables allows for making predictions. For example, knowing a score on one measure allows for making a more accurate prediction of another measure which is highly related to each other.

For understanding the effect of variables such as management practice, working environment, presence of union, and organizational values on employee work involvement, this study also used multiple regression as a method of quantitative analysis. As there are many confounding variables that may affect the dependent variable, multiple regression was used to understand the effect of designed independent variables only.

In addition to multiple regression, exploratory factor analysis was also applied in the quantitative part as the survey consists of numerous variables with multiple items. The literature indicates that scientific studies incorporate numerous variables to characterize objects (Rietveld & Van Hout, 1993). As several variables are connected, the study can be complicated. In this regard, factor analysis can help to bring inter-correlated variables together under more general, underlying variables. More specifically, the goal of factor analysis is to reduce “the dimensionality of the original space and to give an interpretation to the new space, spanned by a reduced number of new dimensions which are supposed to underlie the old ones” (Rietveld & Van Hout, 1993, p. 254), or to explain the variance in the observed variables in terms of underlying latent factors” (Habing, 2003). Thus, factor analysis offers not only the possibility of gaining a clear view of the

data, but also the possibility of using the output in subsequent analyses (Field 2000; Rietveld & Van Hout, 1993).

3.5 Addressing the Central Research Question

For each individual Work Topic, beginning with Autonomy and concluding before the sub-research topics, Cronbach's α , descriptive statistics, and frequency charts were calculated and then discussed. While the percentage of respondents that opted out of each question was taken into account, the research looked at the highest scores for those that responded to determine the strength of each survey question.

Sub-Research Questions. While the above section reviewed the respondent's answers as a whole, the sub-research questions sought to combine aspects of the demographic statistics with the survey results to come to certain conclusions underlying the main thesis topic. Specific pieces of the survey questions were highlighted to address specific subtopics, and charts were cross-framed against demographics to provide visual trends in the data. This can be seen, for example, in the combination of age versus interest in employee involvement at work. This allows the data to be tracked relative to specific independent variables.

3.6 Limitations of the Case Study Methodology

Although the case study research methodology has been used in many situations to contribute to the body of knowledge of individual, group, organisational, social, and political phenomena in the fields of psychology, sociology, political science, social work, business, and community planning, traditional prejudices position the case study as a less desirable form of inquiry than experiments or surveys (Yin, 2003). Concerns about lack of rigour, insufficient basis for scientific generalisation, massive amounts of data generated, and the time taken to do so all contribute to these prejudices. Yin described

four tests that can be used as criteria for judging the quality of research designs: (a) construct validity, (b) internal validity, (c) external validity, and (d) reliability.

Construct validity refers to establishing correct operational measures. Tactics to test construct validity include using multiple sources of evidence. For this research study, multiple sources of evidence were made available through the collection of both self and participant information using semi-structured interviews quantitative surveys as well as various sources of secondary data. Sources of secondary data include organisational employee surveys and ministry surveys of college performance. *Internal validity* relates to establishing causal relationships for explanatory case studies and does not apply to this study, which consisted of an exploratory case study and survey.

External validity is about establishing the domain to which the study's findings can be generalised. Yin (2003) recommends the use of replication logic where the concept of literal replication is based on predicting similar results from multiple case studies. Although generalisation based on literal replication beyond the immediate case study research is not automatic, there is potential for generalisation within similar unionised academic environments.

According to Yin (2003), *reliability* is about demonstrating that the operations of the study can be repeated with the same results, with the objective "to be sure that if a later investigator followed the same procedures as described by an earlier investigator and conducted the case study all over again, the later investigator should arrive at the same findings and conclusions. The goal of reliability is to minimise the errors and biases in the study" (p. 37). The use of case study protocols and the development of a case study database during data collection increase the reliability of this research study.

Cooper and Schindler (2003) highlight examples of response error during qualitative interviews including: (a) failure to secure full participant cooperation, (b) failure to consistently execute interview procedures, (c) failure to establish the appropriate interview environment, (d) inappropriate influencing behaviour, and (e) failure to record

answers accurately and completely. These potential response errors together with researcher bias represent possible threats to the validity of flexible design research (Robson, 2002). The researcher may bring assumptions and preconceptions that may affect the behaviour of the researcher and those being interviewed. The semi-structured interview approach and protocol for this research study was applied consistently to each participant, using a recorder to capture the data. This helped to reduce researcher bias during the data collection process in the qualitative phase. Response error was also minimised through obtaining participant consent, preparing the participants in advance by providing necessary information for answering the questions knowledgeably, and conducting all interviews in a neutral boardroom environment.

In the quantitative study, reliability and validity of the survey questions were tested by way of a pilot test of the instrument.

3.7 Insider Research: Considerations

Some discussion of both the pros and cons of conducting case study research where the researcher is a member of the organisation being studied is required. Glesne and Peshkin (1992) identify many advantages to doing such research, including easy access to participants as well as obtaining information at a minimal cost. Also an asset is the knowledge and understanding of the organisation that the researcher brings to the study. Knowing the channels and processes for obtaining authorisation for conducting the research and having access to participants may also be facilitated by the researcher's inside position. On the other hand, this familiarity with the organisation may cause researcher bias in terms of values and perceptions of the organisation that may seep into the study. Another disadvantage is that participants may slant their information towards what the researcher might want to hear or withhold information that they may consider risky for an inside researcher to hear, particularly with respect to their views on study items such as management style. The researcher also runs the risk of being seen a tool of

management for the purposes of ferreting out information from participants that could be used to management's advantage (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

The benefits and limitations of the researcher as a participant in the case study were also considered. To really understand social meaning for those being studied, the field researcher must participate in the setting, as others do (Neuman & Robson, 2009). The researcher in this study has worked in the organisation for many years and has a high degree of familiarity with its culture and the experiences of its members. This experience facilitates empathy with and understanding of the participants' experiences, and provides a meaningful context within which their comments and responses may be interpreted. On the other hand, working in a very familiar site the researcher runs the risk of viewing the experiences of the group as normal, potentially reducing the opportunity for discerning anomalies in cultural and social relations in the field (Neuman & Robson, 2009). The researcher in this study recognised this potential limitation and made conscious attempts to avoid asking leading questions or interpreting responses in a biased manner.

The researcher has acknowledged these issues in "insider research" and has made every attempt to be as objective as possible in all phases of the research, including informing participants of the anonymity of the results and examining the questionnaire and survey questions as well as interpretation of results for potential **bias**.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

In terms of ethical issues, maintaining the confidentiality and anonymity of participant responses was a priority for this research study. All participants were offered the opportunity to receive confidential feedback individually. The researcher was committed to maintaining the confidentiality and anonymity of the institution and the research participants. The participants provided written permission to be included in this study and were required to acknowledge informed consent that specified the purpose of the study, the implications and benefits of participation in the study, and issues of confidentiality. The researcher also submitted the Griffith University Expedited Ethical Review Checklist

for permission from the university to conduct this study. Ethics approval was granted in July 2008 (MGT/13/08/HREC).

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter has described the research framework and method used in conducting the study. The mixed methods approach to research was defined and discussed relative to both the qualitative interview and quantitative survey approaches. Specifically, data collection, sampling design, and data analysis techniques were discussed for both research approaches. Limitations of both research methods were also discussed. Chapter 5 discusses in detail the qualitative approaches taken in conducting the study while Chapter 6 discusses the quantitative survey methods used. Chapter 7 provides an overview of this research study, interpreting the results of the qualitative and quantitative findings presented in chapters 5 and 6.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE CASE STUDY ORGANISATION

This chapter examines the mission and strategic goals of the organisation as well as the challenges facing it as a higher education institution in Canada. Also discussed are the planned human resources initiatives for faculty as well as the organisational challenges with respect to the promotion of faculty employee involvement initiatives.

4.1 Institutional Context

4.1.1 History and Growth

The organisation was established in 1967, starting with 800 full-time and 1,000 part-time students, enrolled in 20 programmes. Over the past 4 decades the organisation has evolved in size and complexity. Today, it is one of the largest higher education institutions in Canada with approximately 20,000 full-time students, more than 100,000 part-time students and more than 2,500 international students from over 80 countries.

Many full- and part-time programmes are offered in a variety of disciplines including Accounting, Business, Computer Science, Finance, Arts and Design, and Engineering. Programme formats include 4-year bachelor's degree programmes, 3-year diploma programmes, and postgraduate programmes. Students may enrol in full-time or part-time classes delivered in a variety of formats, including classroom, online, and mixed mode. Many programmes also offer a co-op component providing students with an opportunity to apply learning in a practical setting.

A number of campuses are located throughout the Greater Toronto Area and the student population, drawn primarily from this area, is very diverse with respect to ethnicity and age. Student benefits from the partnerships the organisation has forged with industry leaders include current and relevant course material based on industry requirements, up-to-date technology, and opportunities for application of learning through co-op programmes.

4.1.2 The Faculty

As of 2008, the faculty consisted of approximately 700 full-time and 1,500 part-time staff ranging in length of service from 6 months to 30 years. More than half of the full-time, unionised faculty had been with the organisation since its inception. It is expected that the faculty population will continue to age and retirement dates will be pushed forward in light of the abolition of mandatory retirement in the province. Given the organisation's strong links to industry, many faculty members come from an industry background rather than academia.

In the past few years the organisation has changed strategic direction with the addition of degree programmes. To meet provincial regulations for degree programmes, it has increasingly shifted away from hiring industry practitioners to actively recruiting individuals with PhDs. In addition to teaching, many faculty members run businesses or consult in their areas of expertise.

4.1.3 Union-Management Relations and Culture

The organisation has had a strong unionised workforce since its inception. Currently only full-time faculty are unionised but there is a movement afoot to unionise part-time faculty as well. Historically, union-management relations have been contentious and the organisation has experienced strikes or come close to striking on a fairly regular basis. The last strike occurred in 2014, and in the spring of 2017 a strike was averted by a very narrow margin. The organisation has had nine strikes since its inception in the 1960s.

It is almost a given that for every initiative put forward by management the union fights against it being implemented on principle. For example, the faculty performance appraisal system was introduced some years ago but was squelched on the basis of union objections around issues of equity in the design and application of the system. The system disappeared and a viable appraisal system has not surfaced to date.

This strong union presence means that management is restricted in its abilities to discipline and terminate inefficient faculty or faculty who commit egregious acts. If action is

taken, years may pass before there is a resolution of the disciplinary action. In this environment, measures of performance such as student evaluations have little impact from an administrative perspective on improving faculty performance.

In keeping with the presence of a strong union within the structure of a bureaucracy, the culture of the organisation can be described as complacent and resistant to change. For example, in examining the results of employee surveys done in 2004 and 2011, there has been little change in the complaints expressed by faculty. Complaints include lack of recognition for good work, lack of feedback for work performed, and lack of training to excel in work. These issues are discussed in section 4.4.2, which reviews the employee survey results.

The presence of a union also works against expression of organisational citizenship, as hours of work are carefully controlled through standard workload forms (SWFs) by both management and union representatives. If an employee wishes to do more for the organisation outside of their job requirements, there is pressure to make sure it's accounted for on the workload form. After working for the organisation for almost 20 years, the researcher can safely say that the phrase that best captures the organisation's culture is "the more things change the more they stay the same." A great deal of inertia surrounds many faculty activities. For example, in one work team the same issue has been put forward on the group's meeting agenda at least twice each year for almost 20 years.

4.2 Mission, Vision, and Goals

4.2.1 Mission and Vision

The organisation's mission is to contribute to Canadian society by being a transformational leader in providing students with career-related education and training. Its vision includes preparation of students for workplace success, providing access to higher education by offering comprehensive programmes, and encouraging continuous learning in students and faculty. Supporting applied research activities, developing an entrepreneurial culture, and embracing change are also key components of the vision.

4.2.2 Planning Context for Developing Strategic Goals

In developing the organisation's goals, several trends were identified in the external environment that would have an impact on organisational activities over a 3- to 5-year period. These trends were identified as a result of stakeholder consultations and presented in the organisation's strategic plan for 2012–2017.

Trend 1. Academic institutions in higher education are under pressure as a result of increasing enrolment and participation rates in the Toronto area, and there is inadequate capacity for the projected growth. The pace of technological change is increasing and learners are increasingly demanding choice and flexibility in programmes. Local and global competition in education and training is also on the rise.

Trend 2. There is increasing emphasis on accountability reporting by government and more competition for a fair share of a shrinking funding envelope. There is also growing importance of partnerships and collaborations between institutions of higher education.

Trend 3. Learners with diverse needs and expectations are putting pressure on academic institutions to customise programmes and develop a consumer orientation in delivery of services. The required rating of these institutions by consumers of their services affects their government funding and also promotes this consumer orientation. As legislation continually creates new credentials, educational institutions must adapt curriculum accordingly. Finally, there are increased avenues for intra- and inter-institution mobility, as students may start their studies at a college level and transfer credits to continue their studies at the university level after 2 years.

Trend 4. Academic systems are now faced with new employment and economic conditions, including forecasts of national skills shortages, particularly in the high-tech field. There is also a demand for continuous learning in organisations and by mature students who are seeking to change careers before and after retirement.

Trend 5. At the broad societal level, academic institutions are affected by an aging population and increasing racial and cultural diversity, particularly in the metropolitan areas of Canada. Increasing citizen engagement and awareness of environmental issues also puts pressure on academic institutions to measure up in terms of social responsibility.

4.2.3 Strategic Goals

On the basis of the trends identified above as well as the organisation's mission and vision, three strategic goals were identified in the organisation's strategic plan: (a) to transform the institution as the Canadian model of polytechnic education, (b) to build organisational capacity, and (c) to create a climate of innovation and continuous improvement.

With respect to transformation of the organisation, plans involve the design and delivery of advanced educational programmes, including offering bachelor's degrees across disciplines. Access to educational pathways in postsecondary education, acceleration of applied research activities, and expansion of international education are also mainstays of transformation.

Building organisational capacity entails providing facilities and technologies that reflect the changing learning and service needs of employees and students. In addition, fostering local and international partnerships in business and academia, as well as developing a culture of philanthropy, are key requirements for building capacity.

Creating a climate of innovation and continuous improvement requires the provision of continuous learning for faculty and students through provision of developmental opportunities, as well as the cultivation of an entrepreneurial spirit in programmes and business practices.

4.3 Human Resources Initiatives

4.3.1 Planned Initiatives

In order to accomplish the third strategic goal the organisation has identified a number of human resources initiatives. First, a review of current core faculty competencies and development of new competencies in line with strategic goals would be undertaken. Second, the current reward and recognition programmes would be revised on the basis of best practices studies as well as input from employees. Third, a new performance management system for administrators and faculty would be implemented. Fourth, faculty professional development plans would be created on the basis of results of the performance management process.

4.3.2 Past and Current Employee Development Initiatives and Rewards

Over the years the organisation has implemented measures to improve and reward faculty performance. One such assessment tool was the Faculty Performance Review system. The Faculty Performance Review system was first introduced in the year 2000. Its purpose was to encourage self-reflection and development of faculty that would ultimately translate into programme quality and student success.

Its major components included student feedback, peer review, self-evaluation, and chair assessment to ensure multiple perspectives of faculty performance were captured. Faculty were to be provided with a written evaluation once every 4 years. Student feedback was to be obtained once each academic year through end-of-semester course evaluations. Peer review was optional and could be requested by the faculty member being assessed. The peer review would involve the observation of the professor by a peer from another programme in the classroom, who would also with a random sample of the professor's students to explore their perceptions. The peer reviewer would then provide the professor with their own and the students' feedback in a follow-up meeting. Self-evaluation involved a personal reflection captured in a journal, a teaching portfolio based on a collection of samples of the professor's work, and a self-evaluation questionnaire including a gap analysis based on student feedback. Chair evaluations required a meeting with the faculty member once every 4 years to discuss the various components of the evaluation and to identify major strengths and areas for development. The scope of defined performance

included not only classroom performance but also revision and updating of subjects and academic leadership.

The performance appraisal system was piloted for one semester and disappeared afterwards. Faculty, the union, and the administration deemed the system unsuccessful, all for different reasons. Faculty felt that the supplementary comments made by students on the course evaluations were doctored by the outside agency to present a negative view of faculty performance. As well, they felt that preparation for the review was too time-consuming given the various assessment components. Chairs also felt the system was time-consuming as the evaluation form ran to many pages and chairs had hundreds of faculty to evaluate. The union leadership felt the system was unfair, primarily with respect to the student feedback questionnaire that they believed contained invalid and unreliable measures of faculty performance.

Currently there is an interim policy for faculty review pending a revision of the original system launched in 2000. The interim policy involves review of student course evaluations and informal discussions between the chair and faculty about the results. Generally, only negative reviews warrant a meeting with the chair.

A new system is being planned that will make performance management more meaningful and manageable. Essentially it involves the development of a portfolio by faculty including sample course assessments, graded work, and professional development activities. Faculty would also be able to request a class visit by a peer to demonstrate the implementation of new ideas.

Another initiative called the IBOX was introduced in 2004 to encourage faculty and other employees to develop and implement ideas for improving organisational activities. The scheme involved the faculty member developing the idea, writing a proposal, implementing the idea, and writing an evaluation at the end of the process. The faculty member was given \$2,000 to complete the project but did not receive any personal monetary reward. This initiative seems to have disappeared since it is no longer being promoted. Faculty did not

see the value of the suggestion programme since they were not personally rewarded for their ideas and work done.

In 2015, Excellence in Teaching awards were implemented in an effort to recognise excellent performance by faculty. Faculty are nominated by their peers and nominations are based on four criteria: accountability, collaboration, communication, and respect. The winner is selected by committee once a year. The committee comprises faculty, support staff, and administrators. The programme is now in its 3rd year, but the response rate for submitting nominations is very low. Generally, about 10 nominations are received annually. In my interview with the programme administrator, she acknowledged that the award was more for being a good team member rather than about teaching excellence. Peers cannot comment on the actual teaching skill of another professor since there is no classroom visit or other exposure to the teaching activities of peers.

Another initiative involved the establishment of focus groups where faculty could give input into the development of the academic plan that will be generated from the strategic plan for 2013–2018. There has generally been a poor turnout, averaging about nine faculty members in attendance at each of two sessions so far.

With respect to professional development (PD), faculty members have access to in-house PD courses. There is limited funding for outside learning activities such as conferences, even though in employee surveys faculty deem these activities more valuable than in-house offerings. Tuition assistance is provided for external educational upgrading. The tuition assistance plan provides an allowance of \$500 per course up to a maximum of \$1,500 per year. This allowance was increased from \$100 per course in 2013 as the organisation shifted its strategic direction to include degree programmes. Ministry regulations require a 50% PhD complement in faculty, and the organisation hoped to use the upgraded tuition assistance policy to encourage more staff to upgrade their qualifications.

Faculty are required to file a professional development plan once a year, but there is a great deal of latitude in the nature of the developmental activities and completion of the plan is

not enforced. The Professional Development department has developed a list of competencies for professors, and chairs are encouraged to provide time for faculty on their workload forms to attend PD training geared to competencies in which they require upgrading. Many reasons exist for failure of the current approach to professional development for staff. First, contract staff are not required to take the Faculty Development programme and contract staff are a significant percentage of total teaching staff complement. Many long-term professors also negatively influence new staff against taking the programme. The courses offered in the programme are online, and many faculty believe that the programme should be offered in mixed mode to provide faculty with hands-on training in addition to the online theoretical aspect of learning.

The administrative head of the Professional Development department believes that the value of these PD activities would be enhanced if there were a formal faculty performance review process in place. While the objective of the programme is to promote lifelong learning for faculty, chair resistance to sending faculty due to budget or time constraints reduces the credibility of the programme. Management believes that the strengths of the programme are practical, in that the courses are directly connected to what faculty are teaching and in its rigorous deliverables. The weaknesses are that not all faculty have access to the programme and lack of support by chairs.

Some challenges identified by PD management included how to keep older faculty engaged, particularly since mandatory retirement has been abolished in Ontario; how to get older faculty to use the teaching technology available; and how to move faculty away from the notion that standing and lecturing using PowerPoint slides is effective teaching. Another major challenge is lack of accountability for leaves taken for professional development purposes.

Currently, the reward system for faculty is primarily extrinsic and hinges on competitive base salaries and comprehensive benefits. In accordance with a unionised workplace, salaries are negotiated once every 3 years on the basis of the terms of the collective agreement. In the past 10 years salaries have increased on average by 3%

annually. Faculty also advance one salary step each year based on seniority until they reach Step 18 on the salary schedule.

4.4 Organisational Measures to Improve Performance and Results

There are two significant ways in which the organisation is measured on its success in achieving its goals.

4.4.1 Key Performance Indicator Survey

The first is called the Key Performance Indicator and is a survey undertaken by the Education Ministry of the Ontario government annually to rank the various postsecondary institutions on a number of performance measures. The results are used to allocate government funds annually to the various postsecondary institutions. Students at each institution are asked to rate their institution on a number of criteria. Likert-scale questions in the survey include the following:

1. Overall, your programme is giving you knowledge and skills that will be useful in your future career.
2. The overall quality of the learning experiences in this programme.
3. The overall quality of the facilities/resources in the institution.
4. The overall quality of the services in the institution.

For 2014, of the 24 postsecondary academic institutions included in the survey, the case study organisation achieved the following ratings (Colleges Ontario, 2014):

Graduate Employment Rate: 85.1% (ranked 23/24 with a provincial average of 88.9%)

Graduate Satisfaction Rate: 81.1% (ranked 20/24 with a provincial average of 82.7%)

Graduation Rate:55.8% (ranked 24/24 with a provincial average of 64.6%)

The survey does highlight the possibility of misleading interpretations of institution-to-institution comparisons since organisation size, local employment conditions, programme mix, and graduate demographics could skew the data to some degree. While there is little dispersion from the mean on graduate employment rate and graduate satisfaction rate, the most significant negative result is in graduation rate where the organisation falls significantly below the provincial average. If unresolved, the issues leading to these results will have serious negative implications for funding and long-term achievement of goals, in particular the second strategic objective of building organisational capacity by maintaining financial health.

4.4.2 Employee Satisfaction Survey

The second measure of organisational performance is based on Employee Satisfaction surveys administered periodically to faculty, administrative and support staff. The most recent survey in 2012 was an initiative incorporated into the Human Resources Branch's 5-year strategic plan. This survey is intended to be used as key indicator of employee engagement.

The results of the 2012 Employee Survey are summarised below, describing employee opinions regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation in key areas.

Organisation workplace and culture. With respect to strengths, faculty generally enjoyed being part of the organisation, felt that policies and procedures for the most part were administered equitably, and were willing to participate in committees. Staff also felt that they make a real contribution and know what is expected of them. Job security, access to information to get the job done, and cooperative team members were also rated highly.

With respect to weaknesses, faculty felt strongly that extra work and effort were not recognised and rewarded, particularly through advancement. Faculty also had little or no feedback on the direction or implementation of key strategic projects, resulting in concerns about trust, transparency, communication, and workload.

Rating your immediate supervisor. Strengths included knowledgeable supervisors who were open to discussing faculty ideas and suggestions.

Areas of improvement for supervisors included providing faculty with information relevant to their job, letting faculty know about policies and procedures, and, in particular, providing feedback on job performance on a regular basis.

Rating your department/work area. Strengths included a positive work environment and congenial peers.

Faculty rated planning and coordination of work by management as average to below average. These ratings were also given to adequacy of supplies and equipment, availability of training to handle the job, programme innovation, and effective use of technology.

Hiring and promotion. Faculty felt positive about opportunities for career development and believed a fair process was followed in filling full-time and, to a lesser degree, part-time positions. On the negative side, faculty felt vacancies were not filled in a timely manner.

Professional development. Faculty felt positive about opportunities to improve job skills through on-the-job-training and taking courses. Many participated in professional development, particularly when it was voluntary. Faculty ranked off-campus professional development as being most useful for their development.

Ratings were low for percentage of faculty participating in obligatory professional development sponsored by the in-house PD department. A high percentage of faculty were unaware of the availability or details of taking a sabbatical.

4.4.3 Survey Action Plan

Three pivotal recommendations to be implemented by HR staff emerged from the survey results. The first recommendation was to enhance and leverage the pivotal role of the supervisors. Findings indicated that employees trusted and relied upon their direct supervisors for information and that supervisors were a key leverage point in initiating any change in behaviour. Employees looked to their supervisors for information about their jobs and for guidance regarding the degrees of freedom they have to solve problems and to innovate. As a result of these findings, changes were suggested to facilitate improved communication between employees and supervisors. It was recommended that supervisors receive change management tools and techniques training in ways that would enhance their current role in the organisation. It was also recommended that supervisors receive coaching to develop their skills in seeking and receiving feedback from and giving feedback to their employees. The performance review process should be revised to facilitate the role of the supervisor in linking employee performance with organisational and departmental goals.

This initiative supports the employee involvement construct outlined in Chapter 2 since development of supervisors will lead to more supervisory support for employees in terms of coaching.

The second recommendation was to create responsive and accountable communication channels and content. The organisation believed that the core values of openness and responsiveness could be facilitated by a variety of initiatives. The first involved HR consultation with the Marketing and Communications department to create an employee communications model focused on the role of the supervisor and the basic principles of cascading key messages.

In addition, a specific communications plan would be developed by HR to deliver the college's strategic plan and other strategic documents along with their implications for employees. Finally, to ensure successful delivery and retention of key messages, HR would coordinate feedback sessions with key stakeholders to determine if they understood the information offered and found it useful.

This initiative supports the employee involvement construct outlined in Chapter 2 since it facilitates the timely and relevant downward flow of information to employees.

The third recommendation was for the organisation to develop and reflect its values in its day-to-day operations. To this end, each department would participate in focus group sessions to examine how they embodied the values in their day-to-day operations. Supervisors would be supported in finding appropriate ways to acknowledge individuals and teams that demonstrate the values in practice, particularly in the application of recognition and award programmes. This initiative supports the employee involvement construct outlined in Chapter 2 where employees are rewarded for good job performance and expanding discretionary work effort.

4.5 Summary of Challenges and Success Factors Related to Employee Involvement

4.5.1 Organisational Challenges Related to Improving Employee Involvement

A review of the organisation through personal experiences and secondary data reveal many challenges in improving faculty involvement.

Building trust between employees and managers is crucial for effective operation of the organisation (Earley, 1986; McAllister, 1995). In addition to trust, effective management is also required for creating a successful HIWS. A key organisational challenge is poor management in areas such as coaching, planning, and organising work that reduces the quality and timeliness of information given to the employee to complete work successfully. Spreitzer (1996) argues that an empowered manager is more likely to be successful in creating an empowering environment for employees.

The case study organisation's bureaucratic culture and structure promote primarily top-down communications with little opportunity for consultation between employees and management on work and organisational decisions. Tesluk, Vance, and Mathieu (1999) propose that a key barrier in establishing a participative climate is middle management's perception of their role as administrators rather than as participants in the process. Godard (1997) identifies a HIWS manager as one committed to continuous improvement that includes providing employees with appropriate resources to do the job successfully.

Another communication challenge is the lack of formal or informal feedback mechanisms that serve to reduce the understanding of employee needs for appropriate training and development to improve job knowledge and competencies. R. E. Walton and Schlesinger (1979) identify performance feedback for both employees and supervisors as key for implementing successful participation programmes. Trahant (2007) identifies frequent performance feedback sessions as a key success factor in improving employee involvement levels.

In the case study organisation, lack of programme innovation and the limited ability of the employees to implement innovations in a unionised environment with constrictive work rules limit discretionary work effort beyond specific job parameters. Katz, Kochan, and Gobeille (1983) suggested that an economic benefit of HIWS is greater flexibility in human resource management allowing for more innovative and productive options for the firm. While effective reward and recognition programmes may serve to promote programme innovation and citizenship, a key case study organisational challenge is the absence of such programmes. Saks (2006) identified rewards and recognition as one of the antecedents for employee involvement.

4.5.2 Organisational Success Factors in Promoting Employee Involvement

In the case study organisation employees cited equity in administration of policies and procedures as key in promoting employee satisfaction. They also cited job security, opportunities for career development, and fair hiring procedures as factors promoting satisfaction. With respect to the work environment, they were satisfied with the work environment and congenial team members.

Knowledgeable supervisors and an open door policy were also strong factors cited in the survey in promoting satisfaction. Elements such as fairness in pay and administration of organisational rewards, opportunities for development, and job security were deemed key in this process by the employees surveyed. Rousseau (1989, 1995) discussed the importance of the psychological contract in fostering employee involvement.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter examined the case study organisation with respect to its strategic goals, challenges as a higher education institution, organisational initiatives for faculty in meeting these challenges, union-management relations, and employee perceptions of the positive and negative factors influencing the development of employee involvement initiatives..

Challenges to the organisation include demands from students for more flexibility in choices, a customer orientation, and faculty with current knowledge. Other external challenges include competition for students as a result of globalisation and use of technology-based teaching, as well as competition for government funding based on organisational performance. In response, organisational goals include the creation of a climate of innovation and continuous improvement by providing continuous learning opportunities for faculty and the cultivation of an entrepreneurial spirit in programmes and business practices. To achieve these goals, the organisation has, with limited success, implemented a number of programmes in the areas of recognition and reward, performance management, and faculty development. A major internal barrier to achieving these goals is the historically contentious relationship between union and management.

Employee perceptions of the organisation based on past employee surveys by the human resources department are both positive and negative. On the positive side, employees perceive that administrative pay and reward systems are fair and value the congenial work environment and team members. Job security and knowledgeable supervisors are also valued. On the negative side, low levels of trust, poor managerial skills, lack of formal and informal feedback mechanisms and lack of effective reward and development programmes are key barriers to creating a more extensive high-involvement culture.

This study aims to explore in more depth the factors that promote and constrain faculty involvement and to provide suggestions to management for effectively overcoming the barriers identified to create a higher level of employee involvement.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH FINDINGS (QUALITATIVE)

This chapter investigates the factors that promote and constrain faculty involvement in their jobs through analysis of semi-structured interviews with 22 unionised faculty members at the case study higher education institution.

Semi-structured interviews explored the various aspects of employee involvement as defined in Chapter 2. These aspects were grouped under five major thematic areas: work practices; resources; management style; rewards; and organisational structure, strategies, and policies.

The diverse nature of the interviewees in terms of gender, years of service, academic qualifications, combined with the semi-structured nature of the interviews, allowed for in-depth coverage of a broad range of material. To protect interviewee identities, pseudonyms were assigned to each of the interviewees and the discipline backgrounds and other identifying features of the interviewees are not disclosed. Interviewee profiles are summarised in Table 7.

The majority of the interviewees had more than 10 years of service, full-time employment status, and a master's degree in their discipline, reflecting the homogeneous nature of the academic workforce at the case study organisation. There were only two PhD respondents, two on sessional contracts, and six respondents who had less than 10 years of service. The proportion of males and females were fairly equally divided in the categories of years of service and level of academic qualification. Since the sample was self-selected, care must be taken in generalising across the wider population of faculty found in academic institutions similar to the case study organisation.

The results of the interview data are presented through a combination of segmented themes underlying primary and secondary research questions using narrative description.

Table 7
Interviewee Profiles

Name	Status	Gender	Department	Qualification	Length of service
Dina	FT	Female	Human Resources	PhD	25 years
Lina	Contract	Female	Marketing	MA	15 years
Kumar	Contract	Male	Logistics	PhD	20 years
Tom	FT	Male	Marketing	PhD	25 years
Souha	Contract	Female	Business	MBA	4 years
Mike	FT	Male	Engineering	MBA, PEng	14 years
Ali	FT	Male	Aviation	MBA	10 years
Laura	FT	Female	Esthetics	BBA	8 years
Ellen	FT	Female	Advertising	MBA	12 years
Vince	FT	Male	Firefighting	MBA	22 years
Angie	Contract	Female	Animation	PhD	17 years
Alana	FT	Female	Human Resources	MEd	3 years
Bob	FT	Male	General Arts	MBA	18 years
Peter	FT	Male	Media	PhD	23 years
Dan	Contract	Male	Business Administration	BBA	9 years
Larry	FT	Male	Child/Youth	BBA	22 years
Fred	Contract	Male	Purchasing	MBA	16 years
Marianne	FT	Female	Fashion Arts	MBA	6 years
Ted	FT	Male	Info Tech	PhD	14 years
Randy	FT	Male	Marketing	BBA	19 years
Puneeta	Contract	Female		BBA	15 years

The employee involvement construct found in Chapter 2 provides for key criteria as follows: supervisor support, flexibility, knowledge (training and development), problem-solving opportunities, information sharing through downward communication channels, power, discretionary work effort, and rewards. These broad areas were grouped into the five major thematic categories noted above for purposes of data collection and analysis.

5.1 Work Practices

5.1.1 Autonomy

Autonomy relates to the degree of independent decision-making afforded to an employee in how they perform their work. Autonomy has been identified as a central component of a high-involvement work setting, and the ability of the employee to influence their outcomes through independent control over their work is paramount to workplace motivation and engagement.

Feedback from the faculty interviews identified factors promoting autonomous work practices within the institution, primarily the professor's ability to choose course material and to design courses. While understanding that general guidelines need to be followed to ensure consistency in the teaching material, faculty recognised that they are afforded the freedom to determine how to design, deliver, and evaluate their courses. Dina, a long-service faculty member, proclaimed,

I really enjoy the fact that we can design our courses and teach without interference and have total control in the classroom. (Dina, 2010)

On the other hand, Lina, a sessional contract faculty member, commented,

As a contract professor I wish I had more input into designing the course outline and choosing textbooks. The only autonomy in my job relates to my delivery approach in the classroom. (Lina, 2010).

Both sessional and full-time faculty agreed that the more specialised the subject area, the more autonomy in terms of design, development, and delivery of the course.

Factors that reduced autonomy included the need for chairs to sign off on exams and the need to submit learning outcomes forms with the exams. Tom, a professor with many years of prior experience in business, expressed frustration with the bureaucracy involved in course preparation and evaluation. The amount of paperwork involved in teaching in some subject areas was cited as a very limiting factor in their autonomy. Kumar, a PhD-level respondent who taught in subject areas with many sections and section leaders, stated,

Autonomy can't be increased unless I scheduled my own classes as there are 5 other course outlines and exams approved makes working at IBM look like a cakewalk. (Kumar, 2010)

A number of faculty suggested that autonomy could be increased by having more input into choice of textbooks and choice of courses to teach. One cited the need for team sections of the course that have to be delivered consistently in terms of course outline, content, and evaluation methods (Tom, 2010).

5.1.2 Accountability

Accountability correlates to the position of power that one has in their organisational setting. As defined in the construct for employee engagement in Appendix A, power is increased when management takes a joint consultative approach to work issues, and when the employee has final authority and accountability for work-related decisions. In this sense, power relates to autonomy and control over the design and delivery of one's work.

Overall, both sessional and full-time faculty indicated that they have a high degree of accountability for what happens in their classroom. Souha, a contract faculty member teaching for less than 5 years, stated:

Even though I am sessional I have full accountability in the classroom with respect to grading, teaching methods and student learning outcomes.

Mike, a full-time faculty member strongly stated,

I am the person ultimately responsible for what happens in my classroom. (Mike, 2010)

However, they argued that their accountability at the college level is limited because they must seek approval from the chair for almost everything, as the chair has the final word on all classroom issues that arise.

5.1.3 Problem-Solving Opportunities

When questioned about their problem-solving opportunities, faculty identified many factors that promoted opportunities for problem-solving. Ali, a long-service male faculty member, touted the benefits of working as part of a team as beneficial for problem-solving opportunities:

I really enjoy working with my colleagues in team teaching my assigned courses each semester as I get to share ideas for creative ways to teach and I also get to share ideas and solutions to problems we all experience in teaching a common course. Also, I like the social aspect of getting together as it's not often present in my day-to-day work environment. (Ali, 2010)

Regular department meetings were another factor that faculty rated highly as a vehicle for promoting problem-solving opportunities. Laura expressed her satisfaction with meetings as a vehicle for work improvement:

I like our monthly group meetings. I'm part of a good team where we help each other out. The meetings provide an opportunity for group collaboration and continuous improvement. (Laura, 2010)

However, a larger amount of feedback spoke against the availability of problem-solving opportunities, including a lack of sufficient team meetings and poor attendance at what are perceived as ineffective meetings. As Ellen stated,

What's in it for me? Will my chair acknowledge that I've gone to the meeting? (Ellen, 2010)

Faculty viewed the meetings as informative rather than an opportunity for problem solving, and as such, they do not feel that they are empowered to contribute to solutions. They also stated that the one-way information flow downward from management provides little opportunity for faculty input into problem-solving, particularly at the organisational level. Bob expressed the feelings of many of the faculty interviewed:

The monthly meetings are not for problem-solving, just catching up on what's been happening. There are not action plans that come out of them and ultimately you have to depend on your own support group on a regular basis to solve problems. (Bob, 2010)

5.1.4 Communication

Feedback from faculty interviewed confirmed that communication is facilitated mostly through email and monthly meetings, or by distribution by the administrator. While they agreed that email enables mass distribution, most expressed the view that it is typically the only method of communication and does not provide much feedback to them on strategic plans regarding organisational development. When there is too much email, the real message gets lost. Ellen stated regarding the organisation as a whole,

We're given strategic plans to read but no direction or clarification, and therefore middle management does it [executes the plan] without understanding fully. (Ellen, 2010)

The majority of faculty feel isolated because of one-way communication from management. Vince, a long-service faculty member, expressed dismay that

in over 20 years at the organisation monthly meetings were the only regular source of communication and there was no management by walking around. (Vince, 2010)

Regarding job-specific performance feedback, communication was seen as weak by the majority of the participants because there is no personal feedback provided except through course evaluations that are completed by the student, and the results are distributed to faculty too late into the next semester. Peter described the lack of feedback and its impact as follows:

I get no direct feedback on my performance. After the strategic plan is distributed in September there is almost zero feedback on work or performance issues. I feel totally isolated. (Peter, 2010)

The overall consensus from interviewees is that communication is done strictly via email and the real message is not always conveyed with the proper tone and tenor, or with the

proper intent. Angie summed up feelings about the inefficiency of communication in the organisation:

Communication is a major problem in this organisation. It's mostly downward and there is information overload in terms of emails sent out. We also get no feedback on our performance from management which affects my motivation and ability to improve my performance. (Angie, 2010)

5.1.5 Contribution to Organisational Goals and Development

Employees' ability to participate in the development of an integrated organisational framework, policies, and protocols that use and reflect their task-related knowledge and expertise makes their job psychologically meaningful and may solidify task-related self-efficacy. Employee participation is a central concept to the idea of engagement and building a HIWS, and those employees who are more involved in goal-setting and organisational development can directly see how their involvement positively correlates to organisation outcomes (Saks, 2006).

One of the themes identified through the interview process was the level of contribution that faculty members are empowered to take in the establishment of organisational goals. The faculty admitted that it is engaging to be involved in ceremonies and committees that help to create a feeling of "belongingness" to the college. Attending convocations provides a level of satisfaction for the faculty when they see their commitment to the students paying off in the form of student success. However, it was also argued that there are limited opportunities to participate in specific goal-setting exercises, and that participation tends to be limited to the typical events such as convocation. Ali stated that

I'm not asked and I'm not made aware of opportunities (Ali, 2010)

while Alana, a junior faculty member with less than 5 years of service, believes that with respect to organisational goal-setting,

my advice may not be counted because I'm younger. (Alana, 2010)

In addition, faculty argued that there is a lack of overall recognition, and do not necessarily feel that their contributions would be valued. Bob stated,

We the faculty, are grunt workers; you could be sucked dry in this place and they don't care. (Bob, 2010)

Positive views by faculty concerning opportunities to contribute to organisational goals included attending graduation ceremonies and sitting on various committees such as the cheating and plagiarism committee. Dina expressed her view on contribution to organisational goals as follows:

I have a high degree of intrinsic motivation and organisational citizenship. I try to promote our programme whenever I can and spend a lot of time sitting on external committees and networking with people in other educational institutions. (Dina, 2010)

When Peter was asked, “What could be done by the organisation to promote greater citizenship on your part?”, he replied,

Make me love this place. (Peter, 2010)

5.1.6 Impact of the Workload and Work-Life Balance

In a review of the workload, a majority of faculty agreed that the college involvement activities and workload are manageable and that the workload is not a limitation on their willingness or ability to be more involved with the organisation. Dan, a long-service interviewee, stated,

Workload has stayed the same over 20 years. In fact, as you teach the same courses over time the workload decreases as your prep time decreases. Expectations regarding preparation of tests has become easier also as chairs accept generic tests. (Dan, 2010.)

However, faculty also acknowledged an increasing amount of time spent on the actual teaching of the material as a result of larger class sizes, technological developments, and students whose first language is not English. These time commitments don't necessarily affect the content preparation aspect of the workload, but they increase the time required for voluntary services outside of classroom teaching time, which consequently detracts from the willingness of faculty to become more involved in other organisation activities. Larry, a long-service faculty member, expressed the view of many long-service interviewees when he described the impact of technology on workload:

Blackboard technology adds to my workload as it takes a lot of extra time to learn the new technology. (Larry, 2010)

Regarding work-life balance, most faculty were pleased with the large degree of flexibility provided for in their work schedule. Class time teaching is mandatory and the faculty are required to be in class 16 hours per week, but this is not a 9-to-5 job so there is a great deal of freedom. Fred expressed the views of many faculty interviewed when he stated,

Due to the ample flexibility in scheduling work, there is very little job pressure, and my job provides me with freedom for a good life outside of work. (Fred, 2010)

There was a consensus among faculty members interviewed that work-life balance does not adversely affect involvement in the job or volunteering for broader organisational activities. While this sentiment correlates positively with factors that promote engagement, Alana made the comment:

A high degree of flexibility poses a constraint on job involvement because everybody sets their own schedule and without any core hours, not everybody is at work at the same time. Since the collective agreement does not provide any incentive to get involved, and people are afforded an entirely flexible work schedule, it is nearly impossible to foster a culture of community and collegiality. (Alana, 2010)

5.2 Resources (Financial and Training and Development)

When queried on the training and development received to enhance their job performance, faculty members gave quite varied responses. Some argued that there were minimal opportunities, while others thought the opportunities were ample. Courses and professional development are offered in the form of basic computer training, but some thought the quality of training and development was poor. They believed that the programmes offered are inadequate, or are selectively afforded to some faculty members over others. Faculty also stated that a limited amount of funding exists towards training opportunities, and that budget restrictions and a lack of formality in procedural expectations are the reasons that

training and development opportunities are not widely offered. Furthermore, the faculty believe that there is a lack of information regarding available or suggested resources, and while outside conferences do exist, there is a lack of funding to attend. Marianne stated that

you are not rewarded for doing good, and not really punished for being bad
(Marianne, 2010)

and Larry offered the opinion that

people use this job as a paycheque . . . they come in, they teach and they leave. (Larry, 2010)

These statements speak to the reasons behind the faculty's lack of willingness to initiate their own training and development outside of the academic institution, since they do not believe that they will be rewarded or recognised for additional efforts. In addition, faculty stated that very few people want to change and grow – they want to teach the same courses all the time, and there are no rewards for improving.

5.3 Management Style and Consultation with Faculty

Faculty identified many positive aspects of management style including open door policies and supportive chairs who were nondiscriminatory in administering policies and procedures and used a hands-off approach. Most faculty also appreciated flexibility in scheduling timetables. On the other hand, faculty felt that there was limited collaboration with management in the decision-making process, particularly at the organisation level. They also felt there was limited acceptance of new ideas presented by faculty. Faculty members expressed the sentiment that they are always looking for ways to make things better, and in order to be engaged and proactive, they want a manager who is productive and efficient and has the ability to relate to people. Susan stated that

once you start treating people as people, it would create a big shift

while Souha expressed the view that “*everything is business, business*” and

if you want to get employees more involved, you have to come back to those very basic human values.

With respect to consultation of faculty members on initiatives, some believed that there is joint consultation but only at the job level, such as with course or programme review. However, it was also argued that the institution operates on a very traditionally management-driven culture that is not team-oriented and tends to be more authoritarian. Therefore management is more top-down and participation from the bottom up is not encouraged, which is a barrier to building a collaborative environment. Most faculty interviewed agreed that there is no joint consultation because of unionisation and the fact that everything is decided upon by the collective bargaining process. Vince expressed the group's sentiment best when he stated,

There is no joint consultation regarding organisational decisions, and the management spends too much time cloistered in their offices. Work is assigned arbitrarily by management and there is not much room for negotiating anything new. (Vince, 2010)

Faculty also cited a lack of leadership and connection to their management. They also felt some senior management lacked current knowledge and skills to manage professional faculty. *Traditional* and *authoritarian* were frequently mentioned characteristics when faculty were asked about management style.

5.4 Rewards

In the interview process, faculty were asked about the types of rewards that are provided for their contribution, the basis for the allocation of rewards, and the availability of rewards, both monetary and nonmonetary. The feedback I received was that the interest of the faculty resides with monetary rewards, but that the rewards system is limited. Regarding availability of rewards, Dan opined,

Rewards are primarily intrinsic, and teaching has to be a passion because no matter how motivated you are, you won't get rewarded financially. (Dan, 2010)

Faculty believe that the only rewards you receive are from students in the form of thank you emails, and that getting hired back is the reward for contract staff. Some faculty

members argued that they are never rewarded, verbally or otherwise, but others acknowledged receipt of a certificate of achievement or a silver cup. There was consensus on the notion that rewards are rarely offered financially, and that they are limited because of the union environment. Dina stated,

There are no performance bonuses, and the organisation's reward system is ineffective. (Dina, 2010)

Mike expanded on the impact of a lack of rewards:

Lack of rewards breeds an us versus them mentality and faculty awards are long overdue . . . the current reward system does not promote citizenship behaviour. (Mike, 2010)

When asked about their views on the organisation's current reward system, one faculty member answered "what reward system?", taking the view that monetary rewards are very important because eventually "all of us are working for money."

When queried on nonmonetary rewards, faculty consensus was that "we're not good at encouraging people to do extra," but that praise and encouragement would motivate by increasing self-actualisation. When questioned about intrinsic rewards and their thoughts on the types of intrinsic rewards that would accrue from working in a high-involvement organisation, faculty cited prestige as a factor stemming from working in an exceptional environment. Team learning was also seen as essential to developing intrinsic motivation, and was thought to be a factor promoting a higher degree of affective commitment. Faculty commented that the Excellence in Teaching Awards are a good idea but that the programme is ineffective in design and implementation since the award is not related to good teaching but team membership and students had no say in who received the award.

5.5 Organisation Structure, Strategies, and Policies

When questioned about the structure of the academic institution, faculty noted that camaraderie and the social aspect of the job promotes high involvement, and is fostered in small, team-based work units. One faculty member stated that high involvement exists at the department level. However, it was more broadly agreed that too many committees also exist, that they take too long to reach consensus and make decisions, and that the institution still operates according to the mechanistic or pyramid structure that was once strongly promoted by Frederick Taylor. Faculty members noted that the union contract makes it difficult for the organisation to develop a more inclusive structure, and there is an “us versus them” mentality where union reps and management don’t work together because of the high degree of centralisation in decision-making, which results in low involvement. Angie presented the view that

the union presence prevents flattening of the organisation structure, and departmental and functional segregation results in an adversarial culture.
(Angie, 2010)

Essentially, the collective agreement reinforces structural inflexibility by placing limits on types and amount of work that can be done and types of rewards that can be used to motivate staff.

Faculty made suggestions for policies that would encourage high involvement, including a greater focus on quality and a greater encouragement for professional development, as well as less bureaucracy for smaller items, such as having to get signatures for printing supplies.

When questioned about organisational strategies, Ted stated,

we need a total paradigm shift . . . everything is business, business. (Ted, 2010)

while Ali remarked,

You can’t fulfill everyone’s needs, but you can develop a passion for the majority and then you will have the high-involvement culture that people will want to be a part of. (Ali, 2010)

Kumar lamented the absence of more collegiality:

It's a faceless kind of place, you get your work schedule in your mailbox – there's not human contact. (Kumar, 2010)

On a more positive note, faculty felt the annual social events such as the picnic and golf tournament helped to build a sense of community and involvement.

5.6 Conclusion

In light of the themes relative to the primary research question on the factors that promote and constrain employee involvement in unionised faculty at higher education institutions, concluding comments from the interviews are summarised as follows:

First, faculty members believed that a more highly involved workforce would improve employee motivation, promote retention, and result in higher levels of organisational performance with respect to quality of education as the prime positive outcome.

Faculty identified several factors that served to promote involvement. They included intrinsic motivation from teaching, working in a diverse environment with nondiscriminatory policies, autonomy and flexibility in the work, and open door policies. Constraints on involvement included the organisation's bureaucracy and unionised environment, lack of resources for effective professional development, lack of visible and effective leadership, and lack of recognition and rewards. The general consensus of interviewees was that citizenship is lacking and many professors do their jobs and go home because of ineffective management style and the organisational culture.

In Chapter 7 these findings will be analysed to provide answers to the research questions identified in Chapter 1.

CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH FINDINGS (QUANTITATIVE)

This study sought to identify the factors that promote and constrain employee involvement in unionised faculty in higher education institutions. More specifically, it has sought to evaluate employee involvement with a view to understanding the organisational structure, policies, and practices that may promote high-involvement work systems, and to gain an understanding of the perceived benefits of employee involvement to both the organisation and the faculty.

Through the use of the literature review, broad themes were identified and used to gauge and measure responses for both the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the research, reviewed in Chapter 5, and the quantitative aspects, the subject of this chapter. The quantitative results seek to build on the qualitative findings.

Much like the qualitative findings, the questionnaire that was distributed was intended to gauge employees' perceptions and attitudes towards certain practices. However, while the qualitative analyses provided statements and opinions with a limited number of participants, the survey allowed for a broader view of the overall attitudes of the workforce. In addition, the customised Likert scales used added to the reliability of the data as a reflection of the intended themes. While the qualitative chapter isolated specific quotes, the quantitative data provided important defining characteristics of the sample with respect to demographics, employment, and union status and other relevant identifiers. The survey findings discussed in this chapter will support the qualitative data in a way that counters the biases associated with interviews.

This chapter presents a summary of the quantitative data divided into an overview of the sample, reliability testing, and findings as they relate to the data collected from the distributed questionnaire, as well as a conclusion summarising main findings and their implications for the overall thesis.

This chapter has been categorized into two parts; description statistics and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics focused on mean, median, mode, frequency distribution table, and pictorial presentation of the data. Inferential statistics were based mainly on multiple regression analysis to understand the association between independent and dependent variables. The internal reliability of the questionnaire items was first verified by running a reliability test using Cronbach's Alpha. Moreover, factor analysis was also conducted to ensure the construct validity of all of the items. Before conducting any tests such factor analysis and multiple regressions, a normality test was also run on the dependent variables. With respect to inferential statistics, several hypotheses were tested to justify the relationship between dependent and independent variables. For example multiple regressions were conducted to test whether work practices, management practices, work environment, and organizational values, systems & policies are related to work involvement. In this regards, both the correlations and multiple regressions were tested to appropriately interpret the relationship between variables.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for the 10 Demographic and Organisational Variables from the Sample

	Gender	Time in organisation	Total teaching experience	Highest qualification	Any ongoing degree	Current union member	Years in union	Age	Employment status	Ethnicity
N	Valid	175	175	175	175	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	1.54	3.51	3.65	2.86	.35	1.08	3.37	3.46	1.28	2.70
Median	2.00	4.00	4.00	3.00	.00	1.00	4.00	4.00	1.00	2.00
Mode	2	5	5	3	0	1	5	4	1	2
Std. Deviation	.544	1.385	1.351	.819	.851	.272	1.551	1.281	.487	1.460
Skewness	-.606	-.550	-.715	-.757	2.134	3.123	-.657	-.472	1.433	1.234
Std. Error of Skewness	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis	-.789	-.762	-.473	1.649	2.999	7.843	-.549	-.798	1.028	.400
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365
Range	2	5	5	5	3	1	5	5	2	5
Minimum	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Maximum	2	5	5	5	3	2	5	5	3	6

6.1 Background

While further sections will elaborate upon each variable individually, a descriptive analysis table (Table 8) provides an overview and speaks to the overall health of the data sample. The first thing to note is that while it appears as if there are no missing variables, in actuality coding has been added for answers not specified, which will be displayed later on. For some variables, this poses a concern and for some it does not. For gender and age, there are a total of five inputs missing which are attributed to mistakes in the survey, as participants may not have answered appropriately. However, a missing variable in the other cases, given the design of the survey, indicates that either the question does not apply to the participant or that they resolved not to answer when the options did not cater to their needs. This is seen, for example, in ongoing degree where 148 participants did not answer the question. As there are only a limited number of options given in the survey for ongoing degrees, the 148 missing inputs are translated as 148 participants who are not pursuing a degree currently.

Referring to the means for each variable, the data indicate that females are a slight majority within the sample, that most participants are employed full-time, and that the vast majority are unionised. These statistics are significant for two reasons. First, the distribution of gender within the sample is the reverse of the sample from the qualitative data making the statistics more equitable across genders. As well, the overwhelming majority of unionised workers and significant majority of full-time workers may play a role in the following results and therefore are important to keep in mind. The skew of the sample is worth noting as indicated above for the variables union status, employment status, and ethnicity. The sample therefore deals primarily with unionised full-time employees who are predominantly one ethnicity as will be indicated later on. Since the other variables are ranges, the mean is less useful for particular information; rather, it supports the general descriptors above to indicate how the data are distributed.

While some categorical variables prove at this time not to display identifiers for the sample, others, including their statistical outputs, have proven to provide a clear overview of the sample along with its distribution.

6.1.1 Demographics

This section provides an overview of the sample, its distribution, and how it relates to the overall population of higher education employees.

Table 9 indicates the gender distribution for the sample with 99 (56.6%) females and 72 (41.1%) males. Frequencies are visually displayed in Figure 4. This matches the statistics provided by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) that women have the highest tertiary education attainment rate at 55%.

Table 10 and Figure 5 visually indicate the age distribution for the sample. Age is negatively skewed to the right with the largest employee group being between the ages of 50 and 59. This is to be expected given the seniority policies within unionised settings and is indicative of the older employee base within the higher education industry. This matches the OECD statistic that Canada has the second largest proportion of population between the ages of 55 and 64.

Table 11 indicates the ethnicity distribution for the sample. The majority of respondents (96/175) identify themselves as Caucasian. This may not be representative of academic populations, which will be kept in mind during further discussion. Figure 6 shows the above graphically. This graph reinforced the larger issue of difficulties in educational attainment for minority groups cited in journals such as the *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education*. Maldonado (2010) addresses this issue and cites possible theories to explain why minorities are inhibited from having a greater presence in higher education.

Table 9
Frequency Table for Gender (%)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Not Selected	4	2.3
Valid Male	72	41.1
Valid Female	99	56.6
Valid Total	175	100.0

Figure 4
Bar Chart for Gender (%)

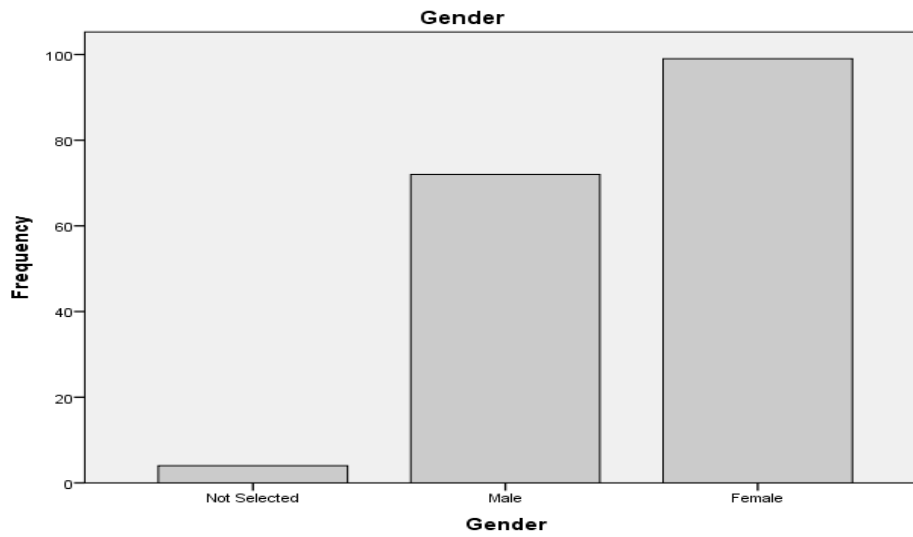


Table 10
Frequency Table for Age (%)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Not Selected	1	0.6
Valid 25–29 yrs	13	7.4
30–39 yrs	32	18.3
40–49 yrs	31	17.7
50–59 yrs	54	30.9
60+ yrs	44	25.1
Total	175	100.0

Figure 5
Bar Chart for Age (%)

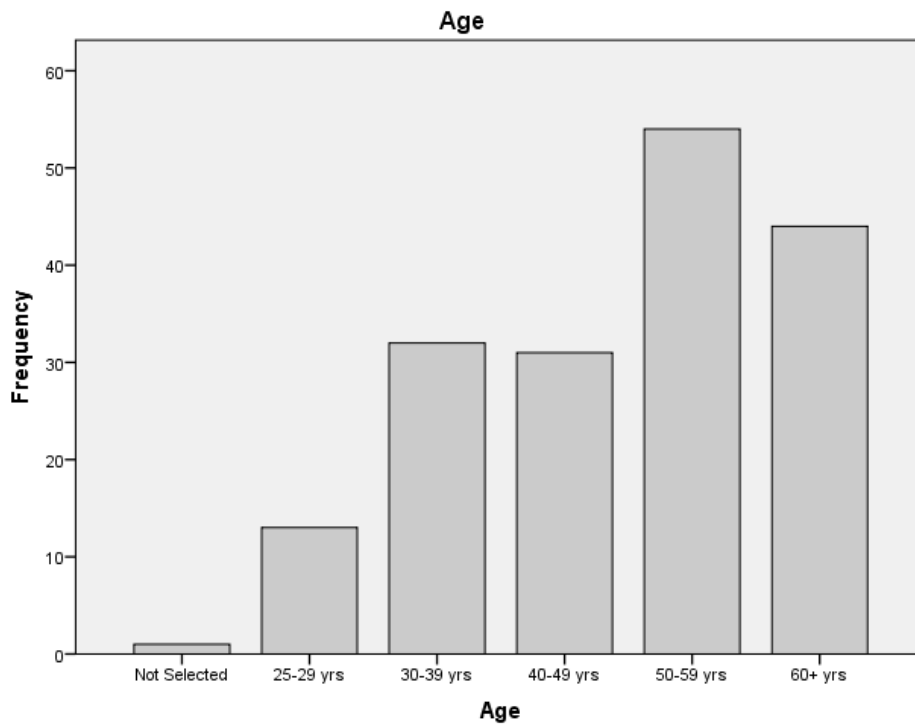
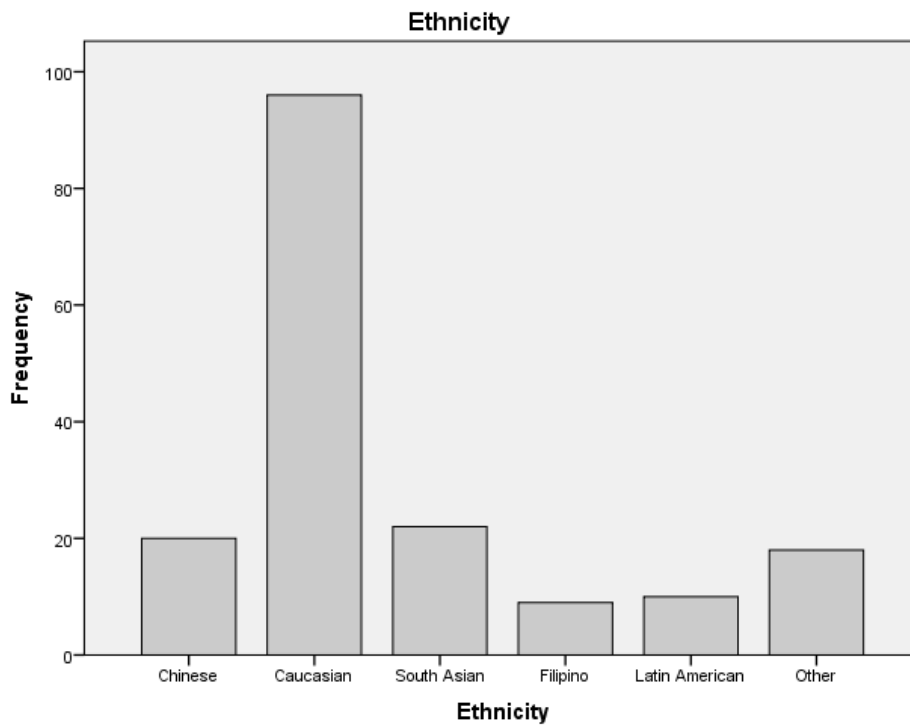


Table 11
Frequency Table for Ethnicity (%)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Chinese	20	11.4
Caucasian	96	54.9
South Asian	22	12.6
Valid Filipino	9	5.1
Latin American	10	5.7
Other	18	10.3
Total	175	100.0

Figure 6
Bar Chart for Ethnicity (%)



6.1.2 Education

Figure 7 shows a natural distribution for highest qualification with the majority holding a master's degree. This finding reflects the current level of academic achievement for most professors at the community college level in Canada.

Table 12
Frequency Table for Highest Qualification of
Participants (%)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Not Selected	3	1.7
Valid Grad. certificate/diploma	5	2.9
Valid Bachelor's	38	21.7
Valid Master's	97	55.4
Valid PhD	31	17.7
Valid 5	1	0.6
Total	175	100.0

Figure 7

Bar Chart for Highest Qualification (%)

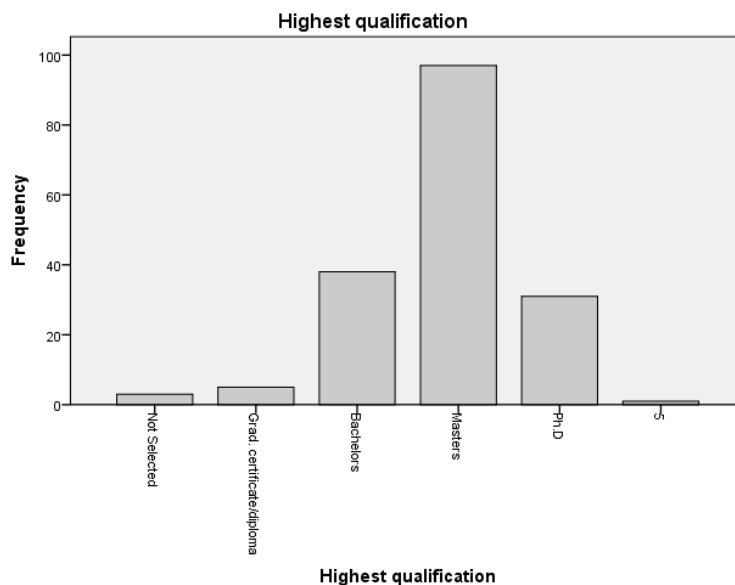
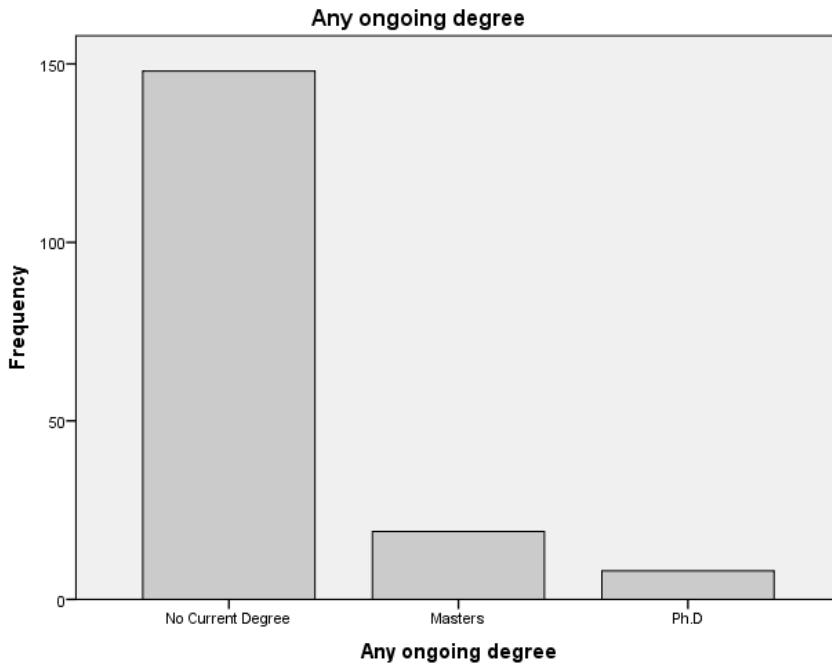


Table 13 indicates that a vast majority of the sample are not currently pursuing an ongoing degree. Figure 8 represents, visually, the makeup of participants who currently are pursuing an ongoing degree with the majority being in a master's programme.

Table 13
Frequency Table for Ongoing Degrees of
Participants (%)

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	No Current Degree	148	84.6
	Master's	19	10.9
	PhD	8	4.6
	Total	175	100.0

Figure 8
Bar Chart for Ongoing Degree (%)



6.1.3 Employment Status and Work Experience

Table 14 and Figure 9 indicate the time employees have spent at the organisation. The distribution has a negative skew to the left: approximately 33% have 20+ years at the organisation.

Table 14
Frequency Table for Time Spent at the
Organisation (%)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Not Selected	3	1.7
< 1 yr	13	7.4
1–5 yrs	31	17.7
Valid 6–10 yrs	30	17.1
11–20 yrs	41	23.4
> 20 yrs	57	32.6
Total	175	100.0

Figure 9

Bar Chart for Time in Organisation (%)

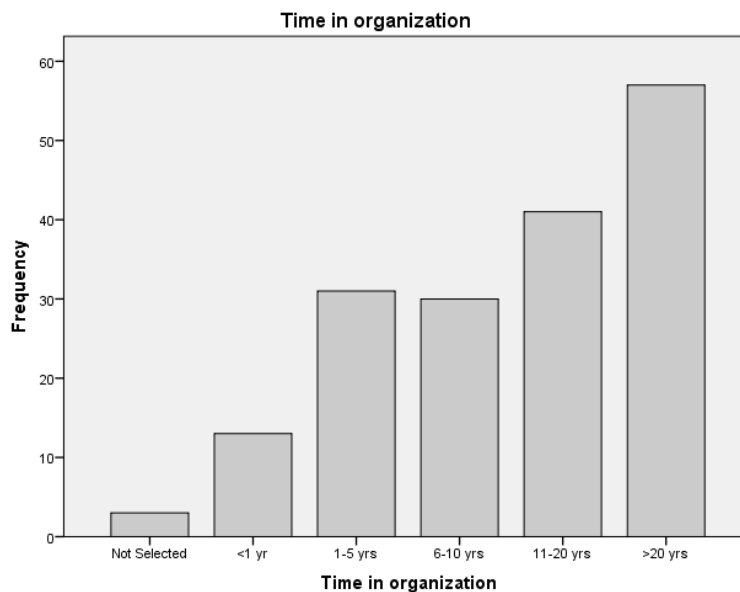
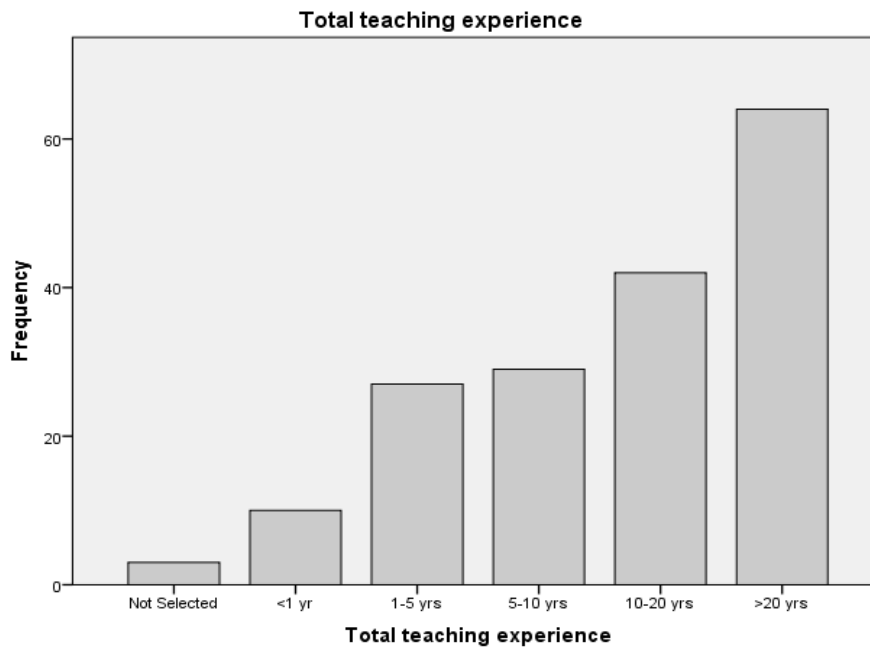


Table 15 and Figure 10 display the total number of years of teaching experience for each employee with the majority at around 37% with 20+ years of teaching experience. This question also shows a negative skew with a left tail.

Table 15
Frequency Table for Total Teaching Experience
 (%)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Not Selected	3	1.7
< 1 yr	10	5.7
1-5 yrs	27	15.4
Valid 5-10 yrs	29	16.6
10-20 yrs	42	24.0
> 20 yrs	64	36.6
Total	175	100.0

Figure 10
Bar Chart for Total Teaching Experience (%)

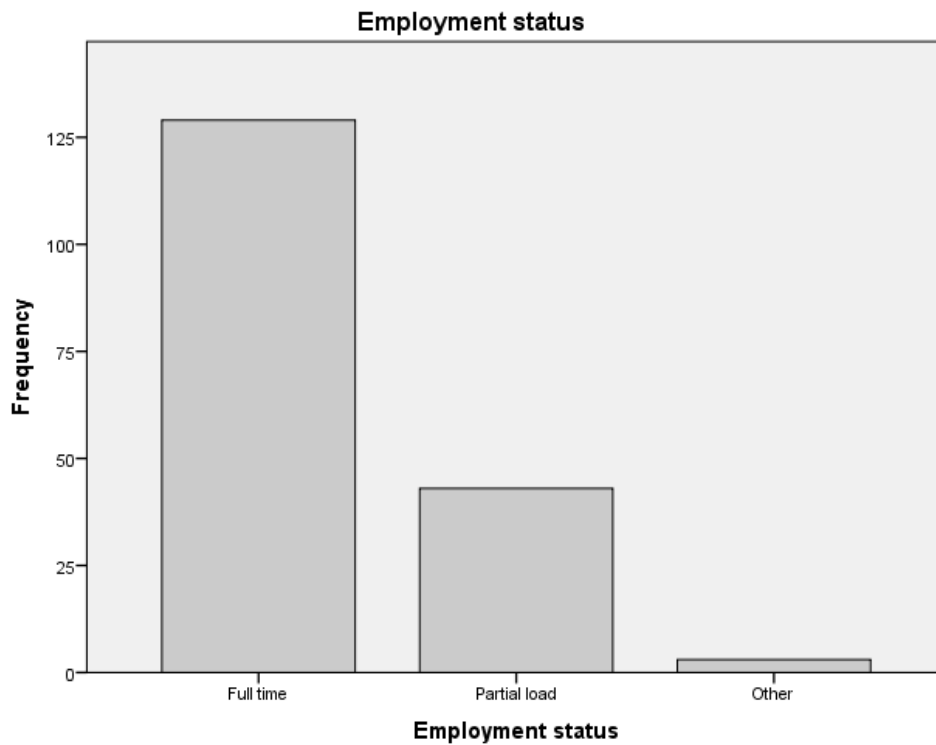


As we see from Table 16 and Figure 11, a majority of respondents indicated that they are full-time employees.

Table 16
Frequency Table for Employment Status (%)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Full-time	129	73.7
Valid Partial load	43	24.6
Valid Other	3	1.7
Total	175	100.0

Figure 11
Bar Chart for Employment Status (%)



6.1.4 Union Membership

As we see from Table 17 and Figure 12, a large majority of respondents indicated that they are current union members.

Table 17

Frequency Table for Current Union Membership (%)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid Yes	161	92.0
No	14	8.0
Total	175	100.0

Figure 12

Bar Chart for Current Union Membership (%)

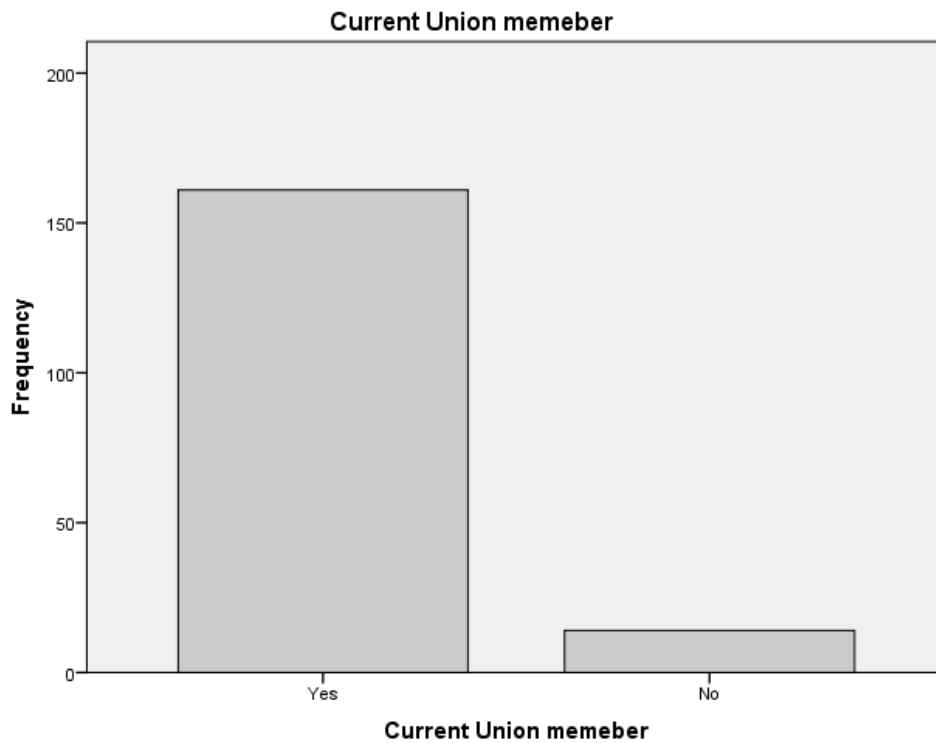
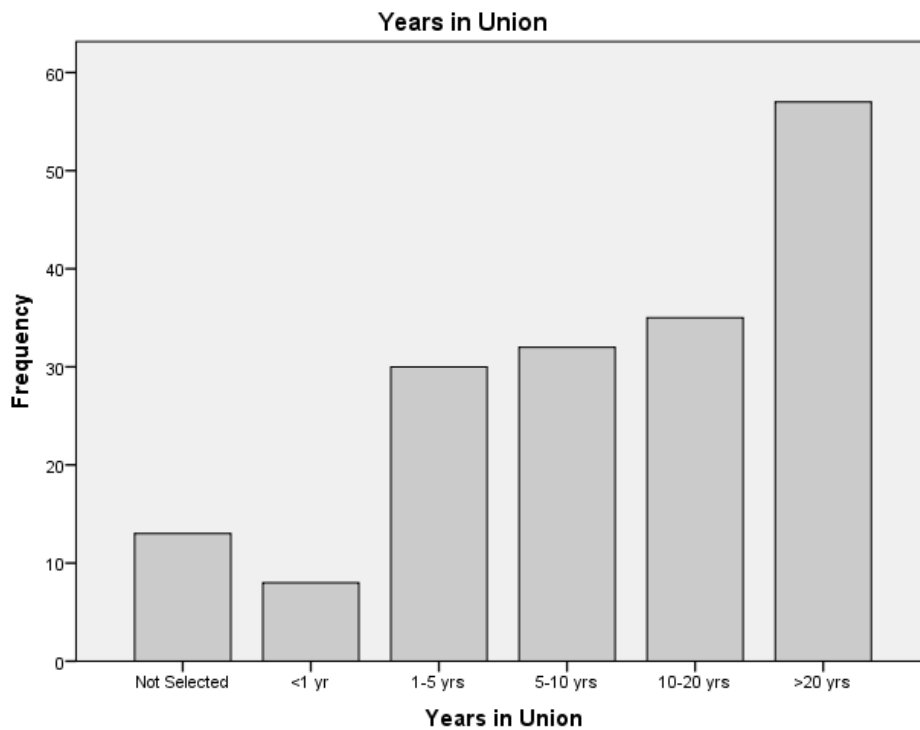


Table 18 and Figure 13 indicate an abnormal skew for how many years each employee has been in a union. Approximately 33% indicated 20+ years in the union.

Table 18
Frequency Table for Years in Union (%)

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Not Selected	13	7.4
< 1 yr	8	4.6
1-5 yrs	30	17.1
Valid 5-10 yrs	32	18.3
10-20 yrs	35	20.0
> 20 yrs	57	32.6
Total	175	100.0

Figure 13
Bar Chart for Years in Union (%)



6.1.5 Reliability Testing

The data were cleaned for mistakes and survey imperfections, resulting in the reliability score shown in Table 19.

Table 19

Cronbach's α Test (All Variables)

Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Case Processing Summary

		<i>N</i>	%
Cases	Valid	175	100.0
	Excluded	0	0.0
	Total	175	100.0

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's α	Cronbach's α Based on Standardised Items	<i>N</i> of Items
.936	.935	252

As reflected in Table 19, the α score, taking into consideration all the survey questions, is .936, which scores high for internal validity of the questions. When some of the items were removed to test the internal reliability of the survey questions, the results displayed a similarly high level of reliability.

Table 20

Cronbach's α Test (Questionnaire Portion of Survey)

Cronbach's α	Cronbach's α Based on Standardised Items	<i>N</i> of Items
.939	.939	242

6.2 Work Processes and Practices

6.2.1 Autonomy

A key factor contributing to employee involvement is the degree of employee autonomy. Hence, questions that dealt with the gap between desired and actual levels of faculty autonomy were deemed important.

Table 21

Descriptive Statistics for Question 20: What are the three most significant factors that serve to limit autonomy in your job?

		1	2	3	4	5
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		1.89	2.32	2.25	2.45	2.81
Median		1.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	3.00
Mode		1	3	1	0	5
Std. Deviation		1.557	1.402	1.514	1.764	1.748
Skewness		.775	.097	.228	-.125	-.221
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		-.491	-.736	-1.042	-1.282	-1.157
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365	.365	.365
Cronbach's α		.546				

In this question (Table 21), the means and distribution statistics serve in reverse, as lower scores will produce higher significance for each question. Noted above were a positively skewed mean, median, and mode for factors 1 and 3. Factor 2 showed a moderate significance with a fairly normal distribution. Most participants decided not to select factor 4 in their ranking while most agreed that the last factor (5) was of little significance to overall autonomy. The above table also indicates a medium level of internal reliability for the questions in the survey that related to autonomy.

Table 22

Frequency Table for Question 20: What are the three most significant factors which serve to limit autonomy in your job? (%)

	Highest significance	High significance	Moderate significance	Low significance	Lowest significance	Not selected
1. Collective agreement	38.3	16.0	12.0	6.3	11.4	16.0
2. chair approval of tests and exams	20.0	22.3	27.4	12.0	7.4	10.9
3. limited choices about subjects taught	24.6	22.3	14.3	18.3	8.0	12.6
4. team teaching courses	6.3	16.0	20.6	17.7	14.9	24.6
5. curriculum requirements by professional bodies	7.4	19.4	20.0	11.4	25.7	16.0

Of the respondents who selected, most chose the collective agreement as the top factor, which serves to limit autonomy (Table 22). The second most common factor was *limited choices about subjects taught*. *Chair approval of tests and exams* and *team teaching courses* were chosen as “moderate significance” factors while *curriculum requirements by professional bodies* was chosen as having the least amount of significance affecting autonomy.

6.2.2 Impact of Workload

Workload is an important factor given that it reflects how employee time is managed in the workplace, and how much of their time is allotted for involvement, particularly at the organisational level.

Table 23
Descriptive Statistics for Statements on Workload

		A	B	C	D	E	F	G
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.90	3.82	3.35	3.34	3.76	3.25	3.53
Median		4.00	4.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	3.00	4.00
Mode		4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Skewness		1.680	1.068	1.539	1.527	1.275	.634	.712
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184
Cronbach's α		.854						

Distribution is high for questions related to workload with the majority of respondents indicating that they mostly agree to all of the related statements (Table 24). Questions within the survey related to workload displayed a high internal reliability at .854 (Table 23).

Table 24

Frequency Table for Statements on Workload: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (%)

		Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know/ Not relevant
A	My workload (teaching, professional activities) is reasonable	0.0	4.0	9.7	81.1	4.6	0.6
B	I have enough time to do my daily work adequately	0.0	6.3	13.1	74.9	5.1	0.6
C	I have enough time for planning and development with respect to the courses I teach	0.6	28.6	17.7	48.0	3.4	1.7
D	My involvement in broader organisational activities (e.g. committees) is not limited by my workload	1.7	17.1	33.7	44.6	1.7	1.1
E	My job provides me with a satisfactory work-life balance	0.0	5.1	23.4	64.0	6.9	0.6
F	The organisation provides adequate opportunities for meeting my social needs	4.0	17.1	34.9	40.0	3.4	0.6
G	I know what performance expectation are related to my job	4.0	13.7	18.3	58.3	4.6	1.1

Table 25

Descriptive Statistics for Ranking of Stress-Related Factors

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		.25	.17	.33	.14	.26	.26	.21
Median		.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Mode		0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Skewness		3.130	5.955	2.509	4.783	3.991	4.309	5.334
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184

The distribution for statements related to stress is positively skewed, given that most respondents chose to opt out of selecting their personal ranking of these statements. Of those that responded, Table 26 indicates that *resolving student issues* and *bureaucratic policies and procedures related to teaching* were ranked as the top two stress-related factors.

Table 26

Frequency Table for Ranking of Stress-Related Factors: Which of the following are the three most significant sources of stress for you? (%)

	Highest	Medium	Lowest	Not selected
1. Resolving student issues	6.9	1.1	5.1	86.9
2. Little time for planning and updating courses	0.6	4.6	1.1	93.7
3. Bureaucratic policies and procedures related to teaching	4.6	6.3	4.6	84.6
4. Ineffective communication channels	4.0	1.1	1.7	93.2
5. Heavy teaching workload	2.3	2.3	3.4	92.1
6. Repetitive work (teaching same courses repeatedly)	1.7	2.9	2.9	92.6
7. Classroom challenges (cultural and language barriers)	0.6	0.6	2.9	96

6.2.3 Work-Life Balance

In response to the statement *my job provides me with a satisfactory work-life balance* (Table 24 – E), approximately 64% of respondents “mostly agreed,” while approximately 7% “strongly agreed” and approximately 5% “mostly disagreed.”

6.2.4 Opportunities to Contribute to Organisation’s Goals

Questions that gauge attitudes towards organisational goals speak directly to employee involvement initiatives. Using more direct questions with specific behaviours versus questions gauging interest in employee involvement in general allows respondents to better

express their opinions about specific engagement activities versus the broad idea of engagement itself.

Table 27
Descriptive Statistics for Questions Pertaining to Job Contributions

		Effort beyond expected	Contribution beyond job requirement (Importance)	Contribution beyond job requirement (Perceived work presence)
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		3.61	3.45	2.62
Median		4.00	3.00	3.00
Mode		4	3	3
Skewness		.603	1.684	1.687
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		4.222	8.954	10.762
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365

When participants were asked whether they would be willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help the organisation be successful, the majority of respondents (46.3%) indicated that they mostly agree. Table 27 indicated a discrepancy in the distribution between employees' contribution to job requirements as a reflection of their perceived importance versus perceived presence, in that they believe there should be more opportunities to contribute than are actually offered. This can be seen in the mean of 3.45 for importance of opportunities to contribute dropping to 2.62 when indicating presence of opportunities to contribute.

Table 28

Frequency Tables for Questions Pertaining to Job Contributions: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (%)

	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know/Not relevant
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organisation be successful	0.6	13.1	26.9	46.3	12.6	0.6
	Not important	Slightly important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	Do not know/Not relevant
opportunities to contribute to organisation goals beyond job requirements (rated by importance)	1.1	11.4	41.7	37.7	6.9	1.1
	Not present	Slightly present	Somewhat present	Very present	Extremely present	Do not know/Not relevant
opportunities to contribute to organisation goals beyond job requirements (rated by perceived current presence in workplace)	9.1	34.3	46.3	8.6	1.1	0.6

Approximately 59% of the respondents either “strongly” or “mostly agreed” with the statement *I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organisation be successful* (Table 28). When asked about the degree to which *opportunities to contribute to organisation goals beyond job requirements*, 41.7% noted it was “somewhat important” while 37.7% stated it was “very important.” When asked to what extent this factor was present in their current place of work, 34.3% indicated it was “slightly present” where 46.3% indicated it was “somewhat present.” While both gauges appear to have the highest respondents in the “somewhat” measure, the descriptive statistics, and particularly the means at 3.45 and 2.62 respectively, indicate a gap in what

employees feel they need (displayed through perceived importance) and what is the case in the work environment (perceived presence). Participants feel greatly inclined to contribute to organisational goals beyond what is expected and view it as highly important but feel that these initiatives are not actually addressed within the workplace.

6.2.5 Problem-Solving Opportunities

Problem-solving represents a higher-order engagement beyond the basic duties of faculty jobs. Gauging problem-solving opportunities seeks to identify the gap between faculty perceptions of the importance of problem-solving opportunities in fostering involvement and the degree to which these opportunities are available on the job

Table 29
Descriptive Statistics for Questions Pertaining to Problem-Solving

		Opportunities for problem-solving (Perceived importance)	Opportunities for problem-solving (Perceived presence)
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175
	Missing	0	0
Mean		3.77	2.80
Median		4.00	3.00
Mode		4	3
Skewness		2.012	1.343
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184
Kurtosis		10.895	8.861
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365

Problem-solving is another area in which there is a decline in what employees feel is important versus what is actually present in the workplace, with a mean of 3.77 for importance dropping to 2.80 for presence (Table 29).

Table 30

Frequency Tables for Questions Pertaining to Problem-Solving: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (%)

	Not important	Slightly important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	Do not know/ Not relevant
opportunities for problem-solving (rated by perceived importance)	1.1	3.4	30.9	53.1	9.7	1.7
	Not present	Slightly present	Somewhat present	Very present	Extremely present	Do not know/ Not relevant
opportunities for problem-solving (rated by perceived presence)	7.4	26.3	49.1	15.4	1.1	0.6

In response to the question regarding the extent to which *problem-solving teams* are important in the work environment, 53.1% indicated they were “very important” and 30.9% said they were “somewhat important” with 1.1% saying they were “not important” (Table 30). Regarding the degree to which *opportunities for job-related problem-solving (e.g., regular team meetings)* were present in the workplace, 49.1% indicated they were “somewhat present” while 26.3% stated they were “slightly present.” On the basis of the frequency ratings and descriptive statistics (means of 3.77 and 2.80 respectively), there is an observed gap between how employees feel about the need for problem-solving and its limited presence in the workplace.

6.3 Training and Development

This section gauges employees’ perceptions of effectiveness of training in the workplace. A significant factor in promoting employee involvement involves the amount of training provided to employees, which if done effectively provides employees with the skills and motivation to engage in high-involvement activities.

Table 31
Cronbach's α for Questions Pertaining to
Training and Development

Cronbach's α	Cronbach's α Based on Standardised Items	<i>N</i> of Items
.790	.810	18

Table 31 shows that questions within the survey related to training and development indicated a high internal reliability at .790.

While statements 1, 2, 4, and 5 (Table 32) show a high distribution indicating they strongly agrees, statement 3 is lower in its mean at 3.03 indicating that participants feel as if there is not as much presence of professional development opportunities as they feel is important (mean 3.86).

Table 32

Descriptive Statistics for Questions Related to Training, Personal Growth, and Professional Development

		1. Opportunity for personal growth	2. Opportunity for professional development (Perceived importance)	3. Opportunity for professional development (Perceived presence)	4. Lack of support for professional development as a barrier to employee involvement	5. Formal training and development programmes as a requirement for effective employee involvement
N	Valid	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.74	3.86	3.03	3.51	3.70
Median		4.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	4.00
Mode		4	4	3	4	4
Skewness		.228	1.749	-.364	2.065	.182
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		4.396	9.117	.126	8.256	11.030
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365	.365	.365

Table 33

Frequency Tables for Questions Pertaining to Training, Personal Growth, and Professional Development: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (%)

	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know/ Not relevant
Opportunity for personal growth	5.7	7.4	15.4	54.3	16.0	1.1
	Not important	Slightly important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	Do not know/ Not relevant
Opportunity for professional development (perceived importance)	0.0	8.0	20.0	57.1	13.1	1.7
	Not present	Slightly present	Somewhat present	Very present	Extremely present	Do not know/ Not relevant
Opportunity for professional development (perceived presence)	6.3	16.0	48.6	26.3	2.9	0.0
	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know/ Not relevant
Lack of support for professional development as a barrier to employee involvement	1.7	14.9	32.6	44.0	4.0	2.9
Formal training and development programmes as a requirement for effective employee involvement	2.9	4.0	18.9	70.9	2.9	0.6

As shown in Table 34, training and development was ranked second overall in order of importance in terms of its effectiveness to contribute above job requirements.

Table 34

Training and Development Ranked in Order of Importance in Terms of its Effectiveness in Increasing Respondents' Desires to Contribute Above and Beyond Their Job Requirements (%)

Rank	Not selected	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th
% of participants related to ranked choice	5.7	17.1	23.4	18.3	14.9	13.7	6.9

6.3.1 Formal Training Received at Firm

A binary Yes/No choice of whether types of training were offered shows means significantly close to 2 (Table 35), indicating, as can be seen in Table 36, that most participants are not offered any type of training in the workplace.

Table 35

Descriptive Statistics for Responses Related to Receiving Training at the Firm

		Functional	Technical	Cross-train	Performance improvement
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		1.81	1.77	1.89	1.90
Median		2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Mode		2	2	2	2
Skewness		-1.606	-1.304	-2.446	-2.637
Kurtosis		.586	-.303	4.027	5.013

Table 36
Frequencies Related to Whether Participants Received
Training on the Job (%)

Type of Formal Training		Yes	No
A	Functional skills to do your job	18.9	81.1
B	Technical skills to do your job	22.9	77.1
C	Cross-training to do other jobs	11.4	88.6
D	Performance improvement training	10.3	89.7

6.3.2 Perceived Effectiveness of Formal Training

Table 37
Descriptive Statistics for Questions Related to Perceived Effectiveness of
Formal Training

		Functional	Technical	Cross-train	Performance improvement
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		7.95	7.86	8.15	8.14
Median		9.00	9.00	9.00	9.00
Mode		9	9	9	9
Skewness		-1.635	-1.452	-2.102	-2.133
Kurtosis		.940	.323	2.824	3.019

While most participants indicated that training was not offered, Table 38 shows that they believe the training would, in fact, be mostly effective with the majority of participants being of the opinion that technical skills training would be the most effective.

Table 38

**Frequency of Questions Related to Perceived Effectiveness of Formal Training:
Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (%)**

		Highly ineffective	Mostly ineffective	Neither effective nor ineffective	Mostly effective	Highly effective	Do not know/Not relevant
A	Functional skills	0.6	1.1	2.9	13.7	1.7	80.0
B	Technical skills	0.0	2.3	1.1	16.0	2.9	77.7
C	Cross-training to do other jobs	1.1	1.1	3.4	8.6	1.1	84.6
D	Performance improvement training	1.7	0.6	4.0	7.4	1.7	84.6

6.3.3 Constraints on Receiving Adequate Training

Table 39

Descriptive Statistics for Constraints on Receiving Adequate Training

		Time	Organisational budget constraints	Lack of knowledge of training available	Lack of customised training for my needs
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		1.50	2.18	2.10	2.27
Median		1.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Mode		1	4	2	2
Skewness		.760	-.222	-.149	-.375
Kurtosis		-.605	-1.304	-1.247	-1.022

Table 40 indicates that participants have cited time as the biggest constraint to receiving adequate training, with 47.4% of respondents choosing it first. Lack of customised training for individual needs and budget constraints follow as less important factors limiting training opportunities.

Table 40

Respondents' Ranking of Constraints on Receiving Adequate Training: If training has been inadequate, rank in order of importance the following constraints on receiving adequate training in your job (%)

	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Not selected
1 Time	47.4	6.9	14.3	11.4	20.0
2 Organisational budget constraints	13.7	19.4	22.3	24.6	20.0
3 Lack of knowledge of training available	14.3	22.9	21.7	21.1	20.0
4 Lack of customised training for my needs	5.1	29.1	21.7	24.6	19.4

6.4 Management Style

Given the premise that employee involvement is a vertically integrated process that requires cooperation at all levels of the organisation, it is important to gauge faculty opinions of management effectiveness in contributing to a high-involvement workplace.

Table 41

Cronbach's α for Survey Questions Pertaining to Management Style

Cronbach's α	Cronbach's α Based on Standardised Items	N of Items
.855	.848	43

Questions related to management style show a high internal validity of .855 (Table 41).

Table 42
Descriptive Statistics for Level of Influence of
Lower-, Middle-, and Upper-Level Management
on Employees

		Low Level	Mid Level	Top Level
N	Valid	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		2.39	3.39	2.79
Median		2.00	4.00	2.00
Mode		2	4	1
Skewness		2.409	.985	1.412
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		8.397	5.473	1.991
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365

Figure 14
Level of Influence of Lower-, Middle-, and Upper-Level Management on Employees
(%)

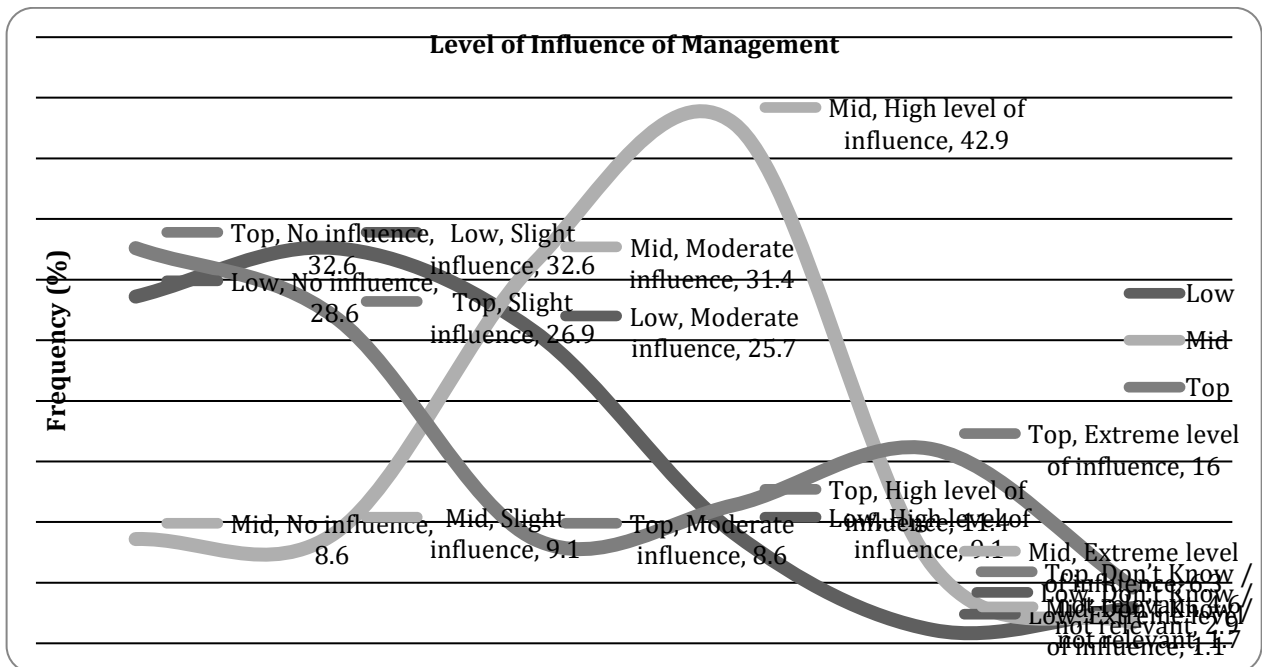


Table 43
Frequency Table for Level of Influence of Lower-, Middle-, and Upper-Level Management on Employees (%)

	No influence	Slight influence	Moderate influence	High level of influence	Extreme level of influence	Do not know / Not relevant
A Lower-level management (e.g., programme coordinators)	28.6	32.6	25.7	9.1	1.1	2.9
B Middle-level management (e.g., chairs)	8.6	9.1	31.4	42.9	6.3	1.7
C Top management (e.g., deans, vice-presidents)	32.6	26.9	8.6	11.4	16	4.6

Middle management is perceived as having the highest level of influence in the workplace (Table 43).

Table 44
Descriptive Statistics for Management Impact on Employee Involvement

	A	B	C	D	E	F
N	Valid	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	3.88	4.10	3.92	3.95	4.07	3.22
Median	4.00	4.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	3.00
Mode	4	4	4	3	3	3
Skewness	1.492	1.276	2.052	1.736	1.665	2.052
Std. Error of Skewness	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis	8.710	10.406	6.357	2.223	1.815	4.755
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365

While participants support the statements that it is important for top management to be involved, they seemed to neither agree or disagree with the causal statements (D, E, and F

in Table 45). They mostly agreed that managers see themselves mostly as administrators and not as facilitators of employee involvement.

Table 45

Frequency Table for Management Impact on Employee Involvement: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (%)

		Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know / Not relevant
A	Top management attitudes and behaviours are most important in establishing a participative climate for faculty	0.6	8.6	14.9	61.1	13.1	1.7
B	The attitudes and behaviours of department chairs are most important in establishing a participative climate for faculty	0.0	1.7	12.0	62.9	22.9	0.6
C	Management sees its role as primarily administrative rather than as participants in fostering employee involvement	0.6	8.0	25.1	49.7	12.0	4.6
D	Management believes that faculty have the skills and knowledge necessary to improve organisational performance through employee involvement practices	1.1	13.1	36.6	33.7	4.0	11.4
E	Management would be receptive to the implementation of employee involvement practices	1.1	9.7	37.7	34.3	4.6	12.6
F	There is a high degree of trust between management and faculty	8.0	24.6	40.6	16.6	4.0	6.3

Table 46
Descriptive Statistics for Level of Importance of Behaviours Considered Critical
Requirements of a Successful Chair

		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
N	Valid	175	175	175	175	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.35	3.99	4.30	4.47	4.28	3.98	4.65	4.19	8.13
Median		4.00	4.00	4.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	5.00	4.00	9.00
Mode		4	4	4	5	4	4	5	4	9
Skewness		2.587	.935	2.012	.973	.511	.405	1.828	1.494	-1.909
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		17.107	6.758	10.019	9.408	5.541	3.790	14.054	10.785	2.105
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365

Table 47 gives a good indication of how employees perceive the behaviours necessary for a successful chair: 62.3% of respondents indicated that showing respect for faculty is extremely important for a successful chair, followed by 49.7% of respondents maintaining that the ability to relate to staff was extremely important. Respondents mostly ignored the statement regarding a chair having the information required to do the best possible job, showing that they perceived this as least important for a chair's behaviour. Rather, the statements that fell in the very important category seem to relate to management skills instead of technical skills.

Table 47

Frequency Table for Level of Importance of Behaviours Considered Critical Requirements of a Successful Chair: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (%)

		Not important	Slightly important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	Do not know / Not relevant
A	Receptiveness to new ideas	0.0	0.0	1.7	63.4	34.3	0.6
B	Knowledgeable about subjects taught by faculty	0.0	2.9	20.6	53.7	22.3	0.6
C	Expertise in management	0.0	0.6	12.6	49.7	35.4	1.7
D	Able to relate well to staff	0.0	0.6	4.6	44.6	49.7	0.6
E	Provides coaching and support	0.0	1.7	12.6	44.0	41.1	0.6
F	Manages by walking around	2.3	5.1	22.9	36.0	32.6	1.1
G	Shows respect for faculty	0.0	0.6	1.7	34.3	62.3	1.1
H	Flexible in assigning and scheduling work	0.0	0.6	10.3	60.6	28.0	0.6
I	Has information required to do the best possible job	0.6	0.6	2.9	6.9	6.9	82.3

Table 48

Descriptive Statistics for Ranking of Factors Which May Cause Mid- and Lower-Level Management Resistance to the Implementation of Employee Involvement Programmes

		1	2	3	4
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		1.57	2.60	2.88	2.38
Median		1.00	3.00	3.00	2.00
Mode		1	3	4	2
Skewness		.913	-.665	-.924	.013
Kurtosis		.367	-.368	-.129	-1.001

Table 49

Frequency Table for Ranking of Factors Which May Cause Mid- and Lower-Level Management Resistance to the Implementation of Employee Involvement Programmes:

What are the three most significant factors which may cause mid- and lower-level management resistance to the implementation of employee involvement programmes? (%)

		1	2	3	4	N/A
1	Loss of managerial control over how work gets done	53.7	24.6	12.0	4.6	5.1
2	Belief that faculty will not work in the best interests of the organisation	15.4	15.4	44.6	20.0	4.6
3	Employees will avoid work	9.1	15.4	28.6	40.6	6.3
4	Fear of management job loss	17.7	38.9	10.3	28.0	5.1

Participants perceive that managers resist implementation of employee involvement programmes primarily because management does not want to risk losing control over how work gets done, chosen first by 53.7% of respondents (Table 49). Fearing management job

loss was chosen second by 38.9%, while the belief that faculty will not work in the best interests of the organisation was chosen third by 44.6%. The belief that employees will avoid work was chosen last by 40.6%. This ranking gives the impression that employees perceive management's reluctance to implement employee involvement programmes to stem from internally focused fears such as loss of job and control rather than externally focused fears including the consequences related to the workers.

Table 50
Descriptive Statistics for Ranking of Attributes Considered Critical
for First-Line Managers in High-Involvement Workplaces

		1	2	3	4	5
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		1.79	3.43	2.31	3.90	3.02
Median		1.00	4.00	2.00	4.00	3.00
Mode		1	4	2	5	3
Skewness		1.290	-.613	.441	-1.217	.036
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		1.067	-.378	-.746	.812	-1.009
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365	.365	.365

Among attributes considered critical for first-line managers in high-involvement workplaces, 53.7% of participants ranked interpersonal skills first (Table 51). Conversely, respondents felt that analytical skills were least important.

Table 51

Frequency Table for Ranking of Attributes Considered Critical for First-Line Managers in High-Involvement Workplaces: Listed below are attributes considered to be critical for first-line managers in high involvement workplaces. Rank these attributes in order of importance from highest (1) to lowest (5) in terms of how critical they are for managerial success in promoting a high-involvement culture (%)

		1	2	3	4	5	N/A
1	Interpersonal skills	53.7	21.7	14.3	4.0	4.6	1.7
2	Analytical skills	8.6	12.0	24.0	29.7	24.0	1.7
3	Communication skills	28.6	31.4	18.9	16.6	3.4	1.1
4	Planning skills	5.1	8.6	10.9	33.7	40.0	1.7
5	Coaching and mentoring skills	12.6	24.6	26.9	11.4	22.9	1.7

Table 52

Descriptive Statistics for Level of Agreement Associated with Managerial Integrity

		A	B	C
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		3.32	4.37	3.50
Median		4.00	4.00	3.00
Mode		4	4	4
Skewness		.029	1.082	1.744
Kurtosis		3.196	-.036	3.918

Table 53

**Frequency Table for Level of Agreement Associated with Managerial Integrity:
Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below. (%)**

		Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know / Not relevant
A	The information I receive from management is accurate and timely	8.0	14.3	21.7	52.0	3.4	0.6
B	Management responds to unethical behaviour	4.6	11.4	26.3	33.7	5.1	18.9
C	There is congruence between management words and actions	8.6	14.3	31.4	37.1	1.7	6.9

Table 53 shows that participants have a great deal of confidence and trust in managers' ethical decision-making related to integrity, as all three statements were mostly agreed with, with few nonrespondents.

As Table 54 and Figure 15 show, participants indicated that the majority of employees (64.6%) are not provided with any form of performance feedback.

Table 54
Frequency Table for Level
of Performance Feedback
Provided by Manager (%)

	%
Daily	0.0
Weekly	1.7
Monthly	12.0
Annually	22.7
Not at all	64.6

Figure 15

Bar Chart for Level of Performance Feedback Provided by Manager (%)

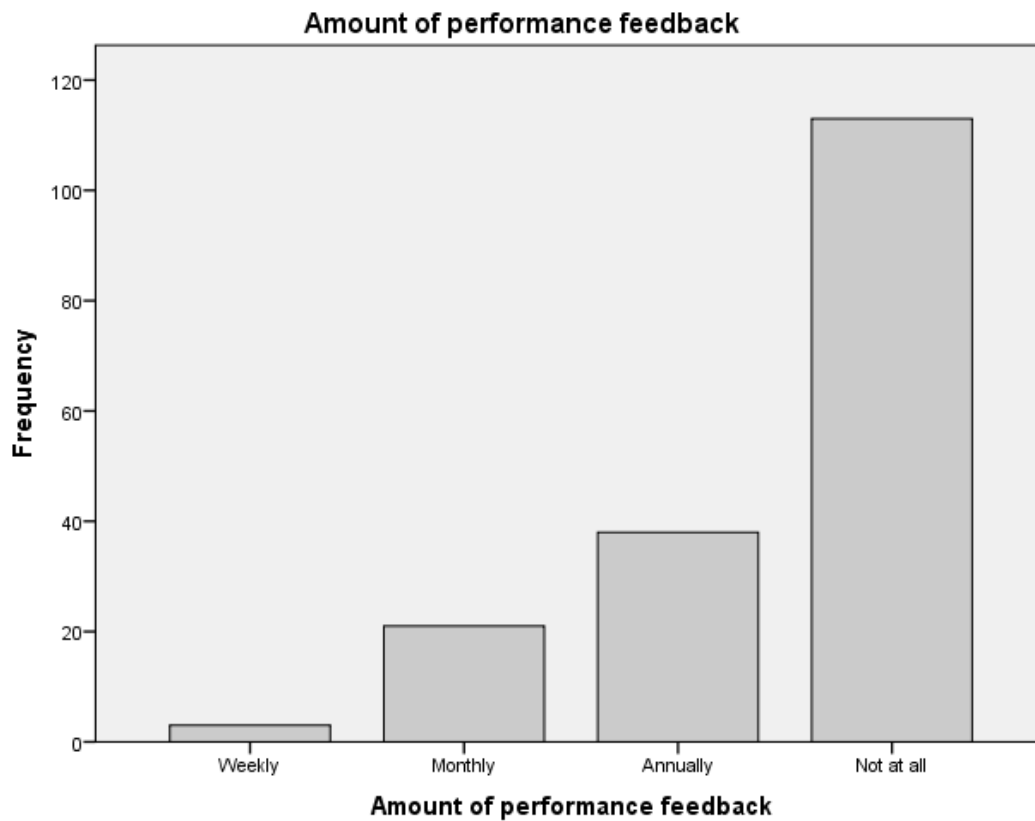


Table 55

Descriptive Statistics for Questions Related to Management Receptiveness

		Management receptiveness to new ideas		Joint faculty and management consultation on work issues		Management is generally receptive to new ways of doing things suggested by faculty	Management would be receptive to the implementation of employee involvement practices
		Perceived Importance	Perceived presence	Perceived Importance	Perceived presence		
N	Valid	175	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.97	2.97	2.87	3.42	3.41	4.07
Median		4.00	3.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	4.00
Mode		4	3	2	4	4	3
Skewness		1.362	1.726	2.385	1.346	1.839	1.665
Kurtosis		9.666	9.343	5.660	5.835	5.866	1.815

Management’s receptiveness to new ideas was perceived as very important at a mean of 3.97 (Table 55). This mean dropped by one whole point from the level of perceived importance to the level of perceived presence of this factor in the workplace. Conversely, joint faculty and management consultation on work issues was perceived as having a higher presence than importance. This shows that while participants want management to be more receptive to new ideas, they do not necessarily want this receptiveness to revolve around vertical collaborative practices.

Table 56

Frequency Table for Questions Related to Management Receptiveness: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (%)

	Not important	Slightly important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	Do not know/ Not relevant
Management receptiveness to new ideas (Perceived Importance)	0.6	4.0	16.6	60.0	17.7	1.1
	Not present	Slightly present	Somewhat present	Very present	Extremely present	Do not know/ Not relevant
Management receptiveness to new ideas (Perceived presence)	6.9	21.1	48.6	20.0	2.3	1.1
	Not important	Slightly important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	Do not know/ Not relevant
Joint faculty and management consultation on work issues (Perceived Importance)	3.4	17.1	31.4	37.1	9.1	1.7
	Not present	Slightly present	Somewhat present	Very present	Extremely present	Do not know/ Not relevant
Joint faculty and management consultation on work issues (Perceived presence)	12.0	38.9	34.3	7.4	0.6	6.9
	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know/ Not relevant
Management is generally receptive to new ways of doing things suggested by faculty	4.6	21.7	24.6	42.9	2.3	4.0
Management would be receptive to implementation of employee involvement practices	1.1	9.7	37.7	34.3	4.6	12.6

When asked whether management is generally receptive to new ideas, most participants agreed; however, this rating declined when they were asked specifically about employee involvement practices (Table 56).

Table 57

Descriptive Statistics for Management Ability to Promote Employee Involvement

		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		4.01	3.07	2.97	2.83	3.04	3.05	3.07	3.15
Median		4.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Mode		4	4	3	2	3	3	3	3
Skewness		1.573	.799	.749	1.383	1.935	1.540	2.049	1.646
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		2.223	3.942	4.547	5.443	6.681	6.838	4.983	6.623
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365

Participants scored management’s impact on employee involvement quite high (Table 57), which implies either employees’ confidence in management or a social bias against rating impressions of management too low. From the statements in Table 58, it can be seen that respondents scored management high with respect to standard work and beliefs but lower when referring to introducing new ideas that depart from the status quo. This can be seen in statement D, where 36.6% of respondents mostly disagreed that management actively seeks out employee suggestions and opinions.

Table 58

**Frequency Table for Management Ability to Promote Employee Involvement:
Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (%)**

		Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know / Not relevant
A	Management believes that employees have the knowledge and skills to improve organisational performance	1.7	16.6	19.4	45.1	6.9	10.3
B	Management often models participative behaviours (e.g. asking for faculty input)	4.6	28.0	29.7	33.1	4.0	0.6
C	Management provides a clear line of sight for what I need to do to succeed in my job	8.0	24.6	34.9	30.3	1.7	0.6
D	Management actively seeks out employee suggestions and opinions	9.7	36.6	22.3	28.0	2.3	1.1
E	Management consistently and frequently communicates their key leadership goals to faculty	8.0	29.1	30.9	26.3	2.9	2.9
F	Management uses a variety of communication channels to articulate these priorities to faculty	8.6	23.4	33.1	31.4	1.7	1.7
G	Management effectively accesses knowledge and skills of faculty in decision-making regarding faculty work activities	10.9	29.7	32.0	19.4	2.3	5.7
H	Top management has a clear vision which is effectively communication to employees	8.0	20.6	33.7	32.6	2.9	2.3

6.5 Reward Systems

Since positive reinforcement is a traditional form of producing desired behaviours in many organisations and reward systems are an important factor in promoting employee involvement, questions about organisational rewards were included in the survey.

Table 59

Descriptive Statistics for Questions Related to Reward Systems

		Rewards for performance (Perceived presence)	Rewards for superior performance		Lack of a consistent reward/ recognition system	Rewards and recognition for teaching excellence
			Perceived Importance	Perceived presence		
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		2.07	3.93	1.85	4.11	4.06
Median		1.00	4.00	1.00	4.00	4.00
Mode		1	4	1	4	4
Skewness		2.660	.714	3.189	2.591	1.028
Kurtosis		6.866	6.869	13.258	10.036	6.295

Table 60 shows that participants ranked all statements pertaining to importance of reward systems significantly higher than those relating to the perceived presence of such systems.

Table 60

Frequency Tables for Questions Related to Reward Systems: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (%)

	Not present	Slightly present	Somewhat present	Very present	Extremely present	Do not know/ Not relevant
Rewards for performance (Perceived presence)	56.6	19.4	14.9	1.7	1.7	5.7
	Not important	Slightly important	Somewhat important	Very important	Extremely important	Do not know/ Not relevant
Rewards for superior performance (Perceived Importance)	2.3	4.0	18.3	54.3	20.0	1.1
	Not present	Slightly present	Somewhat present	Very present	Extremely present	Do not know/ Not relevant
Rewards for superior performance (perceived presence)	53.7	26.3	12.6	5.1	0.0	2.3
	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know/ Not relevant
Lack of a consistent reward/recognition system	0.0	5.1	8.6	72.6	9.7	4.0
Rewards and recognition for teaching excellence	0.6	8.0	11.4	52.0	26.3	1.7

Table 61

Descriptive Statistics for Rewards Ranked in Terms of Effectiveness in Increasing Desire to Contribute Above and Beyond Job Requirements

		1	2	3	4	5	6
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		1.99	3.44	2.88	3.23	3.93	4.20
Median		1.00	4.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	5.00
Mode		1	4	2	3	5	6
Skewness		1.280	-.180	.209	-.043	-.760	-.689
Kurtosis		.696	-.843	-.889	-.804	-.291	-.713

Table 62

Frequency Table for Rewards Ranked in Terms of Effectiveness in Increasing Desire to Contribute Above and Beyond Job Requirements:

Rank in order of importance the rewards below in terms of their effectiveness in increasing your desire to contribute above and beyond your job (%)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	N/A
1	More freedom and opportunities regarding my work	52.6	13.7	12.0	6.3	3.4	6.9	5.1
2	Praise from my supervisor	8.0	18.9	17.7	20.0	16.6	13.7	5.1
3	Training and development opportunities	17.1	23.4	18.3	14.9	13.7	6.9	5.7
4	More challenging work assignments	11.4	16.6	22.9	18.9	12.6	12.0	5.7
5	Some form of public recognition	6.3	7.4	15.4	17.7	29.7	17.7	5.7
6	A token of appreciation (e.g., lunch)	2.9	16.6	8.6	13.7	15.4	37.7	5.1

Participants cited freedom and opportunities regarding work as their first choice in contributing to work effectiveness and contributions beyond job requirements at 52.6% (Table 62). Ranked second and third were training and development opportunities at 23.4% and more challenging work assignments at 22.9%. Tangible rewards such as a token of appreciation were valued far less by participants, as they were ranked last along with praise from supervisor and some form of public recognition. This table indicated that participants value rewards pertaining to the development of their job far more than recognition and tangible rewards.

6.6 Union and Employee Involvement

Workplaces where unions are present complicate employee-employer relationships and the union presence can often be an inhibitor to employee involvement and employee cooperation with management. The questions below touch on the very important topic of how unions are perceived to impact employee involvement.

Table 63
Cronbach's α for Questions Related to Union and Employee Involvement

Cronbach's α	Cronbach's α Based on Standardised Items	<i>N</i> of Items
.840	.766	26

As Table 63 shows, questions pertaining to union and employee involvement had a high internal validity at .840.

Table 64

Descriptive Statistics for Attitudes Towards Union and Employee Involvement (Union Members Only)

		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175	175	175	175	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.62	3.55	4.67	4.53	4.70	3.97	3.79	3.70	5.53	4.45	4.63	3.78
Median		3.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Mode		3	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	9	3	3	2
Skewness		1.897	1.753	.905	.880	1.001	1.212	1.830	1.662	.121	1.021	.827	1.435
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		4.544	2.216	-.819	-.836	-.637	.144	3.833	2.076	-1.815	-.504	-.948	.510
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365

Table 65

Frequency Table for Attitudes Towards Union and Employee Involvement: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (Union Members Only) (%)

		Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know / Not relevant
A	I feel a sense of pride in being a part of the union	6.3	8.0	39.4	37.1	2.3	6.9
B	I feel that union and management work effectively to solve the organisation's problems	4.6	27.4	33.7	22.3	0.6	11.4
C	The organisation would be in favour of implementing employee involvement programmes	1.1	13.7	28.6	30.9	0.6	25.1
D	The union would be in favour of implementing employee involvement programmes	3.4	16.6	29.7	24.6	0.6	25.1
E	The organisation would only implement an employee involvement programme with the consent of its union	0.0	9.7	32.6	29.7	4.6	23.4
F	The organisation would use an employee involvement programme to weaken the union	8.6	17.1	34.9	20.6	0.6	18.3
G	My loyalty is to my work, not the union	1.1	15.4	31.4	34.3	10.9	6.9
H	My values and the union's values are not very similar	3.4	22.9	34.3	22.9	5.7	10.9
I	The issue of employee involvement is often discussed by the union	4.6	12.6	26.3	12.0	1.1	43.4
J	The presence of an union will not affect the success of an employee involvement programme	2.3	14.3	34.3	23.4	3.4	22.3
K	The union would help the company to implement an employee involvement programme	4.0	11.4	35.4	21.1	1.7	26.3
L	Very little of what the membership wants is important to the union	1.7	36.6	31.4	11.4	1.7	17.1

There is a large central tendency bias for this line of questions (Table 65), indicating that perhaps unions and employee involvement are sensitive issues for union members. The participants do feel, however, that the membership needs and union activities are aligned.

At the same time, they mostly agree that their loyalty lies with their work and not the union, and that the organisation would welcome an employee involvement programme.

Table 66

Descriptive Statistics for Participation in Union-Sponsored Activities (Union Members Only)

N	Valid	175
	Missing	0
Mean		2.48
Median		3.00
Mode		2
Skewness		-.394
Std. Error of Skewness		.184
Kurtosis		-.556
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365

Table 67

Frequency Table for Participation in Union-Sponsored Activities: Please indicate the extent to which you participate in union sponsored activities (Union Members Only) (%)

	%
Frequently	6.9
Occasionally	11.4
Rarely	31.4
Not at all	27.4
N/A	22.9

As shown in Table 67, participants perceive their unions as mostly not sponsoring activities for their constituents.

Table 68

Descriptive Statistics for Extent to Which Respondents Go Above and Beyond Job Requirements

N	Valid	175
	Missing	0
Mean		2.36
Median		2.00
Mode		2
Skewness		.057
Std. Error of Skewness		.184
Kurtosis		-.191
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365

Table 69

Frequency Table for Extent to Which Respondents Go Above and Beyond Job Requirements: Please indicate the extent to which you go above and beyond the requirements of your job (%)

	%
Frequently	14.9
Occasionally	41.1
Rarely	30.9
Not at all	10.9
N/A	2.3

The majority of respondents indicated that they occasionally go above and beyond job requirements (Table 69).

Table 70
Descriptive Statistics for Opinion Towards Employee Involvement Culture and Its Influence on Employee Level of Participation

		A	B	C
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0
Mean		1.72	1.78	1.45
Median		2.00	2.00	1.00
Mode		2	2	1
Skewness		-.988	-1.343	.220
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		-1.035	-.198	-1.974
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365

Table 71
Frequency Table for Opinion Towards Employee Involvement Culture and Its Influence on Employee Level of Participation: Circle the number(s) corresponding to the statement which best describes your views (%)

		Yes	No
A	An employee involvement culture would serve to increase my interest in job related activities (e.g. attendance at team meetings)	28	72
B	An employee involvement culture would serve to increase my interest in college-related activities beyond job requirements (e.g., attending graduation ceremonies)	22.3	77.7
C	An employee involvement culture would make no difference in my level of participation	55.4	44.6

As Table 71 shows, while most participants agreed that employee involvement would not change their level of engagement for specific duties like job-related activities or college-

related activities beyond the job, about half seem to think it would make some difference in their participation overall.

Table 72

Descriptive Statistics for Union and Employee Involvement

		A	B	C	D
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		5.01	5.02	5.31	5.23
Median		3.00	3.00	4.00	4.00
Mode		9	9	9	9
Skewness		.181	.177	.181	.237
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		-1.809	-1.807	-1.790	-1.774
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365	.365

Table 73

Frequency Table for Union and Employee Involvement: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below. (%)

		Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know / Not selected
A	Introducing employee involvement initiatives would serve to weaken union-member relations	21.7	13.1	16.0	7.4	0.0	41.7
B	Introducing employee involvement initiatives would serve to weaken the union's influence on how work gets done	21.7	13.1	15.4	8.0	0.0	41.7
C	Introducing employee involvement initiatives would have no significant impact on current union-member relationships	7.4	16.0	24.0	9.7	1.1	41.7
D	Introducing employee involvement initiatives would have no significant impact on the union's influence on how work gets done	6.9	17.1	25.7	8.6	1.1	40.6

Participants seemed to strongly disagree with the potential for employee involvement programmes and union initiatives to clash, either by weakening the union or influencing how work gets done. However, they neither agreed nor disagreed that this change would have no impact (Table 73).

Table 74
Descriptive Statistics for the Top Three Most Significant Factors
Limiting Interest In Employee Involvement Initiatives

		1	2	3	4	5
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		.31	.26	.46	.56	.52
Median		.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Mode		0	0	0	0	0
Skewness		2.409	3.575	2.543	1.751	2.125
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		9.253	11.861	5.985	1.868	3.352
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365	.365	.365

Table 75
Frequency Table for the Top Three Most Significant Factors Limiting Interest in
Employee Involvement Initiatives: What are the three most significant factors which
would limit your interest in employee involvement initiatives? (%)

	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
1. Waste of my time	24.6	2.3	0.0	0.6	0.0	72.6
2. Strained relationship with co-workers	0.0	2.3	2.3	2.9	0.6	92.0
3. Could weaken the union	0.0	9.7	3.4	1.1	2.3	83.4
4. No additional benefits in doing my job	2.3	9.7	9.7	0.6	0.6	77.1
5. Lack of management to the process	1.1	2.9	11.4	0.6	1.7	82.3

The most common first choice for why employees are not interested in employee involvement initiatives is that they claim it is a waste of their time, followed by fears of weakening the union and participants believing it would not add any benefits to their jobs (Table 75). Statements about straining relationships with co-workers and potentially weakening the union attracted the largest number of nonrespondents. Social biases could have played a part in the reluctance to speak to those topics.

6.7 Organisational Values, Systems, and Policies

Organisational values, systems, and policies were examined as they have a strong influence on the level of employee commitment and desire to become more involved in their work and organisational activities.

Table 76
Descriptive Statistics for Questions Related to Attitude Towards Organisational Values, Systems, and Policies

		A	B	C	D	E	F	G
<i>N</i>	Valid	175	175	175	175	175	175	175
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.42	3.77	2.94	3.22	3.22	3.50	3.71
Median		3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	3.00
Mode		4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Skewness		1.713	1.351	1.727	1.061	-.755	-.680	1.550
Std. Error of Skewness		.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184	.184
Kurtosis		4.965	1.225	4.245	6.706	-.103	.156	1.832
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365	.365

The majority of participants mostly agreed with all the statements regarding attitude towards organisational values, systems, and policies (Table 77).

Table 77

Frequency Table for Questions Related to Attitude Towards Organisational Values, Systems, and Policies: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below (%)

		Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Do not know / Not relevant
A	The organisation has a real interest in the welfare of those who work here	6.9	18.9	25.7	40.6	3.4	4.6
B	The organisation is willing to help me if I need a special favour	10.9	14.9	26.3	32.6	2.9	12.6
C	If given the opportunity the organisation would take advantage of me	20.0	24.0	24.0	24.6	2.9	4.6
D	The organisation sets reasonable, clear-cut goals and objectives	6.3	17.1	32.0	42.3	1.1	1.1
E	Work activities are sensibly structured in this organisation	4.6	15.4	34.3	44.6	1.1	0.0
F	I feel loyal toward this organisation	4.0	11.4	26.3	47.4	10.9	0.0
G	Decisions in this organisation are made at the levels where the most adequate information is available	6.9	18.9	29.7	30.9	2.3	11.4

6.8 Responses to Thesis Subquestions

Sections 6.8.1 through 6.8.4 discuss survey results in response to the four thesis subquestions, eliminating nonrespondents.

6.8.1 What Are Faculty Perceptions of the Benefits of Employee Involvement Initiatives?

In general, a majority of faculty agree that employee involvement will result in the stated benefits listed in Table 78. Benefits such as *increased job satisfaction for faculty, professors with more current knowledge, opportunity for personal growth, better*

reputation for the organisation, increased employee commitment, and enhanced feelings of self-esteem were among the most agreed-upon benefits. *Improved communication with management and increased feelings of friendship with co-workers* were among the benefits which received a relatively lower level of agreement among respondents.

Table 78

Employee Involvement Benefits: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below

		Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Median
A	More innovative teaching	1.2	14.5	23.3	45.9	15.1	4.00
B	Increased student retention	0.6	15.2	28.7	39.6	15.9	4.00
C	Higher faculty productivity	3.0	13.7	25.0	40.5	17.9	4.00
D	Better reputation for the organisation	2.3	13.9	20.2	45.7	17.9	4.00
E	Increased employee commitment	5.3	11.2	18.3	45.0	20.1	4.00
F	Better quality of education for students	1.2	13.1	20.8	55.4	9.5	4.00
G	Professors with more current knowledge	2.9	8.7	23.3	51.2	14.0	4.00
H	Increased citizenship behaviour by faculty (going above and beyond job requirements)	2.9	11.8	27.6	43.5	14.1	4.00
I	Increased job satisfaction for faculty	3.5	9.3	20.3	47.7	19.2	4.00
J	Enhanced feelings of self-esteem	4.7	7.6	26.3	44.4	17.0	4.00
K	Opportunity for personal growth	5.8	7.5	15.6	54.9	16.2	4.00
L	Increased feelings of friendship with co-workers	3.5	10.5	37.2	36.6	12.2	3.00
M	Improved communication with management	5.8	11.1	29.8	40.4	12.9	4.00
N	More authority and responsibility	4.7	9.9	26.3	45.0	14.0	4.00

Almost 50% of respondents ranked *increased competition for students* as a significant driver for the organisation to adopt employee involvement initiatives. *Ability of the organisation to generate funding* and *student desire for more innovative teaching* were ranked second by approximately 32% and 29% respectively (Table 79).

Table 79

Ranked Drivers of Adoption of Employee Involvement Initiatives: Rank the factors below in terms of their significance as a driver for the organisation in adopting employee involvement initiatives

		1	2	3	4	5
A	Increased competition for students	49.1	15.2	17.5	5.3	12.9
B	Student desire for more innovative teaching	11.8	28.8	30.0	17.1	12.4
C	Availability of technology to support innovation	10.1	13.6	18.3	42.6	15.4
D	Faculty desire for a more involved workplace	17.2	12.4	23.7	19.5	27.2
E	Ability of the organisation to generate funding	11.1	32.2	14.6	12.3	29.8

6.8.2 Can High Involvement And Unionism Coexist in the Context of Higher Education?

Table 80 describes the ways in which faculty see the relationship between high involvement and unionism. A majority of respondents either “strongly disagree” or “mostly disagree” that *introducing employee involvement initiatives would serve to weaken union-member relations* and *weaken the union’s influence on how work gets done*. Moreover, 61.8% of respondents feel that if employee involvement initiatives are implemented in the organisation, the union should cooperate with management in implementing these initiatives.

Approximately 45% of respondents either “mostly agree” or “strongly agree” that *the organisation would only implement an employee involvement programme with the consent*

of its union. It is noteworthy that a large proportion of respondents (between approximately 40% and 48%) seem to “neither agree nor disagree” with most of the statements in Table 80 on the relationship between union and employee involvement.

Table 80

Coexistence of High Involvement and Union: Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below

	Strongly disagree	Mostly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Mostly agree	Strongly agree	Median
The union would be in favour of implementing employee involvement programmes	4.6	22.1	39.7	32.8	0.8	3.00
The organisation would only implement an employee involvement programme with the consent of its union	0.0	12.7	42.5	38.8	6.0	3.00
The organisation would use an employee involvement programme to weaken the union	10.5	21.0	42.7	25.2	0.7	3.00
The issue of employee involvement is often discussed by the union	8.1	22.2	46.5	21.2	2.0	3.00
The presence of an union will not affect the success of an employee involvement programme	2.9	18.4	44.1	30.1	4.4	3.00
The union would help the company to implement an employee involvement programme	5.4	15.5	48.1	28.7	2.3	3.00
Introducing employee involvement initiatives would serve to weaken union member relations	37.3	22.5	27.5	12.7	0.0	2.00
Introducing employee involvement initiatives would serve to weaken the union’s influence on how work gets done	37.3	22.5	26.5	13.7	0.0	2.00
Introducing employee involvement initiatives would have no significant impact on current union-member relationships	12.7	27.5	41.2	16.7	2.0	3.00

Introducing employee involvement initiatives would have no significant impact on the union's influence on how work gets done	11.5	28.8	43.3	14.4	1.9	3.00
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6.8.3 Do Individual Differences in Faculty Demographics Have an Impact on Faculty Perception of the Value of Employee Involvement and Desire to Become More Involved?

Demographic information collected from respondents (survey questions 1 through 10) were cross-tabulated against the following two survey questions, in attempt to understand if demographic differences have an impact on respondents' desires to become more involved: *I would be interested in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives in this organisation and an employee involvement culture would make no difference in my level of participation.* Results from this analysis are discussed in the following paragraphs and Tables 80 through 83.

Gender. Approximately 74% of males said they would be interested in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives. A comparable proportion of females (approximately 71%) indicated the same. On the question of whether an employee involvement culture would make no difference to respondents' level of participation, approximately 54% of males and 60% of females agreed.

Years in organisation. As illustrated in Table 81, interest in employee involvement, in general, declines with increased years in the organisation. A minor exception to this trend is the 6- to 10-year category which shows slightly higher interest in the implementation of employee involvement than the 1- to 5-year category.

Table 81**Years in Organisation and Employee Involvement**

	I would be interested in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives in this organisation		An employee involvement culture would make no difference in my level of participation	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
<1 year	100.0%	0.0%	15.4%	84.6%
1–5 years	80.6%	19.4%	58.1%	41.9%
6–10 years	86.2%	13.8%	46.4%	53.6%
11–20 years	79.5%	20.5%	54.1%	45.9%
>20 years	49.1%	50.9%	73.2%	26.8%

Total teaching experience. The response pattern seen in Table 82 (total teaching experience) is comparable to that of Table 81 (years in organisation). There is a general trend where interest in employee involvement decreases with increasing teaching experience, with the exception of the 6- to 10-year category in relation to the 1- to 5-year category.

Table 82**Total Teaching Experience and Employee Involvement**

	I would be interested in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives in this organisation		An employee involvement culture would make no difference in my level of participation	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
<1 year	100.0%	0.0%	10.0%	90.0%
1–5 years	77.8%	22.2%	55.6%	44.4%
6–10 years	89.3%	10.7%	48.1%	51.9%
11–20 years	80.0%	20.0%	57.9%	42.1%
>20 years	53.1%	46.9%	68.3%	31.7%

Highest qualification. Of the respondents with a PhD or bachelor’s degree, 50–58% indicated interest in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives in their organisation. In contrast, 80–85% of respondents whose highest qualification is a master’s degree or graduate certificate/diploma indicated interest.

Union membership. Of those who identified themselves as not being part of a union, all (100%) indicated they were interested in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives in their organisation. Of the remaining 113 respondents who were union members, approximately 71% showed this interest. The proportion interested in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives declines by half (100% to 49%) for those in the union more than 20 years compared to those in the union less than one year (Table 83).

Table 83
Years in Union and Employee Involvement

	I would be interested in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives in this organisation		An employee involvement culture would make no difference in my level of participation	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
<1 year	100.0%	0.0%	25.0%	75.0%
1–5 years	80.0%	20.0%	56.7%	43.3%
6–10 years	80.6%	19.4%	54.8%	45.2%
11–20 years	85.7%	14.3%	51.6%	48.4%
>20 years	49.1%	50.9%	75.4%	24.6%

Age. Interest in the introduction of employee initiatives progressively declines the older the respondent category as illustrated in Table 84.

Table 84

Age and Employee Involvement

	I would be interested in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives in this organisation	
Age group	Yes	No
25–29	92.3%	7.7%
30–39	84.4%	15.6%
40–49	83.3%	16.7%
50–59	63.5%	36.5%
60+	59.1%	40.9%

Ethnicity. In terms of ethnicity and the level of interest in the introduction of employee initiatives, South Asians showed the most interest with 95.5%, followed by “other” ethnicities (not identified in the option category) with 93.8%, Latin Americans with 80%, Chinese with 70%, Caucasians with 64.6% and Filipinos with 50%.

6.9 Discussion of Findings

This chapter has displayed an array of quantitative data derived from a questionnaire to further probe the qualitative findings in the preceding chapter. While methodology will be discussed in a subsequent chapter, it is important to note that the α reliability score was derived only after the data were cleaned, which resulted in a high level of internal reliability.

Overall, the survey attracted 175 respondents, split approximately evenly according to gender, with 56.6% being female. In terms of age, 56% were above 50, and in terms of ethnicity, the majority (54.9%) were Caucasian. Full-time employees represented 73.7%, while 92% were unionised; 55.4% had a master’s degree, and 84.6% of respondents indicated that they were not currently pursuing any ongoing degrees. Work experience and job tenure showed a negatively skewed distribution, with most participants at the higher end. These statistics provide an overview of the sample, which is highly specified and thus suggests caution when generalising the results to larger groups. It can be confirmed,

however, that the distribution of gender and age is reflective of the overall higher education population. Further implications of this sample will be discussed in Chapter 7.

Although this is not a correlational and causational study, the analysis of the quantitative data has shown that the factors that promote and constrain employee involvement can be measured and represented by various means of analysis such as frequencies and descriptive statistics tables. A summary of each topic within the survey results is discussed below:

6.9.1 Autonomy

Participants cite their collective agreement and limited choices about subjects taught as the most significant factors in limiting autonomy at 38.3% and 24.6% respectively. Respondents blamed their limited autonomy on administrative, contractual, and bureaucratic policies and structures.

6.9.2 Impact of Workload

While participants agreed that their workload is reasonable overall, with all results falling into the “mostly agree” category, most chose to opt out of answering questions related to causes of stress. Those who did respond seemed to align their responses with causes of limitations on autonomy, citing bureaucratic reasons as the second top choice for stress at 6.3%, the first being resolving student issues at 6.9%.

6.9.3 Work-Life Balance

Participants mostly agreed (64%) that their jobs provide them with adequate work-life balance.

6.9.4 Opportunities to Contribute to Organisational Goals

While the majority of respondents agreed not only that contributing beyond job requirements is important but that they would actually want to increase their effort to this end, most agreed that opportunities in the workplace to do so were lacking in relation to its perceived importance, as reflected in the mean drop from importance at 3.45 to presence at 2.62.

6.9.5 Problem-Solving Opportunities

A similar pattern can be seen with opportunities to problem-solve, with a large discrepancy observed between perceived importance and perceived presence of this factor, reflected in the mean drop from importance at 3.77 to presence at 2.80.

6.9.6 Training and Development

Most participants agreed that there is not enough training in relation to how important they perceive it to be for their jobs, as reflected in the mean drop between importance with a mean of 3.86 and presence with a mean of 3.03. This gap confirms the finding that 84.12% of respondents confirmed that they were not provided with any form of training on the job. Moreover, employees stated that training and development is desired as a contributing function towards employee involvement and believed it would be mostly effective, with higher means of 3.51 and 3.7 respectively. Time was cited as the number one inhibitor of opportunities for training and development, with the largest number at 47.4% of respondents ranking it first.

6.9.7 Management Style

While the largest number of employees (42.9%) perceives middle management as having the highest level of influence in the workplace, 61.1% of participants felt that top management, particularly, should be more involved in employee involvement strategies. The overall impression of behaviours important for management focused on interpersonal skills, ranked highest at 53.7%, rather than analytical skills, which did not rank high enough to fall within the top five choices.

6.9.8 Reward Systems

Most participants indicated that they wanted more career-oriented rewards rather than one-time tangible rewards such as a reward lunch or recognition. A large discrepancy exists between perceived importance of rewards versus perceived presence, with means of 3.93 and 1.85 respectively.

6.9.9 Union and Employee Involvement

Overall, there were a large number of nonrespondents in this section of questions. This might be due to a social perception bias that makes employees reluctant to answer questions related to the potential clashing of loyalty to the unions and the implications of employee involvement programmes. Of those who did respond, most thought there would not be a clash in interests. As with training and development, the most frequently cited factor limiting interest in these programmes is that they would be a waste of respondents' time (24.6%.)

6.9.10 Organisational Values, Systems, and Policies

The majority of participants only had positive impressions of statements regarding organisational values, systems, and policies, with the majority of respondents all falling into the "mostly agree" category on positively framed statements.

It is important to note that the survey, whether gauging importance or work presence, is a reflection of respondents' perception of these factors and not actual proof of practice or presence. With that in mind, the above summaries lend themselves to some consistent themes within the data, overall, that are reflected partly in the thesis sub-questions.

The first theme that is important to note is the frequency and location where respondents chose to opt out of the line of questioning. Social biases may have played a role in the trends of answers for the survey. Any line of questioning regarding stress, negative reflections on management, or sensitivity towards unions, trended either towards central tendency bias where participants neither agreed nor disagreed or towards nonresponse where they opted out of the question entirely.

The second theme revolves around the discrepancy between what employees feel is important and what they feel is present in the workplace. Across the data there is a consistently lower score for what employees feel is present than for what they feel is important, leading one to believe that employees perceive they are lacking some important aspects of their jobs. This may include proper training or opportunities to go above and

beyond their jobs. Ultimately, the respondents give the impression that they are yearning for more than what is currently provided. While most participants agreed on the lack of presence, they also concluded that introducing these practices would be highly effective for their workplace and would benefit greatly from management support for employee involvement initiatives.

The third theme is that there is a trend with respect to older employees who have been in the organisation for a long time in two very important respects. The older the employees, the less interested they are in employee involvement, and the less convinced they are that employee involvement matters.

6.10 Inferential Statistics

The literature suggests that both descriptive and inferential statistics are important to understand the data. Numbers, tables, and graphs are used to provide only a description of the data. On the other hand, inferential statistics help to predict the population parameters. For example, in inferential statistics sample data is used to make generalizations about a population. One of the main areas of inferential statistics is hypothesis testing. Hypothesis testing is a common procedure where sample data is used to answer the research questions. In this study, the following hypotheses are tested to answer the research questions.

6.10.1 Hypotheses and Literature Review for each Hypothesis:

Hypothesis one (H₁): Perceived supportive work practice are positively associated with the degree of employee interest in employee involvement programs.

H₁ is the main hypothesis that states that supportive work practice is positively related to employee interest in employee involvement programs. With respect to the theme of supportive work practice, the factors autonomy, problem-solving opportunities, communication, and contribution to organizational goals, open door chair policy, and joint consultation are addressed (Q17 under the survey questions).

Hypothesis two (H₂): Management practices are positively related to the degree of employee interest in employee involvement programs.

The literature indicates that first-line supervisors have most influence on building a culture of employee involvement (Bates, 2004). However, the literature also suggests that management style can constrain employee involvement as micromanagers can create a sense of incompetence in employees and reduce their sense of intrinsic motivation

(Lawler, 1992). On the other hand, the role of the manager as coach or facilitator allows employees to have more flexibility and self-direction in performing their jobs (Osterman *et al.*, 2001). As the literature indicates inconclusive results between an association between management practices and employee interest in employee involvement programs in the workplace, the study aims to examine the extent to which the presence of congenial management practices affects the work involvement practices in the workplace. Therefore, this study hypothesized that there is a positive association between management practices and employee interest in employee involvement programs.

Hypothesis three (H₃): Organization values/system/policies are positively related to the degree of employee interest in employee involvement programs.

The literature suggests that flexible organizational structures and culture are important factors to consider in developing a high involvement culture (Gunderson *et al.*, 2005; Tromley *et al.*, 1995). Matthews *et al.* (2003) identify structural organizational factors that facilitate involvement, the most important being fluidity of information sharing where employees may access any relevant organizational information without structural barriers and through replacement of hierarchy with teams. Given the potential impact of organization values/system/policies, I also include this variable as another independent variable to examine its impact on employee interest in employee involvement programs.

Hypothesis four (H₄): Work environment is positively related to employee interest in employee involvement programs.

Hypothesis four states that job work environment is positively associated with employee interest in employee involvement programs. There is an evidence of association between the work environment quality and increased participation in the workplace (Kudsen *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, the quality work environment is also found relevant in measuring the well-being of employees. As the quality of work environment is defined in a broader perspective, e.g., it also refers psycho-social work environment, it helps to understand how people are affected by their employment, including experience of job satisfaction and stress (Hvid and Hasle, 2003). For example, Scott *et al.* (2003) indicate that a work environment that allows employee participation in decision-making also increases job satisfaction. As many studies throughout the years have indicated that work environment is a good predictor of employee involvement, in this study, work environment

is included as another independent variable to examine its effect on employee interest in employee involvement programs.

Hypothesis five (H₅): Gender of participant is associated with employee interest in employee e programs.

Hypothesis five indicates that the gender of the employees also affects the perceived employee interest in employee involvement programs. For example, Cross and Madsen (1997) indicate that women tend to place a greater importance on the quality of and opportunity to develop relationships and connectedness with others and this will ultimately impact their degree of job satisfaction. This finding suggests that females may be more inclined to embrace the implementation of employee involvement initiatives as it promises increased opportunity for teamwork, communication and connectedness. With respect to this research study it is expected that the gender of employees is associated with perceived employee interest in employee involvement programs. Therefore, the gender of employees is used as a control variable in the research study model.

Hypothesis six (H₆): The average length of service (tenure) of employees is negatively associated with employee interest in employee involvement programs

The sixth hypothesis is that the length of service (tenure) of the employees is negatively associated with employee interest in employee involvement programs. There is a discrepancy in the conclusions of the studies regarding this topic. Stout, Slocum & Cron (1988) concluded that workers who were in the same jobs for over five years reported increasingly negative job attitudes.

In a global workforce study conducted by Blessings White (2011), engagement increased the longer employees worked at the organization. Employee engagement also increased with length of service among hotel employees in China (Zenget *al.*, 2009). However, in other studies length of service did not have any notable relationship with level of employee involvement (DiPietro and Pizam, 2008; Kim *et al.*, 2009). Karatepe and Olugbade (2009) reported that employees who had longer organizational tenure were less vigorous at work. Therefore, the conflicting evidence as to whether tenure is positively or negatively associated with perceived employee interest in employee involvement programs implies that tenure does affect my dependent variable and must be controlled for in my model.

Hypothesis seven (H₇): The age of employees is positively associated with employee interest in employee involvement programs.

Hypothesis seven is that the average age of the employees is positively associated with employee interest in employee involvement programs. Scholarly research has evaluated the significance of age with respect to involvement levels and finds a positive correlation between older non-union workers and higher levels of involvement (Simpson, 2009; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). Rippet *al.* (2014) studied employee engagement in hotel employees and found that employees aged 42 years and older were more engaged than younger employees. In this study the age of employees is included as a control variable in the regression model.

Hypothesis eight (H₈): Current union membership is positively associated with employee interest in employee involvement programs.

The eighth and final hypothesis is that current union membership is positively associated with employee interest in employee involvement programs. One study indicates that union membership status has a significant effect on employee willingness to participate in joint consultation (Cregan & Brown, 2010). In relation to this research, it is expected that employees with current union membership will be positively inclined to become involved in employee involvement programs in the organization. Therefore, this variable is also included as control in the research model.

6.10.2 Methodology:

Basic descriptive statistics and cross tabulations were obtained from the data to check data entry errors and other data related issues. Once the consistency of the data checked through descriptive statistics, a multivariate factor analysis (with principal component extraction) was performed to reduce the data into several factors of interest. Factor analysis also applied with oblique rotation (direct oblimin) to understand factor structures more prominently. Once factor analysis was performed and the factor loading structure was finalized, reliability of each factor was then assessed through Cronbach's Alpha. Each factor passing through reliability tests was then calculated by taking averages of components contributing to that factor. Once all the factors were created, correlation analysis and multiple regressions analysis were performed to understand underlying relations of factors assessed in this study.

An EFA (Thompson, 2004) using principal axis factoring was first conducted. An oblique rotation was used (direct oblimin) given an expectation that the different types of HIWP (high involvement work practices) would be highly interrelated (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Further, subjective criteria such as Kaiser Criterion or a Scree test (Thomson, 2004) was used to decide which items should be retain in the factor analysis. The result of the factor analysis indicated that all the factors represented a high level of similar type loading. In this analysis, Comrey and Lee's (1992) criterion of .33 was used as an acceptably strong loading. The pattern matrix of the EFA indicated 2 component matrices (see table 85). For understanding internal validity, the internal consistency and inter-item correlation were analyzed. The overall scale exhibited high internal consistency with Alpha value .87 (see table 86). Although the sample size is more than 175, the normality test of the data was checked using the Shapiro-Wilk test. The test result ($p > .05$) indicated that the overall pattern of the data is normal (see table 87). In this regard, I used log transformation to make my data set normal. Therefore, both the normality test and the Q-Q plot (see figure 16) indicated that the data set of the main dependent variable is normal.

Table 85 Construct Validity: Involvement Work Practice

Particulars	1	2
Labour management committees	.113	.511
Employee suggestion program	.685	.196
Problem-solving teams	.316	.662
Self-directed work groups	.099	.761
Information sharing	.043	.747
Rewards for performance	.892	-.082
Performance feedback	.929	-.095
Formal socializing	.601	.234
Flexibility in decision making	-.228	.834
Coaching and mentoring	.853	.004

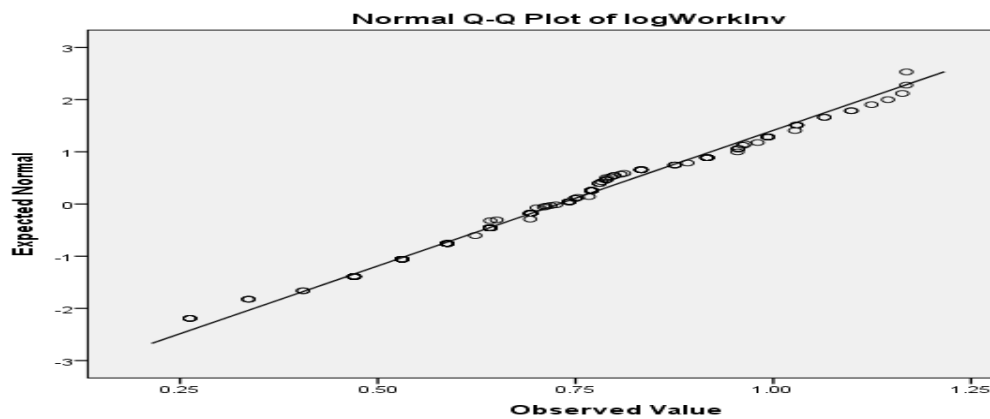
Table 86 Internal Validity: Involvement Work Practice

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.870	.869	10

Table 87: Normality Test: Involvement Work Practice

Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a				Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Work Inv	.074	175	.022	.986	175	.067

Figure 16: Normality Test: Involvement Work Practice



6.10.2.1 Data Source:

The study was conducted in two phases. Initially, an exploratory qualitative case study in the form of interviews was conducted with a convenience sample of 22 faculty members to identify broad themes and issues in each of the key criteria that defined the concept of employee involvement. The results of the interviews were then analyzed and further explored in the form of an in-depth survey of a random sample of 500 faculty members across the college divisions. One hundred and seventy-five survey responses were received representing a response rate of 35%.

6.10.2.2 Variables:

6.10.2.2.1 Dependent Variable

As indicated in the literature review defining the concept of work involvement practice, this variable is the average of six-point Likert scale answers obtained from **Q11a-**

Q11j in the dataset. These ten questions were selected as they were most consistent with the definition of work involvement practices for the purposes of this research study; i.e., (i) joint labour management committees; (ii) employee suggestion programs ;(iii) self-directed work groups; (iv) information-sharing with employees; (v) rewards for performance ; (vi) performance feedback from manager ; (vii) formal opportunities socializing ; (viii) flexibility in decision-making about how work is done; (xi) problem-solving teams and (x) coaching & mentoring from manager. The Cronbach's alpha statistic of these three items is 0.870, which, is very acceptable for this research study.

6.10.2.2.2 Main Independent Variables: Supportive work practices

As indicated in the literature review defining the concept of supportive work practices, this variable is the average of six-point Likert scale answers obtained from Q17a-Q17l, Q21a-Q21n, and Q22a-Q22g in the dataset. Supportive work practices consisted of three main themes including work practices, work role recognition, and work-life balance. The Cronbach's alpha statistic of all of the items is 0.911, which, is very high for this research study. A higher value for this variable indicates that on average, the items have a higher degree of inter-correlation. It is to be noted that the values for this variable are obtained through the average of three different areas of supportive work practices. This research study seeks to assess the overall value of supportive work practices (defined broadly) on employee involvement, rather than examining which type of supportive work practices have the most impact on employee involvement.

6.10.2.2.2 Independent Variables: Management Practices

As indicated in the literature review defining the concept of management practices , this variable is the average of six-point Likert scale answers obtained from **Q44a-Q44f, Q48a-Q48j, and, Q49a-Q49c** in the dataset. Management practices consisted of three main themes including top management involvement, management role, and top management integrity. The Cronbach's alpha statistic of all of the items 0.925, which, is very high for this research study. In this study, this variable is also considered as moderator variable to see whether the interaction term between the supportive work practices and management practices such top management integrity have a moderation effect on employee involvement in the organization.

6.10.2.2.2 Independent Variables: Organization values/system/policies

As indicated in the literature review defining the concept of organization values/systems/policies, this variable is the average of six-point Likert scale answers obtained from **Q42a-Q42g** in the dataset. These seven questions were selected as they were most consistent with the definition of organization values/system/policies for the purposes of this study research. The Cronbach's alpha statistic of these three items is 0.821, which, is very high for this research study.

6.10.2.2.2 Independent Variables: Work Environment

As indicated in the literature review defining the concept of work environment, this variable is the average of six-point Likert scale answers obtained from **Q42a-Q42g** in the dataset. These six questions were selected as they were most consistent with the definition of work environment of this study research. The Cronbach's alpha statistic of these three items is 0.815, which, is very high for this research study.

6.10.2.2.3 Control Variables: Gender, time in organization, current union membership, and age of employees within an organization

Gender of employees – The value for this variable is taken from the answer provided in Q1. A higher value for this variable indicates that on average, the employees working for this institution are female.

Current union membership in organization of employees– The value for this variable is taken from the answer provided in Q6. A higher value for this variable indicates that on average, the employees working for this institution are the members of union.

Length of service or time in organization of employees within the firm – The value for this variable is taken from the answer provided in Q2 (unit: years). A higher value for this variable indicates that on average, the employees working for a particular firm have been working for a longer period of time.

Age of employees within the workplace – The value for this variable is obtained from the answer provided in Q8. A higher value for this variable indicates that on average, the employees working for in this institution are of an older age.

6.10.2.3 Multiple Linear Regression Model:

The statistical model used to test the all the hypotheses in this study is a multiple linear regression that takes the following form:

$$\text{Work involvement programs}(Y) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{supportive work practices} + \beta_2 \text{management practices} + \beta_3 \text{organization values/system/policies} + \beta_4 \text{work environment} + \beta_5 \text{gender} + \beta_6 \text{length of service of employees} + \beta_8 \text{age of employees} + \beta_7 \text{current union membership of employees} + \varepsilon$$

Even though some independent variables are not normally distributed—such as in the case of length of service of employees that is positively skewed, data transformation was performed only for the dependent variable given that the regression model satisfies most of the multiple linear regression model assumptions. As the Shapiro-Wilk test (see table 87) for normality test with a p-value of 0.064 is larger than 5%, the residuals of the regression model are normally distributed. A visual check of the scatter-plot of the residual terms vs. the predicted values (see in the appendix) demonstrates that the residual terms cluster around a band, indicating linearity between the residuals and the dependent variable (employee interest in employee involvement programs). Since the residual terms seem to be linearly associated with the dependent, it must follow that the other independent variables must be linearly associated with the dependent variable; therefore, this assumption is met. Although the scatter-plot of the residual terms vs. the predicted values (see appendix E) shows the clustering of the residual observations along a band (indicating homoscedasticity of residuals), the overall pattern indicates that there is some heteroscedasticity of the residuals. However, since the violation of this assumption is not severe, the analysis proceeded.. The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) statistic is below 10 for each of the independent variables, and by the same token, the tolerance (1/VIF) statistic is greater than 0.1 for each independent variable (see in the appendix F) suggesting that there is no multicollinearity among the independent variables. As there is no observation with Cook's distance larger than 1.0, it may be concluded that there are no outliers in the regression model, indicating that this assumption is satisfied.

6.10.2.3.1 Inferential Results:

Hypothesis 1 predicted that, there would be a positive relationship between supportive work practices and employee interest in employee involvement programs. Results of Pearson's correlational analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between the variables. The strength of all the correlational relationships examined in this

study was based on the guidelines set forth by Cohen (1988, p. 77–81). Specifically, there is a moderate relationship between employee interest in employee involvement programs and the supportive work practices in the organization ($r = .519, p < 0.01$). Therefore, the hypothesis is supported (see Table 88 for all the correlational analyses).

Table 88: Correlation matrix of variables in this study

Work involvement practices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Supportive Work Practices		.519**						
Management Practices	.402**	.790**						
Organization system/Values/Polices	.346**	.797**	.863**					
Work Environment	.295**	.578**	.532**	.621**				
Reward and Recognition	-.284**	-.065	-.129	-.123	-.162*			
Co-existence of Union	.121	.376**	.363**	.406**	.217**	.152*		
Turnover Intention	-.400**	-.658**	-.594**	-.633**	-.561**	.073	.257**	
Work Intensification	-.245**	-.451**	-.494**	-.382**	-.218**	.029	.221**	.355**

Note: ** statistically significant at $p < 0.01$, *statistically significant at $p < 0.05$.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that there would be a positive relationship between perceived management practices and employee interest in employee involvement programs. Specifically, there is a moderate relationship between degree of employee interest in employee involvement programs and the management practices in the organization ($r = .402, p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 3 predicted that there would be a positive relationship between organizational systems/values/policies and employee interest in employee involvement programs. Specifically, there is a moderate relationship between employee involvement and the management practices in the organization ($r = .346, p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 4 predicted that there would be a positive relationship between perceived work environment and employee interest in employee involvement programs. Specifically, there is a low moderate relationship between employee interest in employee involvement programs the work environment in the organization ($r = .295, p < 0.01$).

To test all of the hypotheses, a multiple linear regression was performed for the prediction of employees' perceived interest in employee involvement programs..

As shown in Table 89, after controlling for variables (namely gender, time in organization, age, and current union membership) supportive work practices, management practices, organization values/system/policies, and work environment explain a significant amount of variance in perceived employee interest in employee involvement programs (adjusted $R^2=.316, p<0.01$).

The F-test result indicates that the model is a good fit between the dependent variable and independent variables. The F-test statistic confirms that the model is good fit because the p-value of F-test is lower than the alpha value (both the 5% and 1% levels of significance). Using multiple regression, employee interest in employee involvement programs was regressed on a combination of the predictors variables, *adjusted* $R^2= 0.316, F(8, 167) =11.10, p < 0.001$. Standardised regression coefficients indicated that supportive work practices was the greatest predictor of perceived employee interest in employee involvement programs in the organization ($b = 0.785, p < 0.001$). In addition to supportive work practices, organizational values /systems/policies were also significant in predicting employee interest in employee involvement programs ($b = -0.283, p < 0.05$). However, management practices ($b = 0.176, p > 0.05$) and work environment ($b = 0.088, p > 0.05$) were not found to be significant predictors of employee interest in employee involvement programs.

Table 89: Multiple Linear Regression Model

Source	SS	Df	MS
Model	24.917	8	3.115
Residual	46.869	167	.281
Total	71.786	175	3.3925

Number of Observation	175
F(8, 167)	11.10
P-values	.0000
R-squared	.347
Adjusted R-square	.316

Work Involvement Practices	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	p	Beta
Supportive Work Practices	.785	.144	5.465	.000**	.616
Organization System/Values	-.283	.118	-2.409	.017*	-.345
Management Practices	.176	.135	1.297	.196	.178
Work Environment	.088	.094	.936	.350	.079
Gender	-.089	.086	-1.032	.304	-.069
Time in organization	.095	.051	1.852	.066	.196
Current Union member	.493	.154	3.194	.002**	.209
Age	-.024	.051	-.477	.634	-.048

6.11 Conclusion

This chapter explored the findings of the quantitative portion of the study involving completion of a survey by 175 faculty respondents. Faculty responded to a variety of survey items designed to capture and further explore the key employee involvement themes identified in the qualitative portion of the study discussed in Chapter 5. A brief summary

of the results derived from each key survey topic in discussed in sections 6.9 and 6.10 of this chapter.

The next chapter discusses the results of both the qualitative data presented in Chapter 5 and the quantitative data presented in Chapter 6, conclusions that can be drawn, the potential limitations of the research study, and future areas of research.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION

The purpose of Chapter 7 is to provide an overview of this research study and to interpret the results of the qualitative and quantitative findings presented in chapters 5 and 6. A summary of the study precedes a discussion of both the qualitative and quantitative results, which are organised and presented on the basis of each research question, starting with the central research question.

7.1 Summary of the Study

The overall purpose of the study was to identify the factors that account for the success and failure of employee involvement (EI) initiatives with respect to faculty in unionised organisations in higher education institutions. Typically, research in employee involvement has focused on manufacturing and nonacademic, nonunion service industries. The study sought to fill in the gap in the research on the prevalence of, and requirements for, successful implementation of employee involvement initiatives in unionised higher education environments. Unlike many existing studies that have mainly focused their attempts on examining the central research question from either management or union perspectives, this study has attempted to examine the research question and subquestions from the employee perspective – for the purposes of this study, specifically faculty. The key assumption of this study was that a better understanding of the factors that promote and constrain faculty involvement in their jobs and the broader organisation could provide a key input into policy decisions and into the design of practical interventions that could serve to promote the adoption of employee involvement strategies in higher education institutions.

As identified in Chapter 2, there are many models and frameworks used to define the concept of employee involvement. For the purposes of this study, a synthesised employee involvement construct was developed from these existing models and theories. This construct was the basis for the design of both the initial qualitative study used in this

research project and in the quantitative survey portion of the study where the initial employee involvement themes explored qualitatively were expanded upon and explored in more depth.

The study was conducted in a large community college in Toronto, Canada, among unionised faculty across a broad range of disciplines. The study was conducted in two phases. Initially, an exploratory qualitative case study in the form of interviews was conducted with a convenience sample of 22 faculty members to identify broad themes and issues relating to each of the key criteria that defined the concept of employee involvement. The results of the interviews were then analysed and further explored in the form of an in-depth survey of a random sample of 500 faculty members across the college divisions. One hundred and seventy-five survey responses were received, representing a response rate of 30%.

The high number of responses from participants provided valuable in-depth data for presentation and analysis. Although the qualitative case study methodology has limitations, particularly in terms of statistical analysis, the results of the follow-up quantitative survey provided sufficient data to answer the overarching research question and subquestions in depth and to draw conclusions from the study. The discussion of the results and conclusions of this research study are presented below. The central research question is first addressed in terms of a summary of findings, followed in turn by a similar approach for each of the research subquestions. Conclusions to the study and recommendations for policies and practices will be discussed in Chapter 8

7.2 Central Research Question: Results and Conclusions

The central research question examined the factors that account for the success and failure of employee involvement (EI) initiatives with respect to faculty in unionised organisations in higher education institutions:

What are the factors that account for the success and failure of employee involvement initiatives with respect to faculty in unionised organisations in higher education?

For this study, the employee involvement construct used and identified in Chapter 2 was grouped into major themes for purposes of data collection and analysis in the qualitative portion of the study. These major themes were Work practices, training and development, management style, rewards, and organisational structure, strategies and policies. The quantitative study provided more depth to the data collected in the qualitative portion. For the discussion of findings related to the central research question, the framework of major themes used in the qualitative study will be applied to discuss both the qualitative and the quantitative findings. The qualitative and quantitative findings for each major theme will be summarised, followed by conclusions.

7.2.1 Theme: Work Practices

With respect to the theme of work practices, the factors of autonomy, problem-solving opportunities, communication, contribution to organisational goals, and impact of workload on work-life balance are addressed.

Subtheme: Autonomy. Results of both interviews and surveys support the literature by indicating that faculty perceive that bureaucratic policies and procedures such as team teaching, management control of final evaluation outcomes in the form of extra paperwork to process exams, and constraints on faculty with respect to choices of courses to teach and choice of texts all served to limit faculty autonomy by restricting the level of faculty involvement in decision-making regarding their work. Contrary to the literature (Burton, 2015), faculty find team teaching in the guise of handling curriculum planning and evaluation served to restrict their sense of autonomy.

Table 90

Summary Table, Subtheme: Autonomy

Summary of interview data	Summary of survey data	Concluding remarks
<p>Feedback from the faculty interviews identify factors promoting auto-nomous work practices mainly as the professor's ability to choose course material and to design courses. While understanding that general guidelines need to be followed to ensure consistency in the teaching material, faculty members recognise that they are afforded the freedom to determine how to design, deliver, and evaluate their courses. Both sessional and full-time faculty agree that the more specialised the subject area, the more autonomy they are afforded in terms of design, development, and delivery of the course.</p> <p>Factors that reduce autonomy include the need for chairs to sign off on exams and the need to submit learning outcomes forms with the exams. Some cited the need for team teaching in some subject areas as a factor that significantly limits their autonomy because of the need for common assignments and exams for all faculty teaching a particular subject.</p> <p>A number of faculty suggest that autonomy could be increased by having more input into choice of textbooks and choice of courses to teach.</p>	<p>Table 22 depicts the frequency statistics for the question, "What are the three most significant factors which limit autonomy in your job?" The collective agreement is deemed to limit autonomy most, as 38.3% of the respondents indicate that the collective agreement is of <i>"highest significance"</i>.</p> <p>The second most common factor is considered to be "limited choices about subjects taught." Chair approval of tests and exams and team teaching courses are of <i>"moderate significance,"</i> while curriculum requirements by professional bodies are chosen as having the least amount of significance affecting autonomy.</p>	<p>Results of both interview and survey indicate that bureaucratic policies and procedures such as team teaching, management control of final evaluation outcomes in the form of extra paperwork to process exams, and limitations of faculty with respect to choices of courses to teach and choice of texts all served to limit faculty autonomy. However, the collective agreement was identified as the most significant factor in limiting faculty autonomy while curriculum requirements by professional bodies were rated as least significant.</p>

Short and Rinehart (1992) support the need for reducing the barriers to autonomy by identifying six dimensions of teacher empowerment, which include the level of teacher involvement in decisions involving their work and teachers' perceptions that they have autonomy over their work. Vandenberg, Richardson, and Eastman (1999) stress that organisations must ensure that they develop the perception in employees, both front-line and management, that they are indeed involved. This perception should be created not only

by implementing HR practices but also by developing an organisational culture of involvement.

Significantly, the data identify the collective agreement as having the most limiting impact of faculty autonomy, a finding contrary to the literature. Wilkinson, Townsend, and Burgess (2013) find to the contrary in studying both manufacturing and service sectors that organisations with the highest union density also had the highest levels of decision-making. Pohler and Luchak (2014) stress that unionised employees are more satisfied with their workplace through the ability of the union to consider the needs and preferences of diverse employees. This study's finding on the limiting effect of the collective agreement may be due to the fact that the college collective agreement is very specific about the number of hours a faculty member may teach per term, which places constraints on the number and types of courses faculty can teach as the number of assigned hours spelled out in the collective agreement drives the number and types of course assignments. Additionally, the nature of work in a higher education institution is fundamentally different in nature from the work of manufacturing or service-based organisations, where knowledge workers may be more directly impacted by working conditions and terms outlined in the collective agreement.

Subtheme: Problem-solving opportunities. The majority of faculty identified problem-solving opportunities as very important as a measure of involvement in both the qualitative and the quantitative study, but only rated this factor as somewhat present in their daily work. The key reason for this finding is identified in the qualitative study as a lack of sufficient and focused team meetings, as meetings are often focused on information-sharing by management rather than generating team-based solutions to problems.

Table 91

Summary Table, Subtheme: Problem-Solving Opportunities

Summary of interview data	Summary of survey data
<p>Faculty identifies factors such as working as part of a team in the case of team teaching as beneficial for problem-solving opportunities.</p> <p>Regular department meetings are another factor that is rated highly by faculty as a vehicle for promoting problem-solving opportunities</p> <p>However, several faculty members find that problem-solving opportunities are not as available as they should be, including a lack of sufficient team meetings and poor attendance at what are perceived as ineffective meetings.</p> <p>Faculty view the meetings as informative rather than an opportunity for problem-solving, and they do not feel that they are empowered to contribute to solutions.</p> <p>They also state that the top-down information flow from management provides little opportunity for faculty input into problem-solving, particularly at the organisational level.</p>	<p>Table 30 details the frequency statistics for questions pertaining to problem-solving. In response to the question regarding the extent to which problem-solving teams are important in the work environment, 53.1% indicate it is <i>“very important”</i> and 30.9% say it is <i>“somewhat important,”</i> with 1.1% saying it is <i>“not important.”</i></p> <p>Regarding the degree to which opportunities for job-related problem-solving (e.g., regular team meetings) are present in the workplace, 49.1% noted that they are <i>“somewhat present,”</i> while 26.3% stated that they are <i>“slightly present.”</i></p>

These findings are supported in the literature by Pollay, Taylor, and Thompson (1976), who propose the use of small, frequent meetings based on horizontal power-sharing and decision-making to engage faculty more fully in solving immediate work-related and broader organisational problems. Gamboa and Melão (2012), in a study of success factors in employee involvement in education, identify line manager support in providing employees with time and opportunities to work on process improvement projects as key. This study’s finding that top-down management decision-making works against involvement is supported by the literature where studies with respect to service industries confirm that decentralisation of decision-making in everyday business operations is positively related to idea generation and innovation (Abdel Aziz & Rizkallah, 2015). Phipps, Prieto, and Ndinguri (2013) confirm the need for decentralisation of decision-making, stating that a culture that promotes employee involvement recognises and embraces the development of employees, the facilitation of their informed decision-making, and the sharing of power between management and the workforce. In a high-involvement culture, management encourages choice and participation in decision-making

instead of control (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994). In a highly involved organisation the line of sight lengthens with greater access to information and involvement in running the business while the focus of top management and front-line employees converges as the employees start to see that they also have a say and stake in the company's success (Kaufman, 2003).

Subtheme: Communication. The results of the study are supported by the literature on the relationship between communication and building a highly involved workforce. It highlights the importance of the opportunity for employees to contribute to the development of organisational goals through effective communication with management.

Table 92

Summary Table, Subtheme: Communication

Summary of interview data	Summary of survey data
<p>Faculty identify top-down communication and limited communication, mostly in the form of emails, as key in promoting a weak communication structure in the college. Lack of regular feedback on performance and organisational issues are also identified as key factors in poor communication between faculty and management.</p> <p>On the issue of performance feedback, faculty feel that student surveys, which constitute the only tangible feedback, are ineffective indicators of faculty performance, being limited in scope and untimely in results provided to professors.</p> <p>Faculty identify a lack of communication by management in discussing the strategic plan and vision with faculty as a major problem in building faculty commitment and involvement.</p> <p>Infrequent, information-based meetings are also identified as ineffective tools for promoting sharing of ideas and innovation that moves the group forward.</p>	<p>The findings of Table 58 support the qualitative findings of limited use and variety of communication channels, with only 33% of faculty giving a positive rating to the statement, "Management uses a variety of communication channels to communicate with employees."</p> <p>Faculty members also give a low positive rating of 33% to the statement, "Top management has a clear vision which is effectively communicated to employees." With respect to seeking out faculty suggestions and opinions, only 28% of faculty provide strong positive agreement to the statement, "Management actively seeks out employee suggestions and opinions."</p>

Scholars in the field of employee involvement have identified two-way communication and joint consultation between employees and management as key requirements for the successful development of an EI culture (Lawler, 1992; Ackers, Marchington, Wilkinson, & Goodman, 1992). More recently, Evans and Davis (2005) argue that an employee involvement culture promotes communication and cooperation that in turn reduces employee turnover and enhances organisational performance. In a cross-sectional study of three service sector organisations in Canada, Boudrias et al. (2010) identify the supervisor's ability to effectively communicate organisational objectives and relevant job information as instrumental in enhancing levels of employee involvement. S. H. Appelbaum, Karasek, Lapointe, and Quelch(2015) conclude that a culture of trust and open communication is necessary for the development of an employee involvement culture.

For the most part, the results of the study reinforce these literature findings. While both the qualitative and quantitative findings highlighted faculty desire for a more effective communication process with management, this finding is contrary to the union view of employee involvement presented in the literature where communication between employee and management is not seen as a promoter of involvement, but instead may be seen as creating a second and divisive channel of communication that may serve to erode the collective bargaining process (Eaton, 1990). This finding points to an important difference between unionised and nonunion organisations in how communication between employees and management is viewed with respect to promoting employee involvement. The very presence of the union and the union's view of its function as a voice for employees and its subsequent actions in daily operations and through the collective bargaining process may serve to reduce the effectiveness of management's attempts to communicate clearly and directly to individual employees at front-line levels of the organisation. In turn, the union impediment to the flow in communication between employee and management may serve to constrain the employee's ability to have unobstructed and unbiased access to the information necessary to engage fully in supporting the goals of the organisation.

Subtheme: Opportunities to contribute to organisational goals. Faculty’s desire to have a higher level of involvement in the broader organisational context can serve to improve involvement and ultimately organisational efficiency. The literature identifies many benefits to affording employees a higher level of contribution. These benefits include the ability of employees to identify problem areas and to suggest practical solutions.

Table 93

Summary Table, Subtheme: Opportunities to Contribute to Organisational Goals

Summary of interview data	Summary of survey data
<p>Faculty identify the restrictive nature of working in a unionised environment coupled with the collective agreement as major deterrents to engaging in activities outside of their jobs that would provide them with more challenges and opportunities to contribute to organisational goals. While sitting on committees such as the cheating and plagiarism committee and attending convocation were seen as major avenues for extra participation, these were too infrequent in nature to be significant drivers of increased contribution. Part-time contract faculty also indicate that they were only paid for in-class time that limited their desire to contribute beyond their immediate job duties.</p> <p>Faculty also indicated that they are not made aware of extra opportunities, and that when they do participate they are not recognised for their contributions. Younger faculty also feel that their ideas and opinions may not be valued, particularly in a work environment based on seniority with a high percentage of older workers.</p>	<p>Table 28 indicates that although faculty are willing to put effort into achieving organisational goals beyond the immediate scope of their jobs and feel it is important to do so, they feel that opportunities to contribute are very limited. Approximately 59% of the faculty either “<i>strongly</i>” or “<i>mostly</i>” agreed with the statement, “I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organisation be successful.” When asked about the extent to which opportunities to contribute were available, 80.6% indicated that they were only “<i>slightly</i>” to “<i>somewhat</i>” available.</p> <p>Table 58 reflects the gap between the 52% of faculty who “<i>mostly</i>” or “<i>strongly agree</i>” that management believes that faculty have the knowledge and skills to improve organisational performance and the 30% who “<i>mostly</i>” or “<i>strongly agree</i>” that management actively seeks out employee suggestions and opinions.</p>

Employees may also be more accepting of change initiatives and changes made will be more sustainable than those unilaterally imposed by management (E. Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg, & Kalleberg, 2000; Gruman & Saks, 2011). Vandenberg et al. (1999) stress that an important aspect of creating a high-involvement culture is to create the perception among employees that they are indeed involved by providing a broad range of opportunities for

them to contribute beyond job requirements, suggesting that employee surveys on faculty perceptions of involvement should be used as a standard metric in implementing and evaluating the success of employee involvement programmes. Pollay et al. (1976) studied power-sharing and decision-making by faculty in selecting a dean and concluded that the participatory process forced faculty to ponder the organisation's – and hence their own – strategy and future prospects, thus promoting a self-adaptive organisational learning process.

Buch and Shelnutt (1995) report that employees who felt that management had little interest in their ideas about implementing an employee involvement programme at their university experienced reduced interest and sense of empowerment in the implementation process. Bogler and Somech (2005) also find that teachers who are involved in decision-making related either to their classroom or more broadly to the organisation exhibited more engaged behaviour with both their students and their colleagues. Donais (2010) makes the important point that the road to engaging a unionised workforce begins with engaging union leadership, as employees rely on the union to test the reality of management proposals with respect to organisational vision, goals, strategies, and working conditions. Creating an environment of trust for employees also depends on reliance on the union's due diligence in ascertaining that the employer is acting with integrity and is deserving of their trust.

In sum, both the literature and study findings support the notion that allowing faculty more decision-making input in organisational issues beyond the scope of their job can serve to create a higher level of EI through increased levels of citizenship and sense of ownership, maintaining the organisation's viability in the long term.

Subtheme: Workload and work-life balance. The literature supports the findings of the qualitative and quantitative results regarding the impact of both job-related and non-job-related stress factors on employee involvement. There is much evidence in the literature that increasing levels of influence and responsibility at the job- and non-job-related levels increase employee stress (Busck, Knudsen, & Lind, 2010; White, Hill, McGovern, Mills, & Smeaton, 2003). In the move to managing the pressures on education as a result of globalisation, changes in the governance of schools, which are now being designed to replicate business models, mean that faculty are now subjected to greater levels of pressure through increased responsibility for activities outside their jobs such as budgets and job-related planning activities (Markey, Patmore, & Balnave, 2010).

Table 94

Summary Table, Subtheme: Workload and Work-Life Balance

Summary of interview data	Summary of survey data
<p>Qualitative findings suggest that faculty for the most part feel that workload is manageable and does not affect their ability to become more involved in broader organisational activities.</p> <p>Some constraints that faculty cite as increasing stress and therefore reducing time or desire to be more involved include ever-increasing accountability outside the classroom such as the increase in administrative work that has shifted to faculty. Also constraining is the increasingly diverse student base and needs such as ESL students. Another constraint on involvement is the difficulty in forming strong bonds of collegiality because of varying faculty schedules.</p>	<p>Table 24 also supports the qualitative finding of manageable workload, where 87% of faculty “strongly” or “mostly agree” that their workload and schedule provide a high degree of work-life balance.</p> <p>While faculty feel their immediate workload is manageable, fewer (51%) either “mostly” or “strongly agree” that they have time to plan and develop either current or future courses.</p> <p>Table 26 reveals that faculty rank “resolving student issues” and “bureau-cratic policies and procedures” as the top two stress factors related to their jobs.</p>

The finding that varying work schedules impede the creation of a culture of involvement is unique to this study and contradictory to the literature since flexibility of work schedule has not been identified in the literature as a constraint on involvement. Indeed, the literature touts flexibility as an important element of the HIWS (Gunderson, Ponak, & Taras, 2005)..In a study of the relationship between nonstandard workers and organisational commitment, Wittmer and Martin (2011) found that part-time workers tend to be less

psychologically involved in the workplace and experience less positive work attitudes than full-time employees. There are many reasons for this finding, arising from outside and inside the organisation. In a sense, unionised college faculty with flexible work schedules may be considered to be nonstandard workers, and many do indeed have small businesses and other teaching commitments elsewhere that occupy their time and energy and lessen their attachment to the organisation even though they have full-time status. In addition to other outside commitments, the lack of frequent contact and communication with other faculty owing to flexible schedules may serve to reduce feelings of affective commitment to the organisation. As discussed at length in the literature, key requirements for an effective employee involvement programme include the use of teams and constant communication throughout the organisation; both factors are significantly affected negatively when faculty are not in full and regular attendance at work on a daily basis.

7.2.2 Theme: Training and Development

The literature supports the study's findings on the importance of training and development opportunities in creating successful employee involvement programmes. Fu (2013) invokes the use of extensive training and development to create innovative workplace behaviour in employees that is essential for firm innovation. Gephart and Van Buren (1996) identify adequate training and support as a critical success factor for the implementation of an employee involvement system. Lawler (1992), and more recently Jimmieson, Hannam, and Yeo (2010), cite training and development as an important vehicle for improving employee decision-making capabilities, while Gunderson et al. (2005) identify a highly skilled and trained workforce as a key element of a high-involvement workplace. The significant impact of training and development in building employee involvement is supported by Evans and Davis (2005), who posit that employee involvement programmes improve organisation performance by giving employees the knowledge, skills, and abilities to perform job tasks as well as the motivation to do so (Delery & Shaw, 2001). In doing so, employee discretionary effort, creativity, and productivity are increased. These in turn increase organisational measures such as employee turnover and job satisfaction (Dyer & Reeves, 1995).

Table 95

Summary Table, Theme: Training and Development

Summary of interview data	Summary of survey data
<p>Faculty perceive that courses offered by Professional Development met their basic needs, particularly in the area of technology.</p> <p>However, most feel training is limited in scope and time, primarily because of budget restrictions. Training done by the internal professional development group is deemed ineffective, particularly as there is no formal training procedure for training staff in place. Lack of information about training opportunities and academic advancement are also key constraints on receiving effective training. Lack of effective training is perceived by staff as a significant barrier to having the tools and information needed to do a good job, which in turn reduces their sense of efficacy and engagement.</p>	<p>Table 33 reveals a gap between faculty’s view of the high importance of training and development opportunities as a vehicle for greater employee involvement and the actual presence of these opportunities. While 70% of faculty “<i>mostly agreed</i>” opportunities for professional development were important, only 26% felt they were “<i>very present</i>” on the job. While 73% of faculty deem training and development essential for employee involvement, 48% feel that lack of support for employee development creates a barrier to involvement.</p> <p>Table 40 reveals a lack of time to take training and lack of customised training for specific faculty needs as additional contributors to the gap.</p>

From the organisational learning and knowledge management perspective, employee involvement programmes help firms to build a strong organisational culture and climate. This in turn allows employees to create, transfer, and implement their knowledge, which helps a firm to create and maintain its core competencies (Shipton, Fay, West, Patterson, & Birdi, 2005). In the field of higher education, this means more innovation and excellence in teaching.

7.2.3 Theme: Management Style

Subtheme: Chair's style. The finding on the strong influence of middle management, rather than top- or programme-level management differs from the literature, where first-line supervisors are seen as having the most influence on building a culture of employee involvement (Bates, 2004). This discrepancy may be due to the difference in the nature of work done in previous research, which has focused on manufacturing jobs where first-line supervisors need to have a more hands-on role in leadership while academic leadership requires more coaching and mentoring rather than hands-on, directive leadership. Both qualitative and quantitative results highlight the fact that management tends to be authoritarian and top-down, with little opportunity for bottom-up collaboration and contribution. This management approach can constrain employee involvement, as micromanagers can create a sense of incompetence in employees and reduce their sense of intrinsic motivation (Lawler, 1992). On the other hand, the role of manager as coach or facilitator allows employees to have more flexibility and self-direction in performing their jobs (Osterman, Kochan, Locke, & Piore, 2001).

Faculty feel management views their role as mainly administrative and also that many mid-level managers lack the necessary interpersonal skills to perform effectively. Literature findings support the notion that mid-level managers view themselves as primarily administrators, a view which works against creating a climate of employee involvement (Spreitzer, 1996; Tesluk, Vance, & Mathieu, 1999).

While faculty identify many positive aspects of management style such as respect for staff, fairness in administering policies, and flexibility in work assignments, qualitative and quantitative data also show a low rating by faculty on management's receptiveness to the implementation of employee involvement. A lack of connection at a personal level is identified as a key constraint on furthering faculty desire to be more involved. Management's ability to relate to staff is viewed as extremely important but lacking in the work environment according to qualitative data results.

Table 96

Summary Table, Subtheme: Chair's Style

Summary of interview data	Summary of survey data
<p>With respect to creating a culture of involvement, on the positive side, faculty feel their chairs are fair in administering policies and schedules. They also feel their chairs keep communication channels open by using an open-door policy and being open to suggestions from faculty. Faculty also feel that chair receptiveness to new ideas and concepts as well as practising "management by walking around" also serve to create a culture of involvement.</p> <p>Fairness in administering policies and procedures as well a lack of discrimination is also cited as serving to promote a culture of involvement.</p> <p>On the negative side, faculty feel that chairs are too focused on administrative issues and deficient in providing support. Chairs are described as doing more monitoring than mentoring. Faculty also feel that chairs tend to use an authoritative rather than participative style of management that reduces faculty desire to be more involved in their work. Chairs are also described as 'old school' and lacking the education or management skills required to manage a professional workforce. Faculty also feel that chairs micromanage rather than focusing on employee development and coaching. Lack of connection with managers at a personal level and management's lack of interpersonal skill are also viewed as barriers to creating a higher degree of employee involvement.</p>	<p>Table 45 reveals that attitudes of management, particularly mid-level management, are key in developing a participative climate for faculty. Eighty-four percent of faculty "mostly" or "strongly" agree that the attitudes and behaviours of department chairs are most significant rather than programme-level or top-level management. A key constraint on promoting employee involvement is the belief by faculty that management sees its role as primarily administrative (62% "mostly" or "strongly" espouse this belief). Another key constraint on management effectiveness in creating a culture of involvement relates to faculty's negative view of the statement that management believes that faculty have the skills and knowledge to improve organisational performance through employee involvement practices (only 37% "mostly" or "strongly agree"). Faculty also feel that there is a low level of trust between management and faculty where only 20% of faculty either "mostly" or "strongly agree" with the statement, "There is a high degree of trust between management and faculty."</p> <p>Table 49 highlights some possible reasons cited by faculty for management resistance to employee involvement initiatives, including management fear of loss of control over work issues, followed by the belief that faculty will not work in the best interests of the organisation and fear of management job losses.</p> <p>Table 51 identifies interpersonal skills as most critical for creating high involvement by faculty. Coaching and mentoring skills as well as communication skills are also highly rated as important in an effective chair.</p>

Belcourt and Taggart (2002), in a study of public-sector employees in Canada, support the finding that affective commitment by employees to the organisation or to their manager is associated with higher levels of performance and involvement in their jobs. Interpersonal

skills were also identified as the most important skill for a chair. The literature identifies and supports the importance of interpersonal skills for building involvement and most importantly as the vehicle for building trust in management and the organisation (S. H. Appelbaum et al., 2004; Spreitzer & Mishra, 1999).

On the issue of trust, the quantitative findings did not strongly support the view that faculty feel that there was a high degree of trust between themselves and management. Trust is advocated in the literature a key ingredient of employee involvement. Kahn (1990) describes trust as a form of psychological safety that allows employees to experiment and be creative without fear of reprisals. Schuler (1992) proposes that a great benefit of employee empowerment is that it increases employees' trust in their managers by dissolving boundaries between the two parties. However, Jones and George (1998) point out that a great challenge for the organisation is to build trust by implementing progressive human resources practices. In a study of the relationship between procedural justice and employee involvement, Wu and Chaturvedi (2009) conclude that employee involvement initiatives are effective in shaping the perception of fair procedures and in fostering perceptions of procedural justice, which in turn encourage positive employee attitudes. These positive employee attitudes include increased employee trust between employees and management as well as increased employee commitment and organizational citizenship (Tang & Ibrahim, 2008). The managerial implications from a human resources management perspective are that managers, particularly middle managers need to be trained to create an empowering environment for employees and to practice empowering management techniques. Specifically management must be trained in moving from an administrative leadership style to one that focuses more on coaching and mentoring employees and facilitating team processes. Management must also be trained in establishing communication processes that facilitate knowledge sharing such as open door policies, regular team meetings and focus groups. Human resources policies and practices should focus on promoting procedural and distributive justice including the use of fair administrative processes to recruit, select, compensate, train and promote employees.

Subtheme: Consultation with faculty and management receptiveness. The study findings indicate that faculty perceive lack of opportunities for joint consultation with management and management's lack of receptiveness to engage in more participative behaviours such as joint consultation on broader issues than immediate teaching schedules and concerns as significant constraints on their ability and desire to be more fully involved in their work and organisational issues.

Table 97

**Summary Table, Subtheme: Consultation with Faculty and Management
Receptiveness**

Summary of interview data	Summary of survey data
<p>Faculty identify the collective bargaining process as very effective in helping to facilitate faculty input on decisions concerning their work. They also cite daily discussions with course and programme cocoordinators as a key tool for consultation on work decisions. However, they feel that broader consultation on strategic issues concerning their work or broader organisational issues was limited.</p> <p>On the negative side, faculty feel the organisation is a top-down, management-driven culture, particularly at chair and top management levels, representing a significant barrier to a collaborative culture. Faculty also believe management spends too much time cloistered in their offices and not much time engaging with faculty. Generally, they feel that most of their interaction with the chair was limited to discussing work assignments.</p>	<p>Table 56 supports the qualitative findings. While 60% of faculty feel it is “<i>very important</i>” for management to be receptive to new ideas, only 20% feel this is “<i>very present</i>” in the work environment. While at least 68% of faculty feel that joint consultation is “<i>somewhat</i>” to “<i>very important</i>,” only 42% feel it is present. Interestingly, while 42% of faculty “<i>mostly agree</i>” that management is generally receptive to new ways of doing things suggested by faculty, only 34% “<i>mostly agree</i>” that management would be receptive to the implementation of employee involvement practices.</p> <p>Table 58 reflects faculty perceptions that management is not proactive in seeking out faculty suggestions and opinions, where only 28% of faculty perceive that “management actively seeks out employee suggestions and opinions.” Only 33% of faculty believe management often models participative behaviour by asking for faculty input.</p>

These findings are strongly supported in the literature pertaining to factors that are important in creating a culture of involvement. Many definitions of employee involvement identify knowledge and information as key components of a strong culture of involvement (Ackers et al., 1992; Konrad, 2006; Lawler, 1992). Dachler and Wilpert (1978) suggest that employee participation can be viewed as a continuum reflecting the degree of actual decision-making and influence that employees exercise in their work with higher levels of decision-making leading to higher levels of involvement. Employee input in decisions formerly made by management and worker involvement in quality issues at all stages of the work process are key in generating a sense of participation and a key characteristic of a successful employee involvement culture (Gittleman, Horrigan, & Joyce, 1998; Gunderson et al., 2005). E. J. Walton and Dawson (2001) posit that an effective employee

involvement system encourages collaboration of thoughts and transfer of information that can be used to further organisational objectives and can ultimately serve to provide the organisation with a competitive advantage.

The importance of management receptiveness in creating a culture of involvement found in the study is supported by the literature. Managerial ideology affects behaviour and outcomes at all levels of the organisation and plays an important role in impacting employee attitudes, productivity, and quality. Moreover, employees are most likely to look to their managers for guidance in ideological areas (Godard, 1997; Goll & Zeitz, 1991). The study reveals faculty beliefs that management is reluctant to engage in implementing employee involvement practices, and the literature supports these findings. Simons (1995) proposes that effective managers believe in the innate potential of their employees to add value, and that to unleash employee potential, the manager must be willing to give up control over decision-making and transfer it to employees. Klein (1984) cites concerns over job security, extra work around programme coordination, and loss of status and power as boss as key reasons for management resistance.

7.2.4 Theme: Rewards

A key component of creating a culture of employee involvement is to reward employees for expending discretionary effort to enhance organisational performance (Lawler, 1992). Effective employee involvement systems are based on innovative compensation practices to motivate employees, including financial rewards such as incentives and profit-sharing (Ackers et al., 1992; E. J. Walton & Dawson, 2001).

Table 98

Summary Table, Theme: Rewards

Summary of interview data	Summary of survey data
<p>Faculty express the view that generally there is no need for extrinsic rewards as they are well paid and budgets are limited. Many feel that motivation for teaching should be intrinsic where growth and development should be key motivating factors. They express the view that the most meaningful rewards are intrinsically based. Unfortunately, the only rewards generally given out are extrinsic ones such as wall plaques and certificates, and these are only occasionally handed out. Public recognition such as teaching awards is also cited as a motivating factor, but faculty feel there is no concrete programme in place to support excellence in teaching.</p> <p>Faculty believe the current college reward system is inconsistent and the current random reward system does not promote quality teaching or greater citizenship behaviour. The union presence is also deemed to limit the availability of rewards, particularly extrinsic rewards, as the traditional union compensation system does not allow for performance bonuses, profit-sharing, and other incentive based rewards.</p>	<p>Table 60 indicates that 54% of employees perceived rewards for performance as “<i>very important</i>,” while 56% described it as “<i>not present</i>.” The qualitative data on lack of a structured reward system are supported by quantitative results, where 72% of faculty “<i>mostly</i>” agree that there is a lack of a consistent reward and recognition system.</p> <p>Quantitative results support qualitative data reflecting faculty’s desire for intrinsic rewards. Table 62 indicates that faculty desire freedom and challenge in their work as well as training and development opportunities as primary rewards. Tangible, extrinsic rewards such as tokens of appreciation like lunch, praise from supervisor, and public recognition such as teaching awards are ranked as far less significant in contributing to work effectiveness and greater citizenship behaviour.</p>

The study results indicate that faculty appreciate intrinsic rewards much more than extrinsic rewards in promoting a higher level of motivation and ultimately employee involvement. These findings appear to contradict the literature that promotes tangible and incentive-based rewards as a key component of employee involvement programmes (Ackers et al., 1992; E. J. Walton & Dawson, 2001; Fu, 2013). Most of the literature on employee involvement has focused on manufacturing and low-level service jobs where incentive rewards may be more important to employees. In a unionised, white-collar academic environment where salaries and benefits are quite generous, the nonfinancial and intrinsic rewards may be more important in promoting involvement given the nature of these types of employees. While faculty in higher education generally have relatively high job security, wages, and benefits, and relatively high job autonomy, they have limited avenues for

promotion and development, as well as limited budgets available for such activities outside their job, owing to the constraints created both by the collective agreement and by bureaucratic policies, procedures, and budgets. Instead, intrinsic rewards and psychological factors play a significant role in faculty performance and desire to engage in more citizenship behaviour (Oplatka, 2006; Somech & Ron, 2007). In a study of college faculty, Bieg, Backes, and Mittag (2011) report that few faculty valued teacher awards and preferred instead more developmental and promotional opportunities. These contradictory findings in the literature concerning the greater importance of intrinsic rewards is supported by Cooke (1994), who finds in a study of nonunion and unionised firms that incentive compensation programmes are not an effective component of employee involvement programmes in unionised firms.

7.2.5 Theme: Organisational Structure, Strategies, and Policies

The qualitative study identified two key structural variables that promoted a high-involvement culture. The first of these was identified as small, team-based work units that dealt with planning for multisection courses and specific academic programmes.

The use of small work groups and horizontal power-sharing is supported by the literature (Pollay et al., 1976; Buch & Shelnut, 1995). The use of social events to generate a feeling of camaraderie and increase employee involvement is also supported in the literature. At a macro level, Knudsen, Markey, and Simpkin (2013), in a study of work environment and participation in schools, find a positive association between work environment quality and increased participation in the workplace. Interestingly, they find that more participation is wanted by the teachers at the schools with the worst work environment but is not in great demand among teachers enjoying a good work environment. The literature supports the notion that employee involvement initiatives serve as both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators by fulfilling employee needs in the areas of growth and development as well as economic, family, and social needs (Shen et al., 2014).

Table 99

Summary Table, Theme: Organisational Structure, Strategies, and Policies

Summary of interview data	Summary of survey data
<p>Faculty identify two key structural factors that promote involvement: small, team-based work units that deal with planning for multisection courses and social events such as picnics that contribute to building a sense of camaraderie. The open-door policy practised by management is cited as very effective in creating a sense of involvement. On the negative side, faculty feel that the bureaucratic nature of the organisation and the presence of the union and the collective agreement limit the organisation's ability to move to a more high-involvement culture. Faculty feel that the collective agreement constrains their ability to be more entrepreneurial in developing programmes that would appeal to outside agencies since their hours and pay are limited by the collective agreement. In particular, the practice of assigning teaching loads through the impersonal method of placing the workload forms in faculty mailboxes creates an arm's-length relationship between the chair and faculty members.</p> <p>Structurally, the high degree of hierarchy and functional organisation of the various departments and schools create an adversarial culture and low level of faculty involvement, particularly outside of the faculty member's immediate job and team.</p>	<p>Table 77 indicates that while about 50% of faculty feel "the organisation sets reasonable goals and objectives," only 30% "mostly agree" that "decisions about work are made at the levels where the most adequate information is available." On the positive side, 44% of faculty "mostly agree" that "work activities are sensibly structured." Also on a positive note, 47% of faculty expressed loyalty to the organisation. However, only 32% of faculty "mostly agree" that the organisation would be willing to help if they needed a special favour.</p>

For the most part, the literature supports the study findings that flexible organisational structures and culture are important factors to consider in developing a high-involvement culture (Gunderson et al., 2005; Neal, Tromley, Lopez, & Russell, 1995). Matthews, Diaz, and Cole (2003) identify structural organisational factors that facilitate involvement, the most important being fluidity of information-sharing where employees may access any relevant organisational information without structural barriers and through replacement of hierarchy with teams. Pohler and Luchak (2014) identify the union presence in the organisation as a serious impediment, arguing that the union structure in larger organisations prevents the flattening of the organisation's structure that would be more conducive to promoting high-involvement programmes and policies. The study also identifies the union presence as instrumental in creating departmental and functional segregation, thus creating an adversarial rather than participative culture. In a review of

scholarly articles that discuss the main factors affecting the success or failure of employee involvement initiatives, S. H. Appelbaum, Karasek, Lapointe, and Quelch (2014) conclude that a team-based structure and culture based on trust and open communication are key factors required to build a culture of involvement.

7.2.6 Conclusions

The results of the qualitative and quantitative studies provide answers to the main research question: What are the factors that account for the success and failure of employee involvement initiatives with respect to faculty in unionised organisations in higher education? While many factors cited in the literature as promoting faculty involvement were confirmed in the study, interesting divergences from the literature were also discovered. The following discussion examines these factors. Their implications for theory and practice are discussed in Chapter 8.

Among factors identified in the study as promoting involvement, a key factor is the ability of faculty to have a high level of decision-making around work practices. Also key is the creation of a decentralised decision-making process in the organisation where work-related decisions are made by the people at the level in the organisation who have the most relevant knowledge to make these decisions.

Another key factor promoting involvement is the use of small team-based work groups meeting regularly not only to share information but also to solve common work problems. Social events are also identified in the study as effective in creating a climate of camaraderie that fosters a culture of involvement. Faculty also feel involvement could be promoted by making faculty accountable for broader organisational decisions, not just job-related ones. Related to this factor is the need to involve faculty in developing organisational goals as well as clear communication of organisational goals to faculty. Interestingly, there was a significant departure from the literature with respect to factors promoting involvement. Contrary to the prevailing view in the literature, the study found that nontangible and intrinsic rewards were viewed as more effective in promoting involvement than tangible, financial rewards. The study also revealed that having mid-level

management who are accessible and trained in leadership and who communicate regularly with staff and have excellent interpersonal skills is a significant influence on faculty's desire to be more involved. Middle management was identified by faculty as more instrumental in building involvement than either top management or subject or programme coordinators.

Key among constraints on faculty involvement was the very nature of a collective agreement. It was perceived to limit faculty's autonomy with respect to types of courses they were assigned to teach. In addition, the collective agreement was identified as limiting faculty's ability to participate in joint consultations with management or to create and participate in more entrepreneurial activities. Top-down decision-making by management, coupled with one-way downward communication, was also instrumental in constraining faculty involvement. Interestingly, flexibility of working hours, while seen as a benefit in terms of quality of working life, was identified as an obstacle to the development of a strong collegial culture, as faculty worked on variable timetables and tended to teach and then work from home when not teaching. Management style at the chair level was identified as having the most influence on faculty on a daily basis and was seen as a significant constraint. Management at this level was deemed to be authoritarian and administrative in focus. Faculty identified a lack of connection to and infrequent communication with their manager as key problems in fostering involvement. Another key constraint on faculty involvement was the lack of rewards, either financial or nonfinancial.

There are many implications for policy and practice suggested by the factors identified in the study and these are discussed in Chapter 8.

7.3 Research Sub-question 1: Results and Conclusions

Research subquestion 1 examines faculty perceptions of the benefits of a high-involvement organisation:

What are employee perceptions of the benefits of a high-involvement organisation for both the faculty and the organisation?

Discussions of benefits will focus on the benefits that were rated as “*mostly*” or “*strongly agree*” by at least 55% of faculty.

7.3.1 Better-Quality Education

Table 78 outlines faculty perceptions of the benefits of employee involvement for both faculty and the organisation. Sixty percent of faculty “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that a key benefit is a better quality of education for students. Mizaur (1992) addresses the concept of multiple stakeholders with respect to academic institutions, a major stakeholder being the students, described as consumers who want quality products and services from these institutions. Kanji, Malek, and Tambi (1999) also support the view of students as stakeholders and more specifically as internal customers whose needs have been traditionally shortchanged in the quest by academic institutions for authorship and research activities. They stress that an increasingly challenging environment requires student needs to be brought to the forefront. Supporting this notion, Ortmann (1997) identifies key factors that create a challenging postindustrial environment, including the requirement for curricula to be oriented towards marketable skills and the increasing use of computerised delivery programmes. Support for the positive effect of employee involvement initiatives in improving employee performance that in turn improves quality of service for the consumer is abundant in the literature (Bogler & Somech, 2005; Combs, Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006.).

Not all scholars agree on the positive benefit of improved quality of service to consumers. Some scholars critique the use and benefits of employee involvement initiatives,

particularly with respect to attempts to transfer these concepts into nonbusiness environments (Du Gay, 2007; Townley, 2002). Cooke (1992) identifies various transaction costs that are incurred as more decision-makers become involved in the process. However, the findings of this study do support the prevailing belief in the literature that a better quality of service including education is an important byproduct of employee involvement initiatives.

7.3.2 Opportunity for Personal Growth and Increased Self-Esteem

Two benefits of employee involvement that are highly rated by faculty are the opportunity for personal growth and increase in self-esteem. Seventy-one percent of faculty “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that employee involvement initiatives would provide them with opportunity for personal growth while 61% “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that EI initiatives would enhance feelings of self-esteem. These findings are significant in that intrinsic benefits for the employee have not been the focus of the research in this area. The body of literature has focused primarily on extrinsic benefits of employee involvement programmes to the organisation and, to a lesser degree, to the employee. Saks (2006) identifies typical extrinsic benefits including lower absenteeism and reduction in intention to quit. Lashley (1995) suggests that empowerment has many benefits for service organisations including better service and more efficient handling of customer complaints.

Where the literature has focused on the intrinsic benefits to the employee, it has been on the development of affective commitment in employees which scholars suggest leads to higher degrees of organisational citizenship. Menon (2001) proposes that employee involvement programmes empower employees to develop strong feelings for competence that leads to a higher degree of affective commitment to the organisation, culminating in their willingness to engage in extra-role behaviours. The finding that employee involvement initiatives foster personal growth and self-esteem in employees has implications for how employers may strategically promote their EI programmes for higher levels of acceptance by both union and employee stakeholders. R. E. Allen, Lucerno, and Van Norman (1997) propose that EI participation is more likely in individuals who score

high on an internal locus of control and growth needs measures. These implications for management are discussed in Chapter 8.

7.3.3 Professors With More Current Knowledge

Sixty-five percent of faculty “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that additional benefits of EI initiatives include an increase in expertise and current knowledge by faculty as well as a better quality of education for students. Ostensibly, as EI initiatives such as training, knowledge sharing through teams, and information sharing with management are implemented, faculty are provided with both direct and tacit knowledge concerning their work.

There is a large body of literature that supports the notion that employee skills and knowledge are enhanced through EI initiatives, which in turn improve organisational success indicators such as better quality of education for academic institutions. Delery and Shaw (2001) express the view that EI initiatives give employees the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) to perform job tasks as well as the motivation and opportunity to do so. Evans and Davis (2005) also support the building of KSAs through EI initiatives that in turn empower employees to leverage their increased KSAs for organisational benefit. An important point made by scholars is that even knowledgeable and skilled employees will not use their discretionary knowledge and time and will perform below their potential unless they are motivated to leverage their KSAs (Huselid, 1995). Thus, organisations have an opportunity to motivate employees to leverage their KSAs and time through use of such EI initiatives as incentive compensation, performance appraisal, employment security, flexible work schedules, and procedural justice.

EI initiatives such as self-managed teams, information sharing, and employment security also serve to motivate employees to contribute their skills and time in both role and extra-role activities. (Delery & Shaw, 2001). Therefore, while the study finding supports the literature on the benefit of EI initiatives in developing faculty skills and knowledge, some of these initiatives may be more feasible and relevant in a unionised academic environment than in more profit-oriented environments. For example, flexible work schedules, self-

managed teams, and information sharing may be more feasible for faculty than the use of incentive compensation as this is often not a part of a unionised pay package.

7.3.4 Increased Job Satisfaction, Commitment, and Organisational Citizenship

At least 55% of faculty “agree” or “strongly agree” that there are some significant intrinsic benefits of EI initiatives including job satisfaction, increased affective commitment, and stronger desire to go above and beyond in helping the organisation to achieve its goals. The literature strongly supports this finding on the positive intrinsic outcomes for both employees and the organisation. Sirgy, Reilly, Wu, and Efraty (2008) propose that EI programmes allow employees to express their thoughts and feelings on important organisational decisions and that this input provides employees with a greater sense of meaningfulness in their work, which in turn increases their perceived value of their work and role identity. Job satisfaction develops as employees work actively in shaping their work and in managing their personal career growth.

Organisation commitment, considered to be an important determinant of employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, has three dimensions: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Tang and Ibrahim (1998) identify a strong link between empowerment and affective commitment and propose the use of self-managing teams and job design to promote intrinsic job satisfaction and thereby enhance affective commitment. They conclude that increased affective commitment can increase organisational citizenship behaviour in both private- and public-sector organisations. Wu and Chaturvedi (2009) explore the role of procedural justice and levels of affective commitment in high-performance work systems and determine that the perception of fairness procedures administered by managers eventually lead to an increase in affective commitment. They stress that significant attention should be paid to the role of procedural justice when implementing EI initiatives because these processes can serve to reinforce the perception of fairness and result in positive employee attitudes, including increased affective commitment.

7.3.5 Increased Productivity and Innovation

Sixty percent of faculty “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that EI initiatives can lead to higher faculty productivity and more innovation in teaching. These findings are supported by the literature to a large degree. Lashley (1995) suggests that in the service sector EI initiatives promote more responsive service, more efficient handling of customer complaints, and higher service quality. Cognitive models proposed by K. I. Miller and Monge (1986) predict that productivity will be strongest for decisions that draw on the employee’s KSAs in specific job-related decision-making activities. Katz, Kochan, and Gobeille (1983) suggest that EI initiatives afford the organisation more flexibility in managing its human resources, which then allows for more innovative and productivity options. In a study of a large unionised service organisation, participation in self-managed teams was associated with a statistically significant improvement in both service quality and sales. The addition of new technology served to increase sales even further (Batt, 1999). Employee involvement initiatives can also help firms to build strong and efficient organisational structures and work climate by enhancing employees’ willingness to generate new ideas and allowing them to transfer and implement their knowledge, which will in turn leads to innovative work behaviors (Shipton et al., 2005).

When examining the positive impact of EI initiatives on employee productivity and innovation in the realm of higher education, the literature provides some cautionary notes. Scholars argue that universal and wholesale adoption of management concepts that generally focus on the most efficient use of resources may work against the essential purposes of public- or quasi-public-sector organisations (Du Gay, 2007; Townley, 2002). Therefore, in spite of the potential positive benefits of EI initiatives as reflected in the literature and the study, management must be careful to tailor these initiatives to the organisation’s culture, mission, and goals and the nature of the employees and their work. For example, some scholars propose that since teachers have high job security, relative autonomy, and few avenues for extrinsic rewards such as promotions or incentive pay, intrinsic rewards will play a significant part in influencing their work performance, and so EI initiatives should differ in an academic environment from other environments such as manufacturing.

7.4 Research Subquestion 2: Results and Conclusions

Research subquestion 2 deals with the issue of whether a high-involvement culture is compatible with unionisation in the context of higher education:

Can high involvement and unionism coexist in the context of higher education?

Data from Table 80 in the quantitative survey were used in the analysis of this question. Most noteworthy of the findings around this question is that 40% to 48% of respondents were neutral: they selected “*neither agree or disagree*” for their responses to a majority of the questions on this issue reflected in Table 80. This is perhaps not surprising, as in many questions faculty are asked to comment on probable responses from both the union and the organisation with respect to these questions and had no direct information on the issues from either perspective.

Notwithstanding the above, there are significant levels of agreement and disagreement on some issues that are noteworthy. Thirty-three percent of faculty “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that the union would be in favour of implementing employee involvement programmes. On an even more positive note, 45% feel that the organisation would seek the consent of the union before implementing such a programme. Thirty-five percent of faculty also “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that the presence of a union would not affect the success of an employee involvement programme, while 30% believe that the union would in fact help the organisation to implement such a programme. Sixty percent “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” disagree that the union would be weakened both in union-member relations and in its ability to influence the workplace. Overall, it could be inferred from these findings, when considered alongside the perceived benefits faculty identified in the study, that faculty view the implementation of employee involvement practices in the workplace as more of a positive than a negative event.

Most scholars agree that there is a strong link between organisational competitiveness and the use of employee involvement practices (Combs et al., 2006). However, cooperation and

change have been difficult to achieve given the long history of conflict and mistrust between union and management. Management's primary objective of improving productivity and profitability clashes with the union's objective of protecting the job security and earnings of its members (Schuster & Weidman, 2006). On a positive note, Rau (2012) posits that the industrial relations system has evolved from the age of conflict and is heading towards an era of cooperation. However, this cooperation, particularly on the part of the union, may be due to circumstances beyond its control. Management has become more powerful through implementing strategies such as outsourcing, downsizing, and contracting out of labour, thus weakening the power of labour unions and adding to the power of management. As a result, unions have been forced to work in tandem with management to run businesses successfully. Added to the increased power of management, workers have become more educated and ambitious in their desire for more leisure and money. Unions now have a high percentage of knowledge workers who are able to speak on their own behalf without depending on the union (Sheth, 1996). These research findings suggest that unions may now be more amenable to working with management in promoting change through implementation of employee involvement initiatives to alter membership perception of their usefulness in a positive way.

Reflecting the ambivalence of the faculty study, scholars are of two minds when discussing the feasibility and benefits of implementing employee involvement programmes in a unionised environment. Donais (2010) identifies many benefits to union involvement. The first is that management would have access to a more reliable source of information from employees, as they could tap into the two-way communication network that union leaders have with their members and thus attain the elusive commodity of employee voice. Donais (2010) also notes that successful employee involvement begins with trust, in terms of the employees' perception of the integrity of the employer. In that context, employees rely on the union's due diligence to determine whether the employer is deserving of their trust. Huselid (1995) also emphasises the importance of trust in implementing EI practices. Since EI initiatives increase employee productivity through improvement of employee knowledge, skills, and abilities, employees must be able to trust and cooperate with management to achieve these outcomes (E. Appelbaum & Batt, 1995). The data in this

study suggest that faculty on balance are not distrusting of attempts by management to introduce EI initiatives and perceive many benefits, indicating a degree of trust between faculty and management.

In support of faculty's perception that the union would be in favour of implementing EI initiatives, there is a large body of research supporting the notion that union presence is positively related to the introduction of EI initiatives. Pil and MacDuffie's (1996) research indicates widespread adoption of EI initiatives in heavily unionised sectors, while Eaton and Voos (1992) find innovative practices are more prevalent in unionised firms. There is also research that indicates that unions help facilitate the implementation of EI initiatives. Voos (1987) finds that organisations that have union leaders involved in administering participation programmes improve product quality but when union leaders are not consulted there is no improvement. Sisson (1997) finds that flexible working practices were as strongly correlated with independent representation by unions as with foreign competition for an organisation's products. Rubinstein (2001) expresses the view that unions that don't support participation efforts can cause them to be less productive.

Gill (2009) identifies some important benefits of union participation in the adoption of EI initiatives, including an independent voice mechanism allowing employees the opportunity for input into decision-making without fear of reprisals. She also makes an interesting point: that job security as a union feature contributes to the stability of team membership and teamwork that are important components of EI programmes.

On the negative side, Eaton (1990) states that unions are concerned that participative programmes may create a second channel of communication between workers and managers that could corrode the collective bargaining process. Guest (1999) makes the observation that the more workers are exposed to human resources management practices, the more satisfied they are with their psychological contract. On the other hand, Guest also proposes that unions can limit the extent to which management can fully explore employee involvement initiatives, particularly with respect to workplace and job design. It has been argued that EI initiatives replace unions through substituting the benefits that unions

provide to workers and that EI initiatives provide a new “win-win” relationship between management and employees (Chen, 2007; Godard & Delaney, 2000). While there has been a steady decline in unions along with increasing interest in EI initiatives since the 1980s (Chen, 2007), some of this can be attributed to institutional conditions that have made organising difficult along with membership erosion due to economic changes (Ebbinghaus, 2002).

In considering the compatibility between high-involvement practices and a unionised workplace, one must consider the relative impact on local management and union delegates such as union stewards. The restructuring of public service organisations such as higher education institutions over the past two decades has meant that workplace change processes have been decentralised to local management and union representatives. This devolution of power has raised the question of the capacity of both front-line management and union representatives to deal with the restructuring of workplace changes at the local level. Increased workplace performance pressures, the increasing precariousness of work, and the push for greater professional knowledge may make it more challenging for local management and union representatives to implement and manage the change processes required for initiatives such as employee involvement systems (G. Murray, Lévesque, & Le Capitaine, 2014). Therefore, in attempting to introduce EI initiatives, organisations in both public and private sectors must ensure that union representatives and front-line management are adequately trained in change management processes and the implications and requirements for successful implementation of EI initiatives.

Another determinant of successful implementation of EI initiatives in a unionised workplace is based on philosophical perceptions by both union and management of the union-management relationship. Data from the faculty study indicate that faculty believe there is the possibility of successful collaboration between union and management in implementing EI initiatives.

It is argued in the literature that a partnership between the employer and the union may be difficult to establish and fragile to maintain. While management desires to maintain control,

unions must have the power and opportunity to contribute to the effective adoption of EI practices. However, partnership focuses on shared interests while recognising that employers and employees have different interests (Rubinstein, 2001). When management sees a positive role for unions, it can work with the union to facilitate the effective implementation of EI initiatives. However, Kochan, Katz, and McKersie (1986) propose that an anti-union management attitude prevails, based on a perceived threat to management power by unions. Chen (2007) suggests that managers view unions as barriers to workplace flexibility and timely responses to environmental challenges.

A second barrier is union resistance to partnership. Heery (2002) suggests that unions have resisted the notion of partnership on the basis of the belief that management will not be able to abide by the partnership agreement in the long run, and that the advantages of partnership are generally skewed towards management. However, he does cite high employee endorsement of partnership in a wide range of organisations. Godard (2004) argues that while unions initially rejected employee participation, many unions now accept that the partnership approach involves employees and unions taking on tasks that were once handled by management. Another barrier to partnership identified by A. Murray and Reshef (1988) is the tension faced by the union between its traditional and new cooperative roles. They argue that even though unions must change to survive in the new economy, the unions may not be able to and may over time revert to their traditional adversarial role, focusing on the advancement of workers' interests through direct pressure on employers using strikes and collective bargaining.

7.5 Research Subquestion 3: Results and Conclusions

Research subquestion 3 deals with the issue of whether faculty demographics have an impact on faculty's perception of the value of employee involvement initiatives and their desire to become more involved:

Do individual differences in faculty demographics have an impact on faculty perceptions of the value of employee involvement and the desire to become more involved?

Data used in the following analysis is based on cross-tabulation of responses to survey questions 1 to 10 as reflected in Section 6.8.3 and Tables 81 to 84.

7.5.1 Gender

Approximately 70% of both male and female faculty members indicate that they would be interested in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives. The literature on employee reaction to change initiatives supports this finding and reveals no significant impact of gender on receptivity to change. Indeed, scholars reveal more significant factors that impact employee receptivity. Spreitzer (1996) states that availability of resources is instrumental in creating a supportive psychological environment for change, while Lamm and Gordon (2010) find that impact of change was the factor that most determines work satisfaction and behavioural support for change. Going further, they express the view that certain individuals, regardless of gender, have an inborn resistance to change. An interesting observation about gender suggested by Cross and Madsen (1997) is that women tend to place a greater importance on the quality of relationships and connectedness with others, and the opportunity to develop such relationships, and this will ultimately impact their degree of job satisfaction. This finding suggests that females may be more inclined to embrace the implementation of employee involvement initiatives, as it promises increased opportunity for teamwork, communication, and connectedness.

Another finding from the study was that a majority of faculty also agreed that a culture of involvement would make no difference to their level of participation. This finding suggests that faculty may already be intrinsically motivated and empowered. Clark (1987) suggests that the desire for autonomy is commonly found to be a key reason that faculty chose an academic career and therefore faculty in general derive a sense of intrinsic reward from their work. Along with autonomy, meaning derived from one's work is also significant in determining job satisfaction and involvement. It is generally accepted by scholars that employee involvement initiatives lead to greater participation in the workplace through more autonomy and control over decisions made by employees (E. Appelbaum et al., 2000). It is therefore no surprise to find both in this study and the literature, particularly related to higher education, that employees generally have a high sense of involvement and are inclined to view the introduction of employee involvement initiatives in a positive manner.

7.5.2 Age, Years in the Organisation, and Union Membership

The data indicate that there is a strong correlation between the degree of interest by faculty in employee involvement initiatives and their age, years in the organisation, and years in the union. In examining the results of all three variables measured against degree of involvement, the results show a significant decrease in the interest of employee involvement initiatives as faculty increase in age as well as length of time in the organisation and the union. With respect to years in the organisation, there is a 50% decrease in interest between the youngest and oldest age brackets. With respect to union membership, interest in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives declines by 50% for those in the union for more than 20 years compared to those who have less than one year of membership. With respect to age, faculty level of interest in employee involvement initiatives generally declines about 40% from the youngest to the oldest age bracket.

While it is tempting to apply general stereotypes about jaded older unionised employees to explain this decline in interest in change initiatives over time, it is necessary to explore these findings in more detail from the scholarly perspective to ascertain the veracity of

these findings. Unlike the present study, scholarly research has evaluated the significance of age with respect to involvement levels and has found a positive correlation between older nonunion workers and higher levels of involvement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003; Simpson, 2009). Rigg, Sydnor, Nicely, and Day (2014) studied employee engagement in hotel employees and found that employees aged 42 years and older were more engaged than younger employees. Reasons provided for higher involvement levels by older worker include the positive affective feelings gained from close working relationships with peers over time, a sense that they are pursuing their desired career, and development over time of some level of commitment and loyalty to the organisation.

The contradictory findings of the present study point to the possible moderating effect of another factor that may explain the negative correlation between faculty age and level of involvement. It may be conjectured that membership in the union may have a moderating impact on the development of higher levels of engagement in older workers. Given the traditional confrontational nature of management-union relations in North American firms, it is generally challenging for organisations to engender the trust and cooperation required between unionised employees and management (E. Appelbaum & Batt, 1995). Thus, employees over time may resist the implementation of employee involvement initiatives if they do not trust management (Delaney&Godard, 2001). Therefore it could be conjectured that as unionised employees stay longer and are exposed to this confrontational environment, they will experience declining levels of affective commitment, citizenship, and involvement. To some extent, then, it is fair to conclude that the degree of cooperative industrial relations present in the firm will ultimately determine the degree of success experienced by the unionised firm when attempting to implement employee involvement activities. In the case study organisation on which this study is based, union and management have had a traditional adversarial relationship that supports the finding in the present study that as unionised workers age they view employee involvement initiatives less favourably.

On the subject of number of years in the organisation as a factor in determining level of involvement, the literature reports inconsistent results. In a global workforce study

conducted by the consulting firm BlessingWhite (2013), engagement increased the longer employees worked at the organisation. Employee engagement also increased with length of service among hotel employees in China (Zeng, Zhou, & Han, 2009). However, in other studies length of service did not have any notable relationship with level employee involvement (DiPietro & Pizam, 2008; Kim, Shin, & Swanger, 2009). Karatepe & Olugbade (2009) reported that employees who had longer organisational tenure were less vigorous at work. The findings in the present study appear to point clearly to an inverse correlation between age of faculty, length of service, and union membership on one hand and faculty perception of the value of employee involvement activities or their desire to become more involved on the other. This finding may have significance for organisations that have more traditionally confrontational union-management relations in terms of successful implementation of employee involvement initiatives.

7.5.3 Teaching Experience

The data from the study related to teaching experience are highly comparable to the data reflecting number of years in the organisation. This observation is reasonable given that as professors stay longer with the organisation they gain more teaching experience. One can therefore conclude that within the case study organisation, the amount of teaching experience also has an inverse correlation with employee perception of the value of employee involvement activities or their desire to become more engaged.

7.5.4 Qualifications

The highest level of interest in employee involvement activities was displayed by faculty at the master's level, comprising approximately half of the faculty, in contrast to much less interest expressed by those with bachelor's or PhD degrees. One may assume a correlation between age, duration of service, and level of degree obtained, as generally younger faculty would be at the bachelor's level, with progressively higher degrees obtained as faculty age and stay with the organisation for a long period as tends to be the pattern in higher education institutions. If this assumption is correct, then we may surmise that new faculty with bachelor's degrees may not have developed the level of affective commitment required to welcome employee involvement initiatives, and older faculty may experience declining

levels of affective commitment over time, and consequently feel less desire to become involved or to see the value of employee involvement. A key observation that may be deduced from the analysis of age, length of service, teaching experience, and qualifications is that it is essential that unionised organisations that want to implement employee involvement initiatives focus on developing affective commitment in all levels of employees as well as a cooperative labour-management culture.

7.5.5 Ethnicity

The data on ethnicity revealed that South Asians and Chinese showed the most interest in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives while Caucasian and Filipino faculty showed the least interest. Since many of the South Asians and Chinese in the study were recent immigrants from India and China, it may be surmised that cross-cultural factors such as coming from collectivist cultures that place a high value on education may be reflected in the study data.

7.6 Correlational analysis and Multiple Regressions model

In this subsection, an overview of each bivariate correlation and the findings of each of the hypotheses are discussed. First, bivariate correlation of each variable of this study is discussed. The outcomes of multiple regressions have been discussed including the findings of each hypothesis.

The correlational matrix table (see table 88) suggests that all the variables including both dependent and independent variables in this study are significantly correlated. The correlation matrix (table 88) suggests that the dependent variable, *employee interest in employee involvement program*, is significantly correlated with other predicting variables such as supportive work practices, management practices, work environment, and organisational values, systems & policies. For example, supportive work practice is highly associated with employee interest in employee involvement programs which suggests that organisations with supportive work practices will encourage their employees to participate in employee involvement program. As the correlation between employee interest in

involvement programs and supportive work practices found moderately high ($r=.519^{**}$) in this study, it can be inferred that supportive work practices is considered as one of the important factors that promote employee interest in work involvement programs in the organizations . In hypothesis 1, it was proposed that employee interest in employee involvement program would positively relate to supportive work practices. Both the correlational and the multiple linear regression provided support for the hypothesis 1 ($p<.001$). Both the correlational and regression co-efficient suggest that the finding of the current study are consistent with the past studies. Supportive work practice consists of sub-themes such as communication, autonomy, problem-solving opportunities and training and development and these items were found to be significant in creating employee interest in work involvement programs. The finding of the current study is consistent with the study findings of Phipps and other colleagues (2013) that suggest that decentralized decision making and sharing of power between management and the workforce promote work involvement programs. For example, management encourages choice and participation in decision-making in a high-involvement culture (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994). Moreover, one study suggests that top-down decision making process works against involvement whereas the decentralized decision-making in everyday business operation is positively related to idea generation and innovation (Abdel Aziz & Rizkallah, 2015). This study also suggests that regular team meetings and performance feedback play key role in promoting employees interest in work involvement program. Moreover, Pollay and other colleagues (1976) indicate that the participatory process in terms of horizontal power-sharing and decision making promote a self-adaptive organisational learning process. Consistent with this study, the current study suggests that open-door policy and management receptive to new ideas play significant role in promoting work involvement programs. Moreover, this study also suggests that employees perceived themselves as contributing to organisational goals beyond their job requirement have higher interest in work involvement programs. In this regard, Vandenberg et al. (1999) stress that an important aspect of creating a high-involvement culture is to create the perception among employees that they are indeed involved by providing a broad range of opportunities for them to contribute beyond job requirements. The findings of this study also indicate that flexible communication and joint consultation between employees and management play

crucial role in promoting employee involvement culture. In support of this finding, the literature suggests that two-way communication and joint consultation are key requirements for the successful development of an employee involvement culture ((Lawler, 1992; Ackers, Marchington, Wilkinson, & Goodman, 1992). Moreover, the current study also suggests that employee interest in work involvement and their intention to turnover are negatively associated. Evans and Davis (2005) argue that an employee involvement culture promotes communication and cooperation that in turn reduces employee turnover and enhances organisational performance. In a cross-sectional study of three service sector organisations in Canada, Boudrias et al. (2010) identify the supervisor's ability to effectively communicate organisational objectives and relevant job information as instrumental in enhancing levels of employee involvement. Appelbaum and other colleagues (2015) conclude that a culture of trust and open communication is necessary for the development of an employee involvement culture. Vandenberg and other colleagues (1999) suggest that employees' perception towards work involvement plays a key role. They stressed that not only HR practices but also organisational culture play role in developing employees' positive perception. The finding of the current research also support the notion that employee autonomy in terms of freedom of decision making helps to create employee interest in work involvement programs. Short and Rinehart (1992) support the need for reducing the barriers to autonomy by identifying six dimensions of teacher empowerment, which include the level of teacher involvement in decisions involving their work and teachers' perceptions that they have autonomy over their work. For example, Bogler and Somech (2005) also find that teachers who are involved in decision-making related either to their classroom or more broadly to the organisation exhibited more engaged behaviour with both their students and their colleagues. Consistent with this literature, the current study suggests that the collaboration within work units motivates employees to engage in work involvement programs and helps to get things done. The findings suggest that employees who engage in collaboration highly show their interest in work involvement programs. The study findings also suggest that employees who perceive that their job roles are valued by others in the organisation show interest in employee involvement programs. Buch and Shelnutt (1995) report that employees who felt that management had little interest in their ideas about implementing an employee involvement programme at their

university experienced reduced interest and sense of empowerment in the implementation process.

Table 88 also indicates that there is a significant association between management practices and employee interest in employee involvement programs. For example, the relationship between management practices and employee interest in employee involvement program found moderate and statistically significant ($r=.402^{**}$). In the hypothesis 2, it was proposed that employee interest in employee involvement program would positively relate to management practices. However, the multiple linear regression co-efficient did not provide support for the hypothesis 2 ($p>.05$). Based on this hypothesis, it can be said that management practices in terms of top management support, top management role and top management integrity may not significantly determine the employees' interest on work involvement programs. On the contrary, the literature indicates that first-line supervisors play crucial role in building culture of employee involvement (Bates, 2004). For example, Osterman and other colleagues (2001) suggest that managers who act as coach also encourage employees to have more flexibility and self-direction in performing their jobs. However, the literature also suggests that management style may also constrain employee involvement. For example, micromanagers can create a sense of incompetence in employees and reduce their sense of intrinsic motivation (Lawler, 1992).

Within the management practices in terms of top management role, top management integrity as a single management practice was found to be moderately correlated with employee interest in involvement programs in this study($r=.273^{**}$; see in the appendix G). This suggests that top management integrity in terms of their ethical behaviour play a statistically moderate role in developing employee interest in work involvement programs.

As the correlation between employee interest in involvement and organizational values/system/policies was found to be moderate ($r=.346^{**}$) in this study, it can be argued that organisational values/system/policies is considered as an another important factor that promote employee interest in work involvement programs in the organizations. In hypothesis 3, it was proposed that employee interest in employee involvement program

would positively relate to organisational values/system/ policies. Both the correlational and the multiple linear regression provide support for hypothesis 3 ($p < .001$). The finding of the current study is also consistent with the past studies. For example, Mathews and other colleagues (2003) indicate that structural organisational factors such as fluidity of information sharing practices facilitate work involvement. One of the items of the current study suggests that information availability in every level of the organisation also facilitates the employee interest in work involvement programs. The literature also indicates that the use of small groups and horizontal power-sharing also increase employee involvement (Pollay et al., 1976; Buch & Shelnut, 1995). While the literature suggests that flexible organisational structures and culture are important factors promoting a high-involvement culture (Gunderson et al., 2005; Neal, Tromley, Lopez, & Russell, 1995), the finding of the current study suggests that organisations with clear-cut goals and objectives facilitate employee interest in work involvement programs. This study also suggests that employees who have a feeling of loyalty to towards their organisation are more interested in work involvement programs. In support of this finding Appelbaum and other colleagues (2014) conclude that trust and open communication play crucial role in building a culture of work involvement.

Table 88 also indicates that there is a significant association between work environment and employee interest in employee involvement programs. For example, the relationship between work environment and employee interest in employee involvement program found moderate and statistically significant ($r = .295^{**}$). In hypothesis 4, it was proposed that employee interest in employee involvement program would positively relate to work environment. However, the multiple linear regression co-efficient did not provide support for hypothesis 4 ($p > .05$). Based on this hypothesis, it can be said that work environment may not significantly determine the employees' interest on work involvement programs. On the contrary, one study finds a positive association between work environment quality and increased level of participation in the workplace (Knudsen, Markey, and Simpkin, 2003). In this regard, the same study finds that teachers who face a bad work environment demand more participation in their workplace whereas the demand for participation is low where teachers enjoy good working environment. While the literature found the a strong

positive association between the employee interest in work involvement programs and their work environment, the findings of this research do not support the past research outcomes.

All the control variables except the length of the service were found statistically insignificant in terms of their associated with the outcome variable. For example, in hypotheses 7 & 8, it was proposed that current union membership and age will be positively related to employee interest in work involvement programs. However, the multiple regression co-efficient did not provide any support of these hypotheses ($p > .05$). Although the literature suggests that employees over time may resist the implementation of employee involvement initiatives (Delaney & Godard, 2001), the findings of this study find no association between age and work involvement programs.

On the contrary, in hypothesis 6, it was proposed that employee length of service will be negatively related to employee interest in work involvement programs. The co-efficient of multiple regression provides support of the hypothesis ($p > .01$) which suggest that employees who have been working in the same organisation for long time may not show an interest in employee involvement programs. On the contrary, the literature suggests that employees' engagement increased as their length of service increased (White, 2011). For example, one study conducted in China suggested that long-service employees increased their engagement (Zenget et al., 2009). Moreover, some studies did not find any relationship between employees' length of service and the level of employee involvement (DiPietro and Pizam, 2008; Kim *et al.*, 2009). In this regard, it can be argued that the idea of considering the length of service as a control variable is also supported by the past studies.

Overall, the multiple regression of this study suggests clearly that supportive work practices and organisational values/system/policies are the important factors for understanding the conditions that promote employee interest in work involvement programs in the organisation. Although most of the control variables were statistically insignificant, the length of service of employees to the organisation was found statistically significant which suggests that employees with higher service duration are reluctant to

show interest in work involvement programs. The difference between the current study findings and the literature may be that the current study examines unionized employees while the studies cited deal with non-union employees.

While two variables such as turnover intention and work intensification were not included in the regression model, the correlational analysis (see the table 88) suggests that both these variables are significantly correlated with the outcome variable. For example, table 88 includes bivariate correlations between employee interest in work involvement programs and turnover intention and work intensification. Turnover intention was found to be negatively moderately correlated with employee interest in work involvement programs ($r=-.400^{**}$, $p<.01$). This suggests that the higher the employee interest in employee involvement programs, the lower their turnover intention. Moreover, employees' perception of work intensification as a ploy to obtain a higher level of work involvement was found to be negatively correlated ($r=-.245^{**}$, $p<.01$). This suggests that employees in the organisation do not perceive that employee involvement initiatives by the employers would intensify their work process.

7.6 Conclusion

This chapter discusses the qualitative and quantitative findings presented in Chapters 6 and 7. Results and conclusions are identified and discussed for the central research question and sub-questions. Conclusions to the study and recommendations for policies and practices are presented in Chapter 8.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to draw conclusions about the research questions based on the results in Chapter 7. Implications for theory, policy, and practice are also discussed along with limitations of the study and directions for future research.

In recent years there has been a recognition that higher education institutions in North America need to become more flexible and responsive to their stakeholders. However, compared to industry, these organisations are still very slow in adopting innovations to meet the challenges of the 21st century. Since the beginning of the 1990s, demographic, global, economic, political, technological, and societal forces have been creating the need for alteration in traditional administrative and teaching approaches in higher education institutions. Higher education institutions in North America are now confronted with many environmental challenges which require them to move to more progressive, high-involvement approaches to managing employees (McRoy & Gibbs, 2009).

There is a groundswell of opinion from various stakeholders that higher education institutions need to adopt an entrepreneurial spirit to better prepare students for the business world. The implication of this paradigm shift is that the role of the professor must change from being a conduit for information to being a cognitive coach. The new model of education requires a higher degree of involvement and interaction between professor and students (Ramaley, 2014).

The challenge for higher education institutions is to try to adapt unionised, highly bureaucratic institutions based on centralised decision-making to a new organisational structure and culture that promotes employees' involvement in their jobs and broader organisational initiatives.

There has been relatively little research done on the subject of promoting a culture of faculty involvement in unionised higher education institutions. More specifically, in this

context, relatively less attention has been paid to the factors that will promote or constrain a higher level of involvement in higher education faculty to effectively meet the various external challenges identified in this section. Building on the existing literature spanning four decades on employee involvement in manufacturing and service sectors, this study examines the specific factors that promote and constrain higher education faculty's involvement in their work and in broader organisational activities. Another key aspect of the study examines whether the factors promoting and constraining the successful implementation of employee involvement initiatives differ significantly from those suggested in the literature for manufacturing and service environments given the very different internal and external environments acting on these organisations. Much of the literature has examined success factors in implementing employee involvement programmes from union and management perspectives. This study provides additional dimensions to the discussion in the literature by examining perceptions of the factors both promoting and constraining faculty involvement from the faculty stakeholder perspective.

The present study uses a qualitative exploratory approach followed by a survey designed to explore the factors promoting and constraining faculty involvement within the context of a case study of a Canadian higher education organisation. Twenty-two faculty were initially interviewed in an exploratory study at the case study college, on the basis of themes identified in the construct of employee involvement identified in Chapter 3. The results of this study were followed up with a survey of faculty across the college designed to further explore the key employee involvement themes identified in the qualitative study. Data from the survey were tabulated and analysed using descriptive statistics generated by the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The results were used to answer four research questions: (a) What are the factors that account for the success and failure of employee involvement initiatives with respect to faculty in unionised organisations in higher education? (b) What are employee perceptions of the benefits of an organisation that promotes employee involvement? (c) Can a culture of employee involvement and unionism coexist in the context of higher education? (d) Do individual differences in faculty demographics have an impact on faculty perceptions on the value of employee involvement and the desire to become more involved?

8.1 Research Results and Conclusions

8.1.1 Results and Conclusions for Central Research Question

What are the factors that account for the success and failure of employee involvement initiatives with respect to faculty in unionised organisations in higher education?

A key factor identified in the study as promoting involvement is the ability of faculty to have a high level of decision-making around work practices. Also key is the creation of a decentralised decision-making process in which work-related decisions are made by the people at the level in the organisation with the most relevant knowledge to make these decisions.

Another key factor promoting involvement is the use of small team-based work groups meeting regularly, not only to share information but also to solve common work problems. Social events are also identified in the study as effective in creating a climate of camaraderie that fosters a culture of involvement. Faculty also feel involvement could be promoted by making faculty accountable for broader organisational decisions, not just work-related ones. Related to this factor is the need to involve faculty in developing organisational goals as well as clear communication of organisational goals to faculty. The study findings indicate that nontangible, intrinsic rewards are viewed as having a significant impact in promoting involvement. Another significant influence on employee involvement revealed by the study is middle managers who are accessible and communicate regularly with staff, and who also have excellent interpersonal skills. Faculty identified middle management as more instrumental in building involvement than either top management or subject or programme coordinators.

Key among constraints on faculty involvement is the very nature of a collective agreement. It is perceived as limiting faculty's autonomy with respect to types of courses they were assigned to teach. In addition, the collective agreement is also identified as limiting faculty's ability to participate in joint consultations with management or to create and participate in more entrepreneurial activities. Top-down decision making by management coupled with one-way downward communication are also instrumental in

constraining faculty involvement. Interestingly, flexibility of working hours, while seen as a benefit in terms of quality of working life, is identified as an obstacle to the development of a strong collegial culture, as faculty worked on variable timetables and tended to teach and then work from home when not teaching. Management style at the chair level is identified as having the most influence on faculty on a daily basis and is perceived as a significant constraint. Management at this level is deemed to be authoritarian and administrative in focus. Faculty identify a lack of connection to and infrequent communication with their manager as key problems in fostering involvement. Another key constraint on faculty involvement is the lack of rewards, either financial or nonfinancial.

A key conclusion from the results of the central research question is that intrinsic rewards are as important in promoting a sense of involvement in unionised higher education institutions as extrinsic and incentive rewards, or even more important. This finding may be attributed to many factors. Limited avenues for promotion and limited budgets available for developmental activities such as attending conferences, along with high wages and benefits and no bonuses or stock options, mean that extrinsic rewards either are not available or are not meaningful to white-collar faculty. Therefore, to develop more affective commitment and citizenship behaviour in faculty, the organisation has to focus on intrinsic rewards directed more towards fulfilling growth and developmental needs at the higher level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, including self-esteem and self-actualisation. Extrinsic rewards are of lesser importance in moving employees to higher levels of involvement and organisational commitment than these intrinsic rewards. The study also identified social events and small team-based work units as creating a sense of teamwork that serves to promote employee involvement in a unionised white-collar environment.

Another key contribution to the literature from the study is the importance of midlevel management in influencing the employee's desire to be more involved. The study highlighted the need for midlevel managers to be accessible, to communicate regularly with employees, and to have excellent interpersonal skills, which are more important functional skills. Rather than a culture driven by top-down management, the study highlights the importance of creating a culture of involvement from the bottom up, based on strong middle-management leadership skills.

8.1.2 Results and Conclusions for Research Subquestion 1

What are employee perceptions of the benefits of a high-involvement organisation for both the faculty and the organisation?

Sixty percent of faculty “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that a key benefit is a better quality of education for students.

Two highly rated benefits of employee involvement by faculty are the opportunity for personal growth and increase in self-esteem. Seventy-one percent of faculty “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that employee involvement initiatives would provide them with opportunity for personal growth while sixty-one percent “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that EI initiatives would enhance feelings of self-esteem..

Sixty-five percent of faculty “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that, in addition to a better quality of education for students, benefits of EI initiatives include an increase in expertise and current knowledge by faculty. Ostensibly, as EI initiatives such as training, knowledge sharing through teams, and information sharing with management are implemented, faculty are provided with both direct and tacit knowledge concerning their work.

At least 55% of faculty “*agree*” or “*strongly agree*” that there are some significant intrinsic benefits of EI initiatives, including job satisfaction, increased affective commitment, and stronger desire to go above and beyond job requirements in helping the organisation to achieve its goals.

Sixty percent of faculty “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that EI initiatives can lead to higher faculty productivity and more innovation in teaching.

One may conclude from the results of the study regarding research subquestion 1 that employee involvement initiatives are deemed to be beneficial for both the organisation and faculty in terms of better quality of education, employee growth, and increased job-

satisfaction. However, the challenge for the organisation in implementing a successful programme is to promote the programme to their employee and union stakeholders in an effective manner to ensure acceptance. Another challenge as identified in the literature is to ensure that employee involvement initiatives are not imported wholesale from private manufacturing and service environments to unionised public-sector institutions. Instead, consideration must be given to the nature of the work, the employee, and the culture of the organisation in which these practices will be implemented. For example, flexible work schedules and workplace, self-managed teams, and focus groups may be more effective in higher education than the use of incentive compensation.

8.1.3 Results and Conclusions for Research Subquestion 2

Can high involvement and unionism coexist in the context of higher education?

Most noteworthy of the findings around this question is that 40% to 48% of respondents were neutral; that is, they selected “*neither agree or disagree*” for their responses to a majority of the questions on this issue, as reflected in Table 79. This is perhaps not surprising as in many questions faculty were asked to comment on probable responses from both the union and the organisation with respect to these questions and took a neutral down-the-middle stance since they had no direct information on the issues from either perspective.

Notwithstanding the above, there are significant levels of agreement and disagreement on some issues that are noteworthy. Thirty-three percent of faculty “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that the union would be in favour of implementing employee involvement programmes. On an even more positive note, 45% feel that the organisation would seek the consent of the union before implementing such a programme. Thirty-five percent of faculty also “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” agree that the presence of a union would not affect the success of an employee involvement programme, while 30% believe that the union would in fact help the organisation to implement such a programme. Sixty percent “*mostly*” or “*strongly*” disagree that the union would be weakened both in union-member relations and in its ability to influence the workplace.

The study's findings indicate that faculty believe that the union would be in favour of implementing employee involvement initiatives and would not feel threatened or weakened by the introduction of these initiatives. Further, on balance, faculty, as union members, are not distrusting of attempts by management to introduce employee involvement initiatives and perceive a degree of trust between faculty and management. While these findings are supported by the literature as discussed in Section 7.4 in Chapter 7, there are challenges to a successful partnership between union and management in adopting employee involvement initiatives, including a traditional adversarial relationship between union and management, particularly in public-sector organisations. In addition, restructuring of public-sector organisations over time has meant that workplace change processes have been decentralised to local management and union representatives who may not be capable of dealing with implementation of change processes.

8.1.4 Results for Research Subquestion 3

Do individual differences in faculty demographics have an impact on faculty perceptions of the value of employee involvement and the desire to become more involved?

Approximately 70% of both male and female faculty members indicate that they would be interested in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives.

The data also indicate that there is a strong correlation between the degree of interest by faculty in employee involvement initiatives and their age and years in the organisation and in the union. The results of all three variables measured against degree of involvement show a significant decrease in the interest of employee involvement initiatives as faculty increase in age, as well as length of time in the organisation and the union. With respect to years in the organisation, there is a 50% decrease in interest between the youngest and oldest age brackets. With respect to union membership, the percent interest in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives declines by 50% for those in the union for more than 20 years compared to those who have less than one year of membership. With respect to age, faculty level of interest in employee involvement initiatives generally declines about 40% from the youngest to the oldest age bracket.

The data from the study related to teaching experience are highly comparable to the data reflecting the number of years in the organisation.

The highest level of interest in employee involvement activities was displayed by faculty at the master's level, comprising approximately half of the faculty, in contrast to much less interest expressed by those with a bachelor's or PhD degree.

The data on ethnicity revealed that South Asians and Chinese showed the most interest in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives, while Caucasian and Filipino faculty showed the least interest.

The study results indicate that gender per se has no significant impact on receptivity to change. Another finding is that faculty generally have a high sense of intrinsic motivation and are inclined to view the introduction of employee involvement initiatives in a positive manner. The literature does identify females as more likely to embrace employee involvement initiatives, as they involve teamwork, communication, and connectedness, and women tend to place a greater value on relationships in general (Cross & Madsen, 1997).

A significant result of this study is that interest in employee involvement initiatives decreases as faculty increase in age and tenure in the organisation and in the union. Scholarly research, on the other hand, had identified a direct positive correlation between increasing age, tenure, and level of involvement in nonunion organisations. It may be concluded that membership in a union may have a moderating effect in older workers.

The study results regarding qualifications of faculty indicate that level of affective commitment is based to some degree on length of time spent in the organisation, as newer members and older ones who have progressed up the chain have less affective commitment than members with midlevel qualifications.

8.2 Implications for Theory

The construct used in this study (see Table 94 for a restatement of the construct), based on a synthesis of literature as discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2, identifies the use of rewards as a key component of successful employee involvement initiatives in manufacturing and other types of private, nonunion organisations. These have typically been given primarily in the form of monetary rewards such as bonuses, incentives, and profit-sharing, and these types of extrinsic rewards have been reflective of theories on employee involvement and employee motivation. For example both Lawler (1992) and Ackers, Marchington, Wilkinson, and Goodman (1992) proposed financial rewards as a key component of employee involvement programmes.

Existing literature in this area has focused on achievement of organisational objectives which are rewarded with programmes such as gain sharing, profit-sharing and stock ownership (R. E. Walton, 1985). This study expands the existing literature on rewards by highlighting the importance of the use of intrinsic rewards in engaging and motivating unionised white-collar employees in higher education. Extrinsic rewards are of lesser importance in moving unionised employees whose lower-order needs for security have been satisfied by high wages and levels of benefits to higher levels of involvement and organisational commitment than intrinsic rewards that fulfill their needs for self-esteem and self-actualisation as defined by Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Contrary to the one-size-fits-all extrinsic approach to rewards proposed by the various theorists in the literature presented in Chapter 2, the study highlights the importance of determining employee demographics when designing reward programmes to promote employee involvement.

The study also emphasises the importance of the midlevel manager to a greater degree than is commonly held in the literature. Theories of employee involvement such as those of Bélanger (2001, in Gunderson, Ponak, & Taras, 2005), Kahn (1990), and Lawler (1992) focus on the roles of managers as disseminators of information whose key tasks are to provide employees with relevant and timely information and to design their work to provide them with autonomy. In support of the existing literature, the study results indicate the importance of a more inclusive approach by management to generate employee involvement based on the concept of participative decision-making as espoused by scholars such as Gruman and Saks (2011). However, in contrast to existing literature, the study highlights the need for more interpersonal actions by supervisors and managers seeking to create a higher level of employee involvement through coaching and open-door policies that aim to engage employees at the affective level with respect to their jobs. Among other negative organisational consequences, lack of supervisor support has been linked to employee burnout (Maslach, Schaufelli, & Leiter, 2001).

This study also has implications for related disciplines such as human resources management with respect to hiring and selection practices for managers who are managing white-collar faculty within unionised organisations. The study highlights the importance of

recruiting and selecting midlevel managers and supervisors who have a high level of interpersonal skills and emotional intelligence and who are trained in leadership skills by the organisation, particularly when dealing with white-collar employees who require more supportive rather than directive management. This finding moves the current literature discussion on skills required for effective leadership and selecting effective leaders in a more affective direction, where concern by management and fairness in resolving employee issues promote employee willingness to become more involved. This finding supports the findings of Wu and Chaturvedi (2009), who propose that the perceptions of fairness generated by a high-involvement culture ultimately lead to an increase in affective commitment by employees.

The needs and motivations of these employees, which are primarily focused on fulfilling self-esteem and self-actualisation needs, dictate that direct managers of these employees understand and have the skills to manage from a less directive and more supportive style of management. While theories of employee involvement have focused on outlining the manager's role from a directive perspective in terms of providing training ((Lawler 1992) and downward communication (Ackers et al., 1992), the study highlights the importance of a more supportive style of management which involves the use of such mechanisms as open-door policies and other managerial actions that provide emotional support to employees. Kahn (1990) does allude to the need for support as a key component of the three psychological dimensions creating employee involvement, but focuses broadly on the manager's role with respect to creating a sense of psychological safety by providing employees with physical and emotional resources to invest in work.

In addition to recruitment and selection, human resources departments in the higher education realm will also have to invest more time and money in training managers in the art of management, as many midlevel managers come from an education rather than management background. While the literature on employee involvement in higher education has espoused employee training as key in creating a culture of involvement (Bieg, Backes, & Mittag, 2011), the study points to the need for training for management and union stewards in moving towards a high-involvement organisation. This finding is

supported in the literature by scholars such as G. Murray, Lévesque, and Le Capitaine (2014), who identify the need for local union representatives to be adequately trained in the implementation of change management processes in order for employee involvement initiatives to succeed. Training for management will have to focus managers on their changing role from boss who gives orders to coach who supports employees with both physical and emotional resources needed to do their jobs. Union stewards will have to be trained in change management processes as they will play a key role in the implementation of employee involvement processes in the organisation.

In sum, while theories of employee involvement have focused on the mechanics of reworking the workplace with respect to job design, communication, and rewards— among other factors —from the employee perspective, this study highlights the importance of also preparing managers and other stakeholders for their changing roles in the process through training. It also requires human resources departments to ensure that proper recruitment and selection criteria are used to hire managers whose management style is congruent with the needs of employees working in a high-involvement workplace. Finally, HR resources must also ensure that rewards are broadly based in terms of offering both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards to promote employee involvement in white-collar workplaces.

8.3 Implications for Policy and Practice

In support of Gould (2010), who proposes that, over the long term, employees and unions will align their interests with the interests of the organisation once the benefits of the alignment become manifest, unionised higher education institutions will have to focus on the use of more intrinsic and intangible methods of creating employee involvement cultures. For example, the provision of developmental opportunities related to self-actualisation and personal growth of faculty could include support, either through tuition assistance or time on the schedule, for faculty to engage in higher education activities such as pursuing studies at the PhD level. This benefit would not only support faculty's personal career objectives but also meet the needs of Canadian colleges, which are turning their strategic focus to upgrading faculty credentials in order to benefit from government support for offering degree programmes parallel to those offered by universities.

Extrinsic rewards such as teaching awards could serve to encourage higher levels of involvement and commitment, but the study identifies the current system of college

teaching awards as inconsistent and ineffective. Most ineffective is the current system at the case study college in which faculty rather than students identify and nominate other faculty for these awards. Teaching award systems could be used to promote motivation and excellence in teaching if the organisation implemented and promoted formal systems for nominations and presentation of awards. To promote quality teaching and commitment to excellence in teaching, which are the main end products of employee involvement in higher education, the organisation needs to create and maintain high-profile and consistently administered award programmes focused on these goals.

To provide effective midlevel management, more careful recruitment and selection procedures need to be applied in selecting department chairs, rather than the usual process of selection based on faculty interest in the job coupled with academic qualifications. Along with effective human resource management practices, chairs should be provided with training in various management areas such as communication and interpersonal and leadership skills.

To engender acceptance of employee involvement initiatives by both employee and union stakeholders, management will have to employ effective change management techniques. In the initial stages, management will have to inform the stakeholders of the need for the change and obtain stakeholder input into the process. Stakeholders will also have to be trained in how to implement and use the new initiatives, and finally management will have to create a reward system for encouraging these new behaviours. Over the longer term, management will need to adapt its recruitment and selection process by testing for applicants who score high in terms of internal locus of control and growth need measures, as research indicates that employee involvement participation is more likely in individuals who score high in these areas (R. E. Allen, Lucerno, & Van Norman, 1997).

To reduce the challenges inherent in the requirement for two traditionally adversarial parties to work together to create the culture change necessary for the successful implementation of employee involvement initiatives, two strategies are imperative. The first is for the organisation and the union to agree on the need for the employee involvement

initiative, to put aside their traditional adversarial stance prevalent in public sector higher education institutions, and to develop a partnership based on shared interests. While this change in mindset may be difficult, practical steps for creating this partnership may include the use of third-party change managers to work with both groups before and during implementation of the employee involvement programme.

The second strategy for successful change is to train local stewards and managers who are now the key players in workplace change processes to understand and successfully implement the various stages of the process. Training would involve both classroom and on-the-job activities.

In selecting management and union frontline staff to implement the change process, careful attention should be paid to the demographics and personality characteristics of these individuals. For example, candidates should be evaluated with respect to their receptivity to change. Given the findings that females may be more receptive to employee involvement initiatives, it may be a good strategy to appoint females as team leads in the change management process to provide positive momentum for moving the process forward. In addition, some consideration should be given to age and length of tenure of the change management team, as these factors have a direct impact on receptivity to employee involvement initiatives.

8.4 Limitations

There are limitations of this study that merit attention. First, the study relies entirely on self-reports by faculty. Reliance on self-reports can be problematic and may threaten the validity of the findings (Cresswell, 1998). For example, it is possible that participants were biased in their replies both in the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study, and they may have felt uncomfortable in replying honestly to certain questions. Social desirability responses may have also been a bias when interviews were collected with faculty, particularly as the interviews were conducted by a peer. Another question with self-report

data is that even though participants in the study were trying to be honest, they may have lacked the introspective ability to provide an accurate response to a question.

Participants may also vary regarding their understanding or interpretation of particular questions. It would be impossible to ensure that everyone who completed the questionnaire interpreted a given question in the same way. The questionnaire used rating scales that required more than a Yes or No answer, and the rating scales used to collect the answer allow for nuanced responses in that participants may interpret the meanings of the scale points differently. Research suggests that some participants may be extreme responders while others may prefer to hug the midpoints, potentially reducing the reliability of the data collected (Davis & Cosenza, 1993).

Use of descriptive statistics represents another limitation. It is well documented that descriptive statistics provide a clear idea about a new event or condition (Grimes & Schulz, 2002), and descriptive statistics – frequencies, mean, median, mode, and range – summarize the overall trend of study variables. In addition, descriptive studies often play a crucial role as precursors to more rigorous studies with comparison groups (Grimes & Schulz, 2002). However, descriptive reports generally fail to provide a clear, specific, and reproducible interpretation of the data. Therefore, they cannot be used to correlate variables or determine cause and effect between or among variables. Inferential statistical analysis is impossible in descriptive studies because all the variables cannot be manipulated. As a result, findings of such studies are limited with regard to generalization. In addition, the respondents in descriptive studies may not be truthful about their responses to the survey. Moreover, the results of such studies cannot be replicated.

Another limitation of the study is the external validity threat (Cresswell, 1998). The results of the study may not be generalisable across all higher education institutions in Canada. The case study was done in a Canadian community college environment, but higher education also includes Canadian universities that have different political, organisational, and educational structures that may impact the cognitive patterns of faculty in terms of their motivations, beliefs, and preferences with respect to their jobs and the broader

organisational environment. For these reasons, the results may be even less generalisable to private sector, nonunion organisations.

A final but important limitation is the potential for bias that may influence the study since the researcher is an employee of the organisation in which the study was conducted. To reduce such bias, special attention was given in avoiding the use of leading or loaded questions when developing the interview and survey questions,

8.5 Directions for Future Research

The literature and research on employee involvement have typically focused on the private sector, primarily manufacturing and lower-level service organisations. This study furthers the research in the field of employee involvement by expanding it into the public sector, with a focus on white-collar jobs in higher education organisations with respect to examining the factors that impact the implementation of employee involvement in these organisations. With these factors examined and determined, further research can now be done with respect to gathering more data on how to develop and implement each of the success factors and how to reduce the factors that create barriers to the successful implementation of employee involvement initiatives in public-sector higher education organisations. Since employee characteristics, organisational cultures, structures, and reward systems differ between public and private organisations and between white-collar and blue-collar employees, these differences may require different strategies or adaptations of traditional strategies for implementing employee involvement programmes in white-collar, knowledge-based organisations, particularly in the public sector.

While traditional studies of employee involvement have focused on employees with respect to job design, rewards, and communication, the study highlights the need for expanding employee involvement research into the requirements for successful implementation of employee involvement related to other stakeholders in the process. In particular, research needs to be done into management with respect to how managerial styles, characteristics, and job functions may have to change to accommodate the requirements for implementing

successful employee involvement programmes in public-sector knowledge-based work environments. Following on the work of scholars such as G. Murray, Lévesque, and LeCapitaine (2014) regarding empowerment of union delegates, future research could examine the factors that promote and constrain employee involvement from the union delegate perspective, with respect to both their own jobs and their perspective on unionised employee jobs in the organisation.

Since creating a culture of involvement will require change, research could be done on the roles of the various stakeholders including employees, management, and the union in the change process and the strategies that would need to be implemented by each group for successful change management. Pohler and Luchak (2014) suggest a future direction for research on the power imbalances that may affect employee participation in management-initiated employee involvement programmes. Research could also be done on how the organisation could successfully create a culture of involvement from the perspective of changing organisational structures, policies, and procedures to promote a culture of involvement within unionised white-collar public-sector environments. These environments are subject to particular restrictions, placed on them by collective agreements, budgetary constraints, and increased public scrutiny and accountability, and will therefore face more challenges in moving to high-involvement workplaces.

8.6 Contribution Statement

Changes in the competitive environment in the past three decades including globalisation, technological breakthroughs, and deregulation have prompted North American firms to adopt new models for conducting business. These changes to traditional business models require changes in human resource management strategies to ensure congruence between organisational strategies, policies, and

programmes. Specifically, employee involvement programmes have been established across a variety of nonunion and unionised industries in the hope of improving company performance, primarily in the areas of quality, worker productivity, and labour-management relations..

Like most organisations today, Canadian higher education organisations face competitive challenges and the consequent need for change in their human resources management strategies, particularly in the area of employee involvement. However, they face a more difficult change process given their bureaucratic structures, budget pressures, and other diversity challenges (Meister-Scheytt & Scheytt, 2005).

Typically, research in employee involvement has focused on manufacturing and nonacademic, nonunion service industries. This study advances research on the prevalence of, and requirements for, successful implementation of employee involvement initiatives in the public sector with respect to white collar employees, more specifically unionized, white collar employees in higher education, academic environments. Unlike many existing studies on employee involvement that have mainly focused on examining the central research question from either a management or a union perspective, this study examines the faculty perspective with a view to better understanding the factors that promote and constrain faculty's involvement in their jobs and in the broader organization.

From a theory perspective, the results of the study support the current knowledge on the factors that promote and constrain employee involvement generally across a variety of organisations in keeping with current models of involvement. However the study results also extend the current literature by identifying additional factors that apply to white-collar, unionised, higher education institutions. These factors include the need for more intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards, the need for managers to use supportive rather than directive approaches to management, and the importance of using small team-based work groups for information-sharing and

problem-solving. Key factors constraining faculty involvement include the existence of a collective agreement that limits faculty autonomy and top-down decision-making and communication channels used by management.

This study also has implications for practice regarding creating a high-involvement culture for faculty in higher education institutions. Key among these are ensuring that recruitment and selection procedures identify managers who have the requisite skills and personalities required for supportive management and training managers in the application of these management techniques. Developmental opportunities for faculty in higher education pursuits would serve to provide them with intrinsic rewards. In addition, such opportunities would fulfill the objectives of higher education institutions in upgrading the credentials and skills of their faculty to meet government requirements and the competitive challenges facing these organisations. Training for managers, faculty, and union stewards in change management processes is another key requirement for the successful implementation of employee involvement initiatives in the higher education.

Therefore, this research provides a unique theoretical and practical contribution to the field of human resources management, specifically with respect to understanding the factors that both promote and constrain faculty involvement in higher education institutions in the public sector.

APPENDIX A

LETTER OF INFORMATION USED TO SOLICIT RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

LETTER OF INFORMATION

PROJECT TITLE: Factors that Promote and Constrain the Involvement of Unionised Faculty in Their Jobs.

INVESTIGATOR: Indira Somwaru, PhD Candidate
Griffith Business School
Nathan Campus Griffith University
170 Kessels Road
Nathan, Queensland 4111
Indira.Somwaru@griffith.edu.au

SUPERVISOR OF RESEARCH PROJECT:
Robert Russell/Bradley Bowden
Griffith Business School
Nathan Campus Griffith University
170 Kessels Road, Nathan, Queensland 4111
Bob.Russell@griffith.edu.au
B.Bowden@griffith.edu.au

PURPOSE OF STUDY:

You are being asked to participate in a research project entitled, **Factors that Promote and Constrain the Involvement of Unionised Faculty in Their Jobs.**

This study will involve a cross-section of faculty in a large community college. The purpose of this research project is to develop an understanding of the factors which both promote and constrain faculty employee involvement and to identify strategies for increasing the level of faculty employee involvement in the college.

PROCEDURES INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

The interview will take approximately one hour and will be conducted at a time and location most convenient for you. Interviews will take place in a location that will not allow co-workers, friends, etc. to learn of your role as a research participant. Interviews will follow an interview guide. The questions are designed to gain an understanding of the factors that promote and constrain your degree of involvement both in your job and college related activities. Examples of the questions you will be asked are:

- What are the benefits to you from working in an organisation that promotes a culture of employee involvement?
- What can the organisation do to promote a greater degree of employee involvement in your job?
- What strategies, structures or policies prevent you from being more involved at work?
- What strategies, structures or policies encourage a greater degree of involvement in your work?

With your permission, the interview will be tape recorded and transcribed. You do not have to answer any question that you prefer to skip.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS

The benefits of this study lie in the contribution it will make towards a better understanding of the challenges to, and opportunities for a higher degree of faculty involvement in both job and organisation related areas. Results of the study will identify strategies which may be used by the college to improve the levels of employee involvement in the college for the benefit of the organisation, faculty, and students.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Every step will be taken to ensure your confidentiality should you decide to participate in the research project. Names will not be used in my written work and no information will be used that could potentially identify you as a research participant. Interviews will take place in a location where we can speak privately. All data related to the study will be locked away and the researcher is the only person who will have access to the data which will be destroyed one year after completion of the study.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study would be voluntary. You would have the right to turn off the tape recorder at any point in time, slow down the pace of the interview, skip any questions you would prefer not to answer, or end the interview entirely. You will also have the right to ask the researcher that any portion of the interview, or the interview in its entirety be removed from the project. If you choose to withdraw from the study, all notes, tapes and transcripts connected to your participation will be destroyed unless you indicate otherwise.

RESULTS

I expect to have the study completed by approximately June 2010. If you would like to receive a summary of the study results, please let me know and I will provide you with a copy. The ethical conduct of this research

Griffith University conducts research in accordance with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans*. If potential participants have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project they should contact the Manager, Research Ethics on 3875 5585 or **research-ethics@griffith.edu.au**.

If you are interested in participating in this research study, please contact the researcher, Indira Somwaru at Indira.Somwaru@senecac.on.ca, as soon as possible.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,
Indira Somwaru
PhD candidate, Griffith Business School
Griffith University

APPENDIX B

CONSENT FORM USED IN INTERVIEWS WITH RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

CONSENT FORM

PROJECT TITLE: **Factors that Promote and Constrain the Involvement of Unionised Faculty in Their Jobs.**

INVESTIGATOR: Indira Somwaru, PhD Candidate
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PURPOSE OF STUDY:

You are being asked to participate in a research project entitled,

Factors that Promote and Constrain the Involvement of Unionised Faculty in Their Jobs.

This study will involve a cross-section of faculty in a large community college. The purpose of this research project is to develop an understanding of the factors which both promote and constrain faculty employee involvement and to identify strategies for increasing the level of faculty employee involvement in the college.

PROCEDURES INVOLVED IN RESEARCH

The interview will take approximately one hour and will be conducted at a time and location most convenient for you. Interviews will take place in a location that will not allow co-workers, friends, etc. to learn of your role as a research participant. Interviews

will follow an interview guide. The questions are designed to gain an understanding of the factors that promote and constrain your degree of involvement both in your job and college related activities. Examples of the questions you will be asked are:

- What are the benefits to you from working in an organisation that promotes a culture of employee involvement?
- What can the organisation do to promote a greater degree of employee involvement in your job?
- What strategies, structures or policies prevent you from being more involved at work?
- What strategies, structures or policies encourage a greater degree of involvement in your work?

With your permission, the interview will be tape recorded and transcribed. You do not have to answer any question that you prefer to skip.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS

The benefits of this study lie in the contribution it will make towards a better understanding of the challenges to, and opportunities for a higher degree of faculty involvement in both job and organisation related areas. Results of the study will identify strategies which may be used by the college to improve the levels of employee involvement in the college for the benefit of the organisation, faculty, and students.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Every step will be taken to ensure your confidentiality should you decide to participate in the research project. Names will not be used in my written work and no information will be used that could potentially identify you as a research participant. Interviews will take place in a location where we can speak privately. All data related to the study will be locked away and the researcher is the only person who will have access to the data which will be destroyed one year after completion of the study.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study would be voluntary. You would have the right to turn off the tape recorder at any point in time, slow down the pace of the interview, skip any questions you would prefer not to answer, or end the interview entirely. You will also have the right to ask the researcher that any portion of the interview, or the interview in its entirety be removed from the project. If you choose to withdraw from the study, all

notes, tapes and transcripts connected to your participation will be destroyed unless you indicate otherwise.

RESULTS

I expect to have the study completed by approximately June 2010. If you would like to receive a summary of the study results, please let me know and I will provide you with a copy.

If you have any questions or require more information about the research project itself, please contact the researcher Indira Somwaru, or the supervisor, Bob Russell at the above stated e-mail addresses.

THE ETHICAL CONDUCT OF THIS RESEARCH

Griffith University conducts research in accordance with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans*. **This project has been reviewed and has received ethical clearance from the Griffith University Human Research Ethics Committee** If potential participants have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project they should contact the Manager, Research Ethics on 3875 5585 or **research-ethics@griffith.edu.au**.

CONSENT

By signing below, I confirm that I have read and understood the information package and in particular have noted that:

- I understand that my involvement in this research will include a one hour interview with the researcher
- I have had any questions answered to my satisfaction;
- I understand the risks involved;
- I understand that there will be no direct benefit to me from my participation in this research
- I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary
- I understand that if I have any additional questions I can contact the research team
- I understand that I am free to withdraw at any time, without comment or penalty;
- I understand that I can contact the Manager, Research Ethics, at Griffith University Human Research Ethics Committee on 3735 5585 (or research-ethics@griffith.edu.au) if I have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the project; and
- I agree to participate in the project.

Printed Name: _____ Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW SCRIPT

Personal Interviews with the Faculty

PROJECT TITLE: Factors that Promote and Constrain the Involvement of Unionised Faculty in Their Jobs

RESEARCHER: Indira Somwaru

INTRODUCTION

- 1- As written in the consent form, your legal name will not be used in any of the research generated from this interview. Instead, an alias/ pseudonym will be used. Could you please give me an alias or would you like me to assign one to you?

Alias to be used in research project _____

- 2- What is your age bracket ?

Gender: Male Female

Age: 20–39 40–59 60 and over

SECTION 1

WORK PRACTICES

The following questions relate to the work practices for faculty.

1. What do you see as the critical components of your job?
2. What degree of autonomy do you have in performing your critical job duties?

High Medium Low

- Explain your answer
- How could autonomy in your job be increased?

3. What degree of accountability (final authority) do you have for fulfilling the requirements of your job?

High Moderate Limited

Explain your answer

4. In your view, to what extent is there opportunity for job-related problem-solving through groups, teams, or other quality improvement processes (e.g., quality circles)

Extensive Moderate Limited None

- Describe the factors that explain your answer.
- How could job-related problem-solving opportunities be increased?

5. With respect to your job:

Are you given timely and relevant information required for effective performance in your job (e.g., team briefings)?

- If yes, what are the methods that facilitate effective communication?
- If no, what can be done to improve the communication process?

With respect to broader college activities and initiatives (e.g., strategic plans):

Are you given timely and relevant information in order to be more effective in your job?

- If yes, what are the methods that facilitate effective communication?
- If no, what can be done to improve the communication process?

6. To what extent do you seek opportunities to contribute to furthering the organisation's goals beyond your job parameters?

Regularly Occasionally Limited Never

- Explain your answer.

What could be done by the college to promote greater organisational citizenship on your part?

7. Have workload expectations decreased, stayed the same or increased over the course of your employment?
 - Explain your answer.
8. What type of impact has workload had on your involvement in your job?
9. What type of impact has workload had on your involvement in broader college activities?
10. Have expectations regarding the requirements of the professors job remained consistent or changed over time?

If so, how has change affected your involvement in your job?
In broader college activities?

11. To what degree does your job provide work-life balance?

Low **Moderate** **High**

- Explain your answer
- How does your level of work-life balance affect your involvement in your job? In broader college activities?

RESOURCES AVAILABLE

The next set of questions is designed to gain a better understanding of the availability of resources for faculty to maximise job performance.

12. Do you receive adequate training and development to maximise your job performance?
 - If yes, what factors facilitate your acquisition of training and development opportunities?
 - If no, what factors constrain your acquisition of the necessary skills and knowledge?
 - What could the college do to support you in developing your human capital?

MANAGEMENT STYLE

The next set of questions is designed to better understand the management style with respect to employee involvement (as defined by Appendix A).

13. In general, how would you rate the organisation's management in promoting employee involvement?

Excellent Very Good Good Satisfactory Poor Very Poor

Please explain you rating.

14. What are the most effective aspects of management style that you have experienced?

15. What areas could be improved?

16. Is there joint consultation with management on work and organisational decisions?

17. What would management be doing in an organisation that promoted employee involvement?

REWARD SYSTEMS

18. Have you ever been rewarded for good job performance?

- If yes, what was the reward?

19. What are your views on the organisation's current reward system with respect to encouraging good job performance??

- Is there anything you would change to improve the reward system?

20. What are your views on the organisation's current reward system with respect to encouraging employee contributions beyond job requirements?

- Is there anything you would change to improve it?

21. How does the organisation's reward system affect your motivation and involvement in your job?

22. What are the intrinsic rewards that you think might accrue to yourself from working in a high involvement organisation ?

ORGANISATION STRUCTURE/ STRATEGIES/ POLICIES

23. In your opinion what organisational *structures* foster a culture of high involvement in this organisation?

24. What organisational *structures* prevent the development of a high involvement culture?
25. In your opinion what organisational *strategies* foster a culture of high involvement in this organisation?
26. What organisational *strategies* prevent the development of a high involvement culture?
27. In your opinion what organisational *policies* foster a culture of high involvement in this organisation?
28. What organisational *policies* prevent the development of a high involvement culture?

CONCLUSION

29. How would you rate the college with respect to fostering a high involvement culture?

Excellent Very Good Average Poor

- Provide 3 key examples to support your rating.
30. What do you see as obstacles to greater employee involvement?
 31. What factors facilitate your involvement in your job? In broader college activities?
 32. How might the college benefit from a more highly involved workforce?
 33. What can the organisation do to promote a greater degree of employee involvement?
 34. Is there anything else about working at the college that you would like to add to this interview that was not previously addressed?

APPENDIX D

EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT SURVEY



**Employee Involvement Survey
Griffith University**

**Department of Employment Relations
and Human Resources
Nathan, QLD, Australia**

GENERAL INFORMATION AND CONSENT:

My name is Indira Somwaru and I am a Seneca faculty member completing my doctoral thesis at Griffith University in Australia. The thesis is based on a study of the factors that affect the degree of faculty involvement in their work. It is being conducted for academic/scholarly purposes only. The objective is to identify the factors in your work environment and the organisation in general that both promote and constrain faculty engagement in your jobs and broader organisational activities. This study will add to information on human resource practices in academic institutions as perceived by faculty.

This information is sought through a self-administered questionnaire. It will take you about twenty minutes to complete this questionnaire.

Participation in this workforce survey is **entirely voluntary on your part**. You are under no obligation to participate. Deciding not to participate will not involve any penalties or the loss of any benefits from your employer. Should you choose to participate you are also under no obligation to answer any questions that you would rather not respond to. You are also under no obligation to complete the questionnaire should you decide not to. **The completion and return of the questionnaire will be accepted as an expression of consent to participate.**

All information collected through the survey will be treated in an anonymous manner and the questionnaire will bear no marks (signatures, etc.), which could be used to identify respondents. Please do not write your name or other identifying information on the questionnaire. Completed surveys will be archived for a five (5) year period, after which they will be destroyed. The results of the survey will be tabulated in an aggregate fashion that will ensure that no individual respondents can be identified. The results of aggregate data analysis may be disseminated in scholarly journals and shared with the participating organisations.

Should you have any questions about the project, please contact the researcher at the below telephone number or e-mail address.

Indira Somwaru
Telephone: 416-491-5050, ext. 26322
Email: Indira.Somwaru@senecacollege.ca

Griffith University requires that all participants be informed that if they have any complaints concerning the manner in which a research project is conducted it may be given to the researcher, or, if an independent person is preferred, to:

Manager, Research Ethics, Office for Research, Bray Centre, Nathan Campus, Griffith University,
Qld 4111, Australia
Telephone +61 7 38755585 or research-ethics@griffith.edu.au

PLEASE COMPLETE AND RETURN THE SURVEY IN THE ATTACHED ENVELOPE THROUGH INTEROFFICE MAIL TO ME BY July 15, 2012.

Please note that by completing and returning the survey you provide your consent as stated below to participate in this research.

CONSENT

By completing the survey, I confirm that I have read and understood the information presented and in particular that:

I understand that my involvement in this research will involve answering the questions in the survey form.

I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary.

I understand that I can contact the researcher with any questions I may have on the survey.

I understand that I can contact the Manager, Research Ethics, Office for Research, Bray Centre, Nathan Campus, Griffith University, Qld 4111, Australia

Telephone +61 7 38755585 or research-ethics@griffith.edu.au about the ethical conduct of the project

I agree to participate in the project.

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Q 1) Are you:

- 1 Male
- 2 Female

Q 2) How many years have you worked in this organisation?

- 1 Less than one year
- 2 One to five years
- 3 Six to ten years
- 4 Eleven to twenty years
- 5 More than twenty years

Q 3) What is your total teaching experience with this and any other educational institution?

- 1 Less than one year
- 2 One to five years
- 3 Five to ten years
- 4 Ten to twenty years
- 5 More than twenty years

Q 4) Please indicate your highest qualification.

- 1 Graduate certificate/diploma
- 2 Bachelors
- 3 Masters
- 4 PhD

Q 5) If you are currently completing a degree please circle the relevant one below.

- 1 Bachelors
- 2 Masters
- 3 PhD

Q 6 Are you a member of an employee trade union that covers your organisation?

Yes (if yes please go to question 7)

No (if no please go to question 8)

Q 7) How long have you been a member of the union?

- 1 Less than 1 year
- 2 One to five years
- 3 Five to ten years
- 4 Ten to twenty years
- 5 More than 20 years

Q 8) Please identify your age range below.

- 1 25-29 years
- 2 30-39 years
- 3 40 to 49 years
- 4 50 to 59 years
- 5 60 +

Q 9) What is your employment status?

- 1 Full time
- 2 Partial Load
- 3 Other

Q 10) What is your ethnicity?

- 1 Chinese
- 2 Caucasian
- 3 South Asian
- 4 Filipino
- 5 Latin American
- 6 Other

SECTION 2: WORK PROCESSES AND PRACTICES

Q 11) Research indicates that the following high involvement practices are used by many organisations to increase employee involvement in their work. Please indicate the extent to which the practices below are present in your work environment. (*Circle the number that comes closest to your views.*)

	<i>Not present</i>	<i>Slightly present</i>	<i>Somewhat present</i>	<i>Mostly present</i>	<i>strongly present</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) Joint labour management committees	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Employee suggestion programmes	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Problem-solving teams	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) Self-directed work groups	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Information-sharing with employees	1	2	3	4	5	9
f) Rewards for performance (financial or non-financial)	1	2	3	4	5	9
g) Performance feedback from manager	1	2	3	4	5	9
h) Formal opportunities for socialising	1	2	3	4	5	9
i) Flexibility in decision-making about how work is done	1	2	3	4	5	9
j) Coaching and mentoring from manager	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 12) Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. (*Circle the number that comes closest to your views.*)

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
Increased use of employee involvement practices such as employee suggestion programmes and rewards for performance would lead to:						
a) More innovative teaching	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Increased student retention	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Higher faculty productivity	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) Better reputation for the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Increased employee commitment	1	2	3	4	5	9

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
Increased use of employee involvement practices such as employee suggestion programmes and rewards for performance would lead to:						
f) Better quality of education for students	1	2	3	4	5	9
g) Professors with more current knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	9
h) Increased citizenship behaviour by faculty (going above and beyond job requirements).	1	2	3	4	5	9
i) Increased job satisfaction for faculty	1	2	3	4	5	9
j) Enhanced feelings of self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5	9
k) Opportunity for personal growth	1	2	3	4	5	9
l) Increased feelings of friendship with co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	9
m) Improved communication with management	1	2	3	4	5	9
n) More authority and responsibility	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 13) Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements. (*Circle the number that comes closest to your views.*)

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
Increased use of employee involvement practices such as employee suggestion programmes and rewards for performance would lead to:						
a) Increased uncertainty in my work environment	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) The need to develop new skills in my work	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) The need for higher levels of training to perform effectively	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) Increased layoffs for faculty	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) The need for less management control of my work activities	1	2	3	4	5	9
f) Increased level of faculty stress	1	2	3	4	5	9
g) Increased conflict among faculty	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 14) Rank the factors below in terms of their significance as a driver for the organisation in adopting employee involvement initiatives (Rank from highest (1) to lowest(5).)

- | | | |
|---|--|-----|
| 1 | Increased competition for students | ___ |
| 2 | Student desire for more innovative teaching | ___ |
| 3 | Availability of technology to support innovation | ___ |
| 4 | Faculty desire for a more involved workplace | ___ |
| 5 | Ability of the organisation to generate funding | ___ |

Q 15) To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement:

“ The use of employee involvement initiatives would be a manipulative ploy by management to intensify the work process”.

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 16) Please rate the importance of the following items to you. (Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)

	<i>Not important</i>	<i>Slightly important</i>	<i>Somewhat important</i>	<i>Very important</i>	<i>Extremely important</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) Freedom to design, deliver and evaluate courses	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Opportunities for job related problem solving(e.g., regular team meetings)	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Regular performance feedback	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) Opportunities to contribute to organisational goals beyondjob requirements	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Opportunities for professional development	1	2	3	4	5	9
f) Manager’s open-door policy	1	2	3	4	5	9
g) Management receptiveness to new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	9
h) Joint faculty and management consultation on work issues	1	2	3	4	5	9
i) Rewards for superior performance	1	2	3	4	5	9

j)	Opportunities to socialise with peers at work	1	2	3	4	5	9
k)	Information required to do the best possible job	1	2	3	4	5	9
l)	Variety in job duties	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 17) To what extent are each of the following items present in your current job? (*Circle the number that comes closest to your views.*)

		<i>Not present</i>	<i>Slightly present</i>	<i>Somewhat present</i>	<i>Very present</i>	<i>Extremely present</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a)	Freedom to design, deliver and evaluate courses	1	2	3	4	5	9
b)	Opportunities for job related problem solving(e.g., regular team meetings)	1	2	3	4	5	9
c)	Regular performance feedback	1	2	3	4	5	9
d)	Opportunities to contribute to organisational goals beyond job requirements	1	2	3	4	5	9
e)	Opportunities for professional development	1	2	3	4	5	9
f)	Chair open-door policy	1	2	3	4	5	9
g)	Management receptiveness to new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	9
h)	Joint faculty and management consultation on work issues	1	2	3	4	5	9
i)	Rewards for superior performance	1	2	3	4	5	9
j)	Opportunities to socialise with peers at work	1	2	3	4	5	9
k)	Information required to do the best possible job	1	2	3	4	5	9
l)	Variety in job duties	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 18) To what extent is your ability to influence decisions about each of the following present in your job? (*Circle the number that comes closest to your views.*)

		<i>Not present</i>	<i>Slightly present</i>	<i>Somewhat present</i>	<i>Very present</i>	<i>Extremely present</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a)	The way your work is done	1	2	3	4	5	9
b)	Ways of improving productivity	1	2	3	4	5	9
c)	Quality of your work environment	1	2	3	4	5	9

d)	Planning and scheduling of your work	1	2	3	4	5	9
e)	The time it takes your department to get things done	1	2	3	4	5	9
f)	The flexibility of your department's operations	1	2	3	4	5	9
g)	The goals and performance standards of your job	1	2	3	4	5	9
h)	Who gets hired into your group	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 19) What are the **3 most important formal processes** that allow you to have an influence at work? (Rank in order of importance from highest (1) to lowest (5).)

- 1 Team meetings _____
- 2 One on one meetings with Chair/Co-ordinator _____
- 3 Employee opinion surveys _____
- 4 Town hall meetings _____
- 5 Informal meetings with peers _____

Q 20) What are **the 3 most significant factors** which serve to limit autonomy in your job. (Rank in order of importance from highest (1) to lowest (5).)

- 1 Collective agreement _____
- 2 Chair approval of tests and exams _____
- 3 Limited choices about subjects taught _____
- 4 Team teaching of courses _____
- 5 Curriculum requirements by professional bodies _____

Q 21) Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement below. (Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) I feel my role is valued by the people I work with	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) I feel my role is valued by the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Work units/schools seem to collaborate effectively to get things done	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) The organisation is generally quick to use improved work methods	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Management is generally receptive to new ways of doing things suggested by faculty	1	2	3	4	5	9

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
f) My current job gives me a sense of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5	9
g) I know what performance expectations are related to my role	1	2	3	4	5	9
h) I have the information I need to do my job in the best possible way	1	2	3	4	5	9
i) I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected to help this organisation be successful	1	2	3	4	5	9
j) When management says something you can really believe it is true	1	2	3	4	5	9
k) I am primarily motivated in my job by internal needs such as opportunity for growth	1	2	3	4	5	9
l) In general getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck	1	2	3	4	5	9
m) Hard work generally pays off in the end	1	2	3	4	5	9
n) There is sufficient collaboration with colleagues to share best practices and solve problems						

Q 22) Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below. (Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) My workload (teaching, professional activities) is reasonable	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) I have enough time to do my daily work adequately	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) I have enough time for planning and development with respect to the courses I teach	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) My involvement in broader organisational activities (e.g., committees) is not limited by my workload	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) My job provides me with a satisfactory work life balance	1	2	3	4	5	9
f) The organisation provides adequate opportunities for meeting my social needs	1	2	3	4	5	9
g) I know what performance expectations are related to my job	1	2	3	4	5	9

SECTION 3: THE UNION AND EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT

Q 23) Please answer this question if you ticked Yes to Q. 6 indicating that you are a union member. As a union member, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below. (Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) I feel a sense of pride in being a part of the union	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) I feel that union and management work effectively to solve the organisations problems	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) The organisation would be in favour of implementing employee involvement programmes	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) The union would be in favour of implementing employee involvement programmes	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) The organisation would only implement an employee involvement programme with the consent of its union	1	2	3	4	5	9
f) The organisation would use an employee involvement programme to weaken the union	1	2	3	4	5	9
g) My loyalty is to my work, not the union	1	2	3	4	5	9
h) My values and the union's values are not very similar	1	2	3	4	5	9
i) The issue of employee involvement is often discussed by the union	1	2	3	4	5	9
j)The presence of a union will not affect the success of an employee involvement programme	1	2	3	4	5	9
k)The union would help the company to implement an employee involvement programme	1	2	3	4	5	9
l)Very little of what the member ship wants is important to the union	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 24) Please answer this question if you ticked Yes to Q. 6 indicating that you are a union member. Please indicate the extent to which you participate in union sponsored activities (e.g., union meetings). (Check one)

- 1 Frequently _____
- 2 Occasionally _____
- 3 Rarely _____
- 4 Not at all _____

Q 25) Please indicate the extent to which you go above and beyond the requirements of your job (e.g., volunteering for committees). (Check one)

- 1 Frequently _____
- 2 Occasionally _____
- 3 Minimally _____
- 4 Not at all _____

Q 26) Circle the number(s) corresponding to the statement which best describes your views:

- 1 An employee involvement culture would serve to increase my interest in job-related activities (e.g., attendance at team meetings)
- 2 An employee involvement culture would serve to increase my interest in college-related activities beyond job requirements (e.g., attending graduation ceremonies)
- 3 An employee involvement culture would make no difference in my level of participation

Q27) With respect to your job please indicate how often you perform the actions below. (Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)

	<i>On a regular basis</i>	<i>Frequently</i>	<i>Some times</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Never</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) Make suggestions to improve quality or efficiency	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Keep up to date with what is happening in the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Notify your manager of potential work-related problems	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) Help out a fellow worker on the job	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Attend most team meetings	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 28) If employee involvement initiatives are implemented in the organisation I feel that the union should: (Check the statement that best reflects your views.)

- 1 Not be involved to maintain its independence _____
- 2 Cooperate with management in implementing these initiatives _____

Q 29) Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement below. (Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)

	<i>Not present</i>	<i>Slightly present</i>	<i>Somewhat present</i>	<i>Mostly present</i>	<i>Strongly present</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) Introducing employee involvement initiatives would serve to weaken union member relations	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Introducing employee involvement initiatives would serve to weaken the union's influence on how work gets done	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Introducing employee involvement initiatives would have no significant impact on current union member relationships	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) Introducing employee involvement initiatives would have no significant impact on the union's influence on how work gets done	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 30) For the following statement check the statement that comes closest to your views:

If the union endorsed the move to more employee involvement I would feel:

- 1 More favourable toward the union _____
- 2 Less favourable toward the union _____
- 3 The same as I currently feel toward the union _____

Q 31) **I would be interested in the introduction of employee involvement initiatives in this organisation.**

- 1 Yes _____
- 2 No (go to next question) _____

Q 32) What are the **3 most significant factors** which would limit your interest in employee involvement initiatives? (Rank in order of significance from highest (1) to lowest (3).)

- 1 Waste of my time _____
- 2 Strained relationship with co-workers _____
- 3 Could weaken the union _____
- 4 No additional benefit in doing my job _____
- 5 Lack of management to the process _____

SECTION 4: REWARDS AND RECOGNITION

Q 33) Rank in order of importance the rewards below in terms of their effectiveness in increasing your desire to contribute **above and beyond your job?** (Rank from highest (1) to lowest (6).)

- 1 More freedom and opportunities regarding my work _____
- 2 Praise from my supervisor _____
- 3 Training and development opportunities _____
- 4 More challenging work assignments _____
- 5 Some form of public recognition _____
- 6 A token of appreciation (e.g., lunch) _____

SECTION 5: FUTURE GROWTH OPPORTUNITY

Q 34) In the past three years have you received formal training in the following areas?

Formal Training Received?

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
Functional skills to do your job.....	1	2
Technical skills to do your job.....	1	2
Cross- training to do other jobs.....	1	2
Performance improvement training.....	1	2

If you answered yes in any category, please go to Q 35/If no, go to Q 36.

Q 35) Please indicate the degree to which you feel your training has been effective by circling the number which best reflects your views.

	<i>Highly ineffective</i>	<i>Mostly ineffective</i>	<i>Neither effective nor ineffective</i>	<i>Mostly effective</i>	<i>Highly effective</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) Functional skills	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Technical skills	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Cross-training to do other jobs	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) Performance improvement training	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 36) If training has been **inadequate**, rank in order of importance the following constraints on receiving adequate training in your job (Rank in order of importance from highest (1) to lowest (4).)

- 1 Time _____
- 2 Organisational budget constraints _____
- 3 Lack of knowledge of training available _____
- 4 Lack of customised training for my needs _____

Q 37) With respect to job performance, are you given regular performance feedback from management on your work?

- 1 Yes
- 2 No (go to Q 38)

Q 38) Rank in order of importance the following barriers to effective faculty performance feedback. (Rank in order of importance from highest (1) to lowest (4).)

- 1 Lack of a formal performance feedback process _____
- 2 Lack of faculty time for reflection on teaching process _____
- 3 Management not trained to give effective feedback _____
- 4 Lack of union acceptance of formal feedback process _____

SECTION 6: WORK ENVIRONMENT

Q 39) Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below. (Circle the number that comes closest to your views)

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) The classrooms I teach in are appropriate for my teaching needs.	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) The IT facilities in the classrooms I teach in are appropriate for my teaching needs.	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) I have the tools and equipment to perform my work effectively	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) My teaching schedule is varied and interesting from one semester to the next	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Members of diverse groups are respected and valued in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
h) I have the administrative support I need to perform my work effectively	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 40) Do you ever suffer from symptoms of stress that are caused by your work?

- 1 Yes (go to Q 41)
- 2 No
- 3 Unsure

Q 41) Which of the following are the **3 most significant** sources of stress for you? (Rank in order of importance from highest (1) to lowest (3).)

- 1 Resolving student issues _____
- 2 Little time for planning and updating courses _____
- 3 Bureaucratic policies and procedures related to teaching _____
- 4 Ineffective communication channels _____
- 5 Heavy teaching workload _____
- 6 Repetitive work (teaching same courses repeatedly) _____
- 7 Classroom challenges (cultural and language barriers) _____
- 8 Other (Please specify) _____

SECTION 7: ORGANISATIONAL VALUES/SYSTEMS/POLICIES

Q 42) Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below. (Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) The organisation has a real interest in the welfare of those who work here	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) The organisation is willing to help me if I need a special favour	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) If given the opportunity the organisation would take advantage of me	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) The organisation sets reasonable, clear-cut goals and objectives	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Work activities are sensibly structured in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
h) I feel loyal toward this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	9
i) Decisions in this organisation are made at the levels where the most adequate information is available	1	2	3	4	5	9

SECTION 8: MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

Q 43) In general how much influence does each of the following groups have on what goes on in your department?

	<i>No influence</i>	<i>Slight influence</i>	<i>Moderate influence</i>	<i>High level of influence</i>	<i>Extreme level of influence</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) Lower level management (e.g., programme coordinators)	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Middle level management (e.g., chairs)	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Top management (e.g. deans, vice-presidents)	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 44) Please show how much you agree or disagree with each statement below. (Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) Top management attitudes and behaviours are most important in establishing a participative climate for faculty	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) The attitudes and behaviours of department Chairs are most important in establishing a participative climate for faculty	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Management sees its role as primarily administrative rather than as participants in fostering employee involvement	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) Management believes that faculty have the skills and knowledge necessary to improve organisational performance through employee involvement practices	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Management would be receptive to the implementation of employee involvement practices	1	2	3	4	5	9
f) There is a high degree of trust between management and faculty	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 45) Listed below are behaviours considered to be critical requirements for a successful Academic Chair. Please indicate the degree to which you feel each of the behaviours below is important. (Circle the number that best reflects your views.)

	<i>Not important</i>	<i>Slightly important</i>	<i>Somewhat important</i>	<i>Very important</i>	<i>Extremely important</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) Receptiveness to new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Knowledgeable about subjects taught by faculty	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Expertise in management	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) Able to relate well to staff	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Provides coaching and support	1	2	3	4	5	9
f) Manages by walking around	1	2	3	4	5	9
g) Shows respect for faculty	1	2	3	4	5	9
h) Flexible in assigning and scheduling work	1	2	3	4	5	9
i) Has information required to do the best possible job	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 46) Listed below are factors which may cause mid and lower level management resistance to the implementation of employee involvement programmes? (Rank in order of importance from highest (1) to lowest (4).)

- 1 Loss of managerial control over how work gets done _____
- 2 Belief that faculty will not work in the best interests of the organisation _____
- 3 Employees will avoid work _____
- 4 Fear of management job loss _____

Q 47) Listed below are attributes considered to be critical for first line managers in high involvement workplaces. Rank these attributes in order of importance from highest (1) to lowest (5) these attributes in terms of how critical they are for managerial success in promoting a high involvement culture.

- 1 Interpersonal skills _____
- 2 Analytical skills _____
- 3 Communication skills _____
- 4 Planning skills _____
- 5 Coaching and mentoring skills _____

Q 48) Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below. (Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) Management believes that employees have the knowledge and skills to improve organisational performance	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Management often models participative behaviours (e.g., asking for faculty input)	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Management provides a clear line of sight for what I need to do succeed in my job	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) Management actively seeks out employee suggestions and opinions	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Management consistently and frequently communicates their key leadership goals to faculty	1	2	3	4	5	9
h) Management uses a variety of communication channels to articulate these priorities to faculty	1	2	3	4	5	9
i) Management effectively accesses knowledge and skills of faculty in decision-making regarding faculty work activities	1	2	3	4	5	9
j) Top management has a clear vision which is effectively communicated to employees	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 49) Research indicates that integrity displayed by management is a key driver of employee involvement. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below.
(Circle the number that comes closest to your views)

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) The information I receive from management is accurate and timely	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Management responds to unethical behaviour	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) There is congruence between management words and actions	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 50) Which of the following most accurately reflects the amount of performance feedback provided to you by your manager (Check one).

- 1 Daily _____
- 2 Weekly _____
- 3 Monthly _____
- 4 Annually _____
- 5 Not at all _____

CONCLUSION

Q 51) Research indicates that the factors below are considered to be barriers to employee involvement in the organisation. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree that these factors are barriers to involvement. *(Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)*

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) Collective agreement workload restrictions	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Lack of a consistent reward/recognition system	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Lack of support for professional development	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) Lower level management	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Bureaucratic organisational policies	1	2	3	4	5	9
f) Management focus on administration instead of innovation	1	2	3	4	5	9
g) Limited face time with manager	1	2	3	4	5	9
h) Top down-decision making	1	2	3	4	5	9
i) Union management relations	1	2	3	4	5	9
j) Limited compensations options	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 52) Listed below are factors considered to be critical requirements for successfully achieving greater levels of employee involvement. Please indicate how you agree or disagree that these factors are critical for creating a higher level of faculty job and organisational involvement. *(Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)*

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) More opportunities for social interaction	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) Use of a formal evaluation system	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) Formal training and development programme	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) More innovative thinking by management	1	2	3	4	5	9

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
e) Unbiased faculty selection process	1	2	3	4	5	9
f) Smaller, team based work units	1	2	3	4	5	9
g) More co-ordination across departments	1	2	3	4	5	9
h) Change to a more service oriented culture	1	2	3	4	5	9
i) Rewards and recognition for teaching excellence	1	2	3	4	5	9

Q 53) Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statements below. (Circle the number that comes closest to your views.)

	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Mostly disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Mostly agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Don't know / not relevant</i>
a) Knowing what I know now about the college I would apply to work here again.	1	2	3	4	5	9
b) I rarely think of applying to other organisations for a job.	1	2	3	4	5	9
c) I would recommend this college as a good employer	1	2	3	4	5	9
d) I am proud to be an employee at this college.	1	2	3	4	5	9
e) Overall, I intend to remain at the college	1	2	3	4	5	9

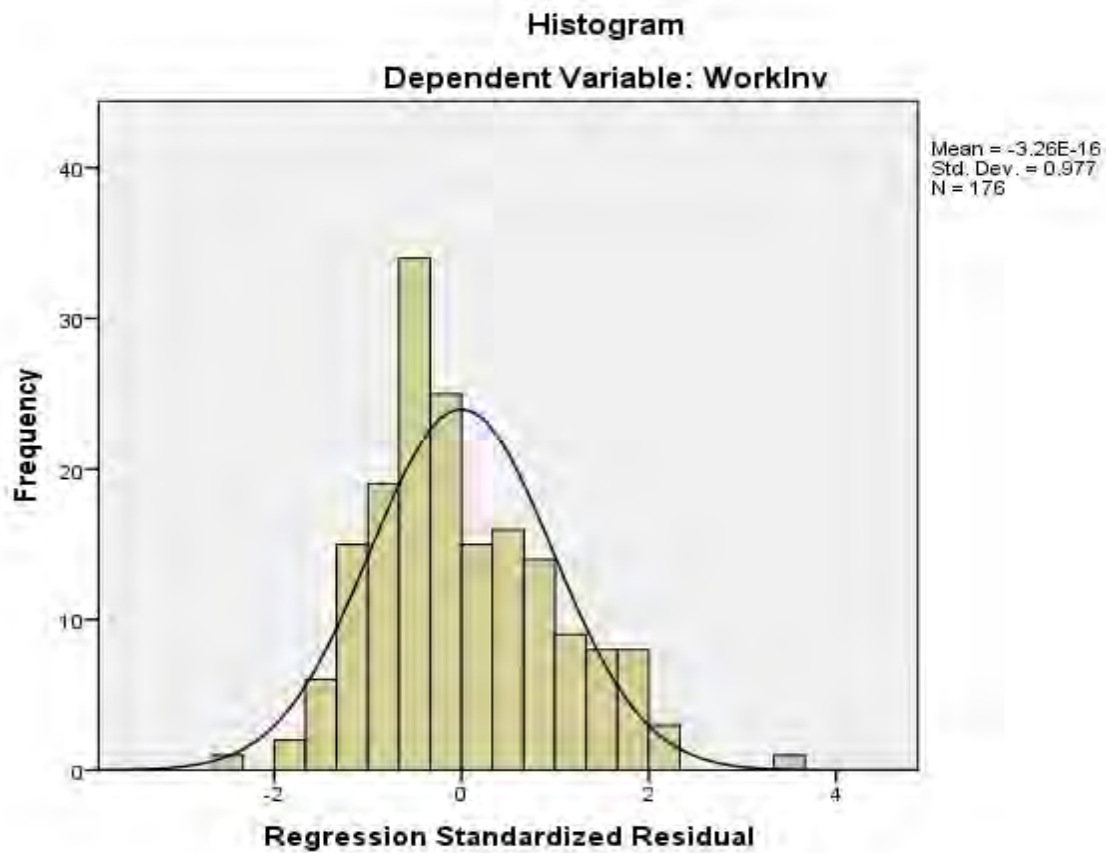
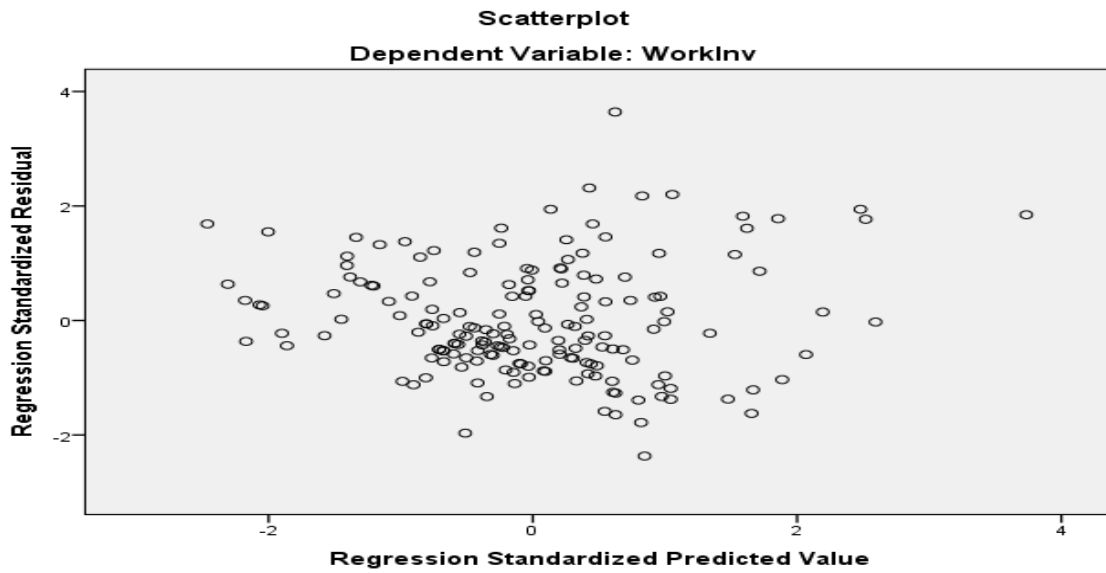
Q 54) How would you rate the organisation in fostering a high involvement culture? (Circle the number that best reflects your views.)

- 1 Excellent
- 2 Good
- 3 Fair
- 4 Poor
- 5 Don't know/Not relevant

Thank you for the time and effort you have put into this survey.

Please put in envelope provided and drop in inter-office mail.

Appendix E: Scatter-Plot of the residual terms vs. the predicted values



Appendix F:

Multi-co linearity among independent variables

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.607	.284		5.665	.000		
	Gender	-.066	.098	-.051	-.668	.505	.940	1.064
	Time in organization	-.014	.057	-.030	-.253	.800	.397	2.519
	Current Union memeber	.636	.178	.270	3.567	.000	.944	1.059
	Age	.028	.059	.055	.477	.634	.402	2.489
2	(Constant)	-.884	.419		-2.111	.036		
	Gender	-.089	.086	-.069	-1.032	.304	.883	1.132
	Time in organization	.095	.051	.196	1.852	.066	.350	2.854
	Current Union memeber	.493	.154	.209	3.194	.002	.916	1.092
	Age	-.024	.051	-.048	-.477	.634	.388	2.578
	SupportiveWorkPracticeNew	.785	.144	.616	5.465	.000	.307	3.255
	MGTPRACTICENW	.176	.135	.178	1.297	.196	.207	4.831
	ORGVSP	-.283	.118	-.345	-2.409	.017	.191	5.238
	WORKENV	.088	.094	.079	.936	.350	.552	1.812

a. Dependent Variable: WorkInv

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