

**“An examination into how Irish SMEs socialise non-  
Irish-national employees into their workforces”**

**Damien Ryan**

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**Presented To:**

**Dr. William O’Gorman  
Centre for Entrepreneurship**



**Waterford Institute of Technology.  
Department of Management and Organisation**

## **Abstract**

The purpose of this study is to investigate how Irish SMEs socialise non-Irish-nationals into their workforces. Levels of immigration into Ireland have increased significantly in recent years, caused by improved economic conditions in Ireland and the expansion of the European Union in 2004 and 2007. Due to this increase in immigration levels, Irish Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs) have to adapt to operating with a heterogeneous workforce as opposed to a homogenous one.

Previous research has suggested that the early stages of the employment of culturally diverse workers with an organisation are particularly crucial. According to McMilan-Capehart (2005) the methods which an organisation uses to assist the socialisation of culturally diverse employees will play a significant role in determining whether those employees will be able to adapt to that organisation or not. For this reason, this research focuses on the organisational socialisation of non-Irish-nationals into Irish SMEs. As far as this researcher is aware, the organisational socialisation of culturally diverse organisational entrants into small businesses has not been previously investigated in an Irish context.

The current study's primary research methodology was qualitative. The primary data used in the study was gathered through a series of semi-structured interviews of owner/managers or operations managers of SMEs in the South East of Ireland. This research method allowed the researcher to engage with the respondents and gain an in-depth understanding of how these SMEs are approaching the task of socialising non-Irish-national entrants.

A number of noteworthy findings emerged from this research. Firstly, it was found that the SMEs surveyed have altered their induction methods to meet the requirements of non-Irish-nationals entering their organisations, albeit in sometimes quite small ways. Secondly, the owner/manager or operations managers of the organisations surveyed played an important role in the socialisation process particularly in the early stages when the influence of the organisation over the entrants was at its strongest. Thirdly, the roles played by established employees were found to be extremely important.

Unexpectedly, it was discovered that the role played by non-Irish-national employees was of greater significance than that played by Irish employees. In all organisations surveyed, non-Irish-national employees were relied upon to assist in the recruitment process by recommending further potential employees. They also provided considerable levels of support to the entering non-Irish-nationals thereby playing a significant role in their socialisation.

Finally, the outcomes of the socialisation processes seemed to be somewhat mixed in terms of the integration of the non-Irish-national entrants on a social levels. While the non-Irish-national employees displayed exemplary adaptability and role proficiency in all cases, there were signs that non-Irish-nationals had not integrated completely with the established workforce. The workforces in some of the organisations surveyed had instead separated into two groups; Irish and non-Irish-national. This separation had been caused largely by cultural and language barriers.

The outcomes of this research may have implications for HRM practitioners, entrepreneurs, owner/managers and operations managers of SMEs, academics and policy makers.

## **Declaration**

**I hereby declare that the material contained within this thesis is entirely my own work and it has not been previously submitted to this or any other institution. The author has undertaken this work alone except for when otherwise stated.**

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**Damien Ryan**

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# **Chapter 1: Introduction**

## **1.1 Chapter overview**

The current study examines the socialisation of non-Irish-nationals into Irish SMEs. The purpose of this study is to ascertain whether or not the management of these SMEs have formulated and implemented particular socialisation tactics to deal with the rapid influx of non-Irish-national workers. This study will describe these tactics and also focus on the various factors that have influenced these tactics. In so doing, this study will gain an insight into the socialisation of non-Irish-nationals into Irish SMEs.

This chapter firstly outlines the rationale for undertaking this study before focusing on the particular research question and objectives that have been derived from this research problem. An outline of this thesis' structure is then presented. Finally, the limitations pertaining to the study are presented and the benefits of the study are highlighted.

## **1.2 Rationale for the study**

From independence in 1922 until the early 1990s, the Irish economy performed relatively poorly and emigration levels were consistently high (Kennedy, Giblin and McHugh, 1998). This relative economic weakness meant that Ireland was an unattractive destination for migrants who came to Ireland in negligible numbers during this period. This situation changed in the 1990s when economic conditions began to improve. According to the European Industrial Relations Observatory (2000) the total numbers of people at work in Ireland increased dramatically in 2000 and businesses began to encounter increased difficulty in recruiting adequate numbers of staff.

In line with this improvement in the Irish economy, immigration into Ireland has increased significantly since the early 1990s (Department of Enterprise, Trade and Employment, 2007). A particularly important development which has contributed to this dramatic rise in immigration levels has been the enlargement of the European Union. This took place when ten countries joined the union simultaneously in 2004

followed by two more states in 2007. Since this recent enlargement, citizens from all twenty seven member states, in addition to Iceland, Norway and Liechtenstein, have the right to live and work in Ireland without restriction, should they choose to do so.

According to data from the 2006 Census the overwhelming majority of the immigrants who have entered this country are European in origin. The largest group of immigrants in the Republic of Ireland are from the United Kingdom which had 112,548 citizens residing in the country. Citizens from Poland numbered 63,276 while there were 24,628 people from Lithuania living in Ireland. The total number of non-Irish-nationals residing in Ireland was estimated to be 419,733 (CSO, 2006). Irish organisations have begun to avail of this newly expanded labour force by hiring non-Irish-nationals in large numbers. This was evidenced by data contained in a report from the Chambers of Commerce Ireland (2004) which suggested that 22% of businesses employed non-Irish-nationals. In fact, some industry sectors of the Irish economy have rapidly become reliant on migrant workers. According to a statement from the Irish Small and Medium Enterprises association (ISME) in 2004, the construction, catering, and hospitality sectors have become almost completely dependent on immigrant labour. Evidence supplied by Fas (2004; 2006) suggests that Ireland is likely to continue to require large numbers of both skilled and unskilled migrants if economic growth continues.

The rapid increase in the numbers of migrant workers has affected organisations of all sectors and size categories including the important Small to Medium Enterprises (SME) sector. The SME sector is a particularly important one in Ireland which generates significant levels of employment. This significant contribution to employment was illustrated by data released by the Department of Enterprise Trade and Employment (2006). According to this data, an estimated 800,000 people in Ireland are currently employed by SMEs.

Due to this increased level of immigration, people from a variety of origins and backgrounds now comprise a significant portion of the workforce in this country. They bring with them a correspondingly large number of values, assumptions and attitudes. Irish organisations are faced with the task of socialising and integrating these non-Irish-nationals into their workforces. The CSO (2006) data showed that many of the recent immigrants to Ireland are Eastern European in origin. According to Hofstede (2008)

people from Eastern European countries tend to emphasise the welfare of the group. By contrast, Irish people are more concerned with the individual. These differences in perspectives can cause misunderstandings when members of these groups interact.

The change in the composition of the available workforce represents a considerable challenge to Irish employers as they are largely inexperienced in dealing with a culturally heterogeneous workforce. The CSO (2006) data also showed that recent immigrants to Ireland originate from non-English speaking countries. This may further increase the difficulty of integrating such people into Irish organisations

The particular emphasis of this study is on the methods employed by the management of SMEs to socialise workers of non-Irish origin into their organisations. Organisational socialisation is the process in which a newcomer to an organisation acclimatises to the culture and norms within that organisation and begins to establish relationships with established members of that organisation. Organisations may try to exert an influence on this process in an attempt to ensure that the entering individual will fit in with the organisation. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) produced seminal work on organisational socialisation and defined organisational socialisation as “the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organisational role” (p. 3). Ardts, Jansen, and Van Der Velde (2001) emphasised the importance of organisational socialisation, when they stated that “the more effective and efficient the socialisation, the sooner a newcomer can be productive for the organisation” (p. 1). However, the process of socialisation becomes more difficult and complicated when culturally diverse individuals enter an unfamiliar environment such as an organisation (Lopez and McMillan, 2003). According to Cox (1994) culturally diverse entrants may react to an organisation’s socialisation tactics in different ways to homogenous entrants. This makes the outcomes of a socialisation process of culturally diverse entrants extremely difficult to predict

Previous studies conducted in the fields of socialisation such as that carried out by Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) tended to focus on the methods employed by larger organisations. The methods employed by smaller firms to socialise non-Irish-national have undergone considerably less scrutiny and it would be unrealistic to assume that their methods would simply mirror those of their larger counterparts.



Based on the situation outlined in this section of the thesis, this researcher decided to undertake a study on the organisational socialisation of non-Irish-nationals in an Irish SME context. Thus, this research will shed some light on the question of how Irish SMEs are managing the dramatic increase in the numbers of non-Irish-nationals in their workforces.

### **1.3 Research question and objectives**

The research question is derived from the research problem. According to Bryman and Bell (2003), it is vital that a precisely worded research question be formulated in the early stages of a study. Such a question will then serve to guide the process. Due to the fact that significantly increased levels of immigration to Ireland mean that SMEs must adapt to operating with a culturally diverse workforce, the research question for the present study is as follows:

How do Irish SMEs socialise non-Irish-national employees into their workforces?

The research question encapsulates the overall aim of the study. It also assists the researcher in formulating a set of research objectives for the study (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 1997). Kumar (1999) has described research objectives as the “goals” of a particular study. The precise framing of these objectives assists in focusing the study on these specific aims.

Therefore the research objectives of the present study are:

1. To identify and investigate the socialisation tactics which are currently being used by SMEs to direct the socialisation process of non-Irish-national employees.
2. To ascertain whether individual SME characteristics have influenced the socialisation of non-Irish-national employees.
3. To identify how the human resource management methods utilised by SMEs have influenced the socialisation of non-Irish-national employees.

4. To examine the influence of the owner/manager or operations manager on the socialisation of non-Irish-national employees.
5. To investigate the role played by indigenous employees in the socialisation of non-Irish-national employees.

The research was underpinned by a phenomenological philosophical perspective and utilised a qualitative methodology. Subjects were purposefully selected from the Enterprise Ireland database of small enterprises located in the South East of Ireland, supplemented where necessary by respondents who were identified through personal contacts. SMEs from both the services and the manufacturing sectors were selected for comparative purposes. The data collection technique used in the present study was a series of seven semi-structured interviews which were conducted with the owner/managers or operations managers of the organisations selected for study. A more detailed description of the methodology used in this study is outlined in Chapter 3.

#### **1.4 Structure of this thesis**

Chapter 2 contains a literature review which is comprised of four sub-sections. The SME is defined in the first of these sections and the economic importance of the sector is explained. Organisational Culture including the various possible types of company culture is outlined in the second section; this section also includes subsections of national culture as an influence on organisational culture. The various types of Organisational Socialisation are explained in the third section which includes Schein's (1971) visual depiction of the process. Finally, Diversity Management is examined from a variety of perspectives in the fourth section.

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology utilised in the primary research phase of the present study. This chapter includes a statement of the research question and objectives, the selection of a research philosophy and the data collection tool which was used.

Chapter 4 contains the findings from the primary research. This data is presented under the following five sub headings. The methods of socialisation used in the SMEs surveyed, the impact of individual SME characteristics on the implementation of socialisation methods, the role of HRM in the socialisation process, the influence of the

owner/manager or operations manager on the process, and the influence of the indigenous employees on the process.

Chapter 5 is comprised of a discussion on the findings of the present research. In this chapter, the more salient themes which emerged from the research are outlined and discussed.

Chapter 6 contains the conclusions which were drawn from this research. It also outlines the limitations of this research as well as the benefits of the study.

### **1.5 Limitations of this study**

As with all research, there are limitations pertaining to this study. Firstly, the research surveyed only a small number of respondents which limited its possibility for generalisation. Secondly, it focused on a single geographic region. It is possible that a survey covering a wider geographic region could have produced a different set of results.

Another limitation of the research was the fact that it was a cross sectional as opposed to a longitudinal study. As such it was not possible to definitively ascertain what the outcomes of the particular socialisation tactics employed had been.

Finally, the study also relied on a single source from within each organisation surveyed. This may have limited the internal validity of the study.

### **1.6 Benefits of this study**

As outlined in section 1.2 the issue of the socialisation of non-Irish-nationals into Irish SMEs is an important and very topical issue. This research facilitates an insight into current socialisation practices within Irish SMEs as they react to these developments and the changes in their operating environments. This study contributes to knowledge in an area of socialisation by examining the issue in a particular context which has, thus far, received relatively little academic attention. The focus of this study on the socialisation methods used by SMEs when dealing with non-Irish-national employees

will add to the growing body of literature on organisational socialisation. This study has implications for owner/managers and operations managers of SMEs, academics, HR practitioners, and policy makers.

## **1.7 Summary**

This chapter has presented the research topic of the organisational socialisation of on-Irish-nationals in SMEs. It also explained the rationale for undertaking this research and set out this study's research question and objectives. The structure of this thesis was outlined and the limitations and benefits of this study were also summarised Chapter 2 presents a review of literature relevant to the current study.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The literature reviewed and presented in this thesis is done so with the purpose of establishing how non-Irish-national employees are socialised into the workforces of Irish SMEs. To address this question, the literature review encompasses a number of relevant areas of literature such as previous research on how SMEs operate, as well as organisational culture, organisational socialisation and diversity management. In the first section of the literature review, definitions of an SME are presented and the economic importance of the SME is examined. Thereafter particular attention is devoted to the human resource management related aspects of its operations such as training and literature on the owner/managers' role in this aspect of the organisations' operations is also reviewed. This is followed by a section devoted to organisational culture, or the shared sense of identity or community which develops in groups such as the workforces of organisations. An overview of organisational culture theory and factors influencing the formation of such cultures including the influence of national culture is presented here. This leads directly to the third section, in which literature concerning the integration of new employees into an organisation is presented and discussed. Organisational socialisation in its various forms is explored in this subsection as well as outcomes of the process. Attention is also paid to the socialisation of entrants differing culturally from the majority present in an organisation and literature on the management of a diverse group of employees is then presented. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the literature pertaining to this research.

### **2.2 Small to medium enterprises (SMEs) defined**

Attempting to define the SME is a difficult task. Storey (1994) has noted that no single, all encompassing definition of what precisely constitutes an SME has been universally accepted. According to Goss (1991), SMEs differ from each other in a number of ways including sector, size, and methods of operating. Similarly, Hill and Stewart (2000) stated that each "small organisation is unique in its composition and its culture" (p.

115). Due to this 'heterogeneity', it is difficult to place all SMEs into the same category (Wilkinson, 1999; Hill and Stewart, 2000). Therefore, it is appropriate that care should be taken when adopting a particular definition for use. The European Union Commission's (2002) definition covers small businesses of various sizes.

“The category of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) is made up of enterprises which have fewer than 250 occupied persons and which have either a turnover not exceeding 50 million Euro or an annual balance sheet total not exceeding 43 million Euro, the small enterprise is defined as an enterprise which has fewer than 50 occupied persons and whose annual turnover or balance sheet total does not exceed 10 million Euro, the micro enterprise is defined as an enterprise which has fewer than 10 occupied persons” (p.7).

It should be noted that this definition is also applicable to firms operating in an Irish context. It is in line with the definition adopted by Enterprise Ireland (2005) which also defines an SME as being an organisation employing fewer than 250 employees. Therefore, this definition has been adopted for use in the current research.

### **2.2.1 The economic importance of the SME sector**

The history of the small firm is a long one and the origins of the modern SME may be traced back to 19<sup>th</sup> century Britain and the industrial revolution (Boswell, 1973). The importance of the SME sector has been the subject of debate within the literature with many authors adopting conflicting positions on the issue. On one hand, Galbraith (1969) predicted that large firms would prove to be the major sources of employment in the late twentieth century. Conversely, Schumacher (1973) argued that the economic significance of smaller organisations, relative to larger firms, was destined to increase over time. Several studies have subsequently produced findings which supported Schumacher's prediction. Birch (1987), for example, concurred with Schumacher's contention when he found that the importance of the SME was increasing although he did note that the failure rates of small enterprises remained persistently high. Birch did state, however, that the rate of foundation of new small enterprises was more than

sufficient to compensate for this high failure rate. In more recent research Goss (1991), Hendry (1995), Matlay (1997), and Murphy (1996) have noted the continuing increase in importance of smaller firms in western economies, both in terms of their significant contribution to employment and their role in preventing the emergence of monopolies by serving niche markets. This was also supported by a recent report prepared by the European Observatory of SMES (2003) which noted that two thirds of all jobs in the European Union were provided by SMEs. In line with these international trends, the numbers employed in Irish SMEs has also increased since the publication of the Bolton report (1971), while the number employed in larger firms has declined (Garavan, O’Cinnéide, Flemming, McCarthy and Downey, 1997). This was also illustrated by data contained in a report released by the Department of Enterprise Trade and Employment, (2006). This report estimated that 250,000 small businesses are currently operating in Ireland employing 800,000 people, which is 40% of the total Irish workforce.

### **2.2.2 How SMEs operate**

There is a considerable body of opinion in the literature which stresses the differences between SMEs and their larger counterparts. For instance Welsh and White (1981) found that the nature of the differences between small and large firms goes much deeper than the obvious size differences and relates to all aspects of the firms operation. Similarly, Jameson (2000) noted that small firms are not “microcosms” of larger ones and stated that attempts to simply apply previous research on the larger firm sector to the SME sector are inappropriate.

Previous research has suggested that SMEs tend to enjoy the ability to operate with considerably more flexibility than larger businesses (MacMahon, 1996; Matlay, 1999; Hill and Stewart, 2000; Kuratko, Goodale and Hornsby, 2001). Also, Hankinson, Bartlett and Ducheneaut (1997) found that a majority of SME owner/managers tended to favour a flexible and adaptable, informal organisation structure with few hierarchical levels as opposed to the rigid structure which is more typical of larger organisations. However, Hill and Stewart (2000) stated that, while the ability to operate in a flexible and informal manner is a prized asset of the SME, it may also be viewed as a reaction of the SME to the uncertainty of its environment. This flexibility may be partly attributed

to the willingness of SME employees to accept flexible working conditions as they are seen as being necessary for company survival (Marlow and Patton, 1993; Martin and Staines, 1994). However, McMahon and Murphy (1999) have noted the tendency of small organisations to become overly dependent on a single individual. This may lead to a lack of flexibility in decision making and adverse consequences for the organisation in the event of anything happening to that individual.

### **2.2.3 Human resource management in SMEs**

Despite the caveats offered in Section 2.2.2 concerning the differences between small and larger firms, much of the theory in the area of HRM relates to larger organisations rather than smaller ones (Matlay, 1999; Jameson, 2000). Kotey and Slade (2005) noted the dynamic nature of human resource practices as carried out within SMEs and they contended that the approach taken by the management of SMEs was strongly influenced by the size of the firm and tended to change over time, becoming increasingly formal as organisations increased in size.

Mc Evoy (1984) found that most small firms do not employ a personnel specialist. The responsibility for decision making in the area of human resource management is, therefore, placed solely upon the shoulders of the owner/manager. According to Marlow and Patton (1993) owner/managers in SMEs have greater latitude in applying the HRM methods of their choice than larger firms. This was supported by the findings of MacMahon, (1996) who noted that managers in small firms enjoyed the ability to employ informal human resource management methods in instances in which they deemed a rigid application of such formal HRM policies inappropriate. However, a lack of available resources and expertise are common factors affecting the formulation and implementation of human resource management policy for many SMEs (Hill and Stewart, 2000).

Jameson (2000) also found that an informal approach towards the management of human resources is the norm in SMEs and Duberly and Walley (1995) established that formal HR methods which are developed for use by larger organisations are unlikely to be used by SMEs without significant alteration to and adaptation of those methods. Recruitment and selection processes in small organisations also tend to be carried out on



a largely informal basis using methods such as employee recommendations. However, the use of such informal methods has created potential problems, according to McEvoy (1984) who noted that these informal recruitment methods sometimes led to the hiring of 'inappropriate' people. Conversely, Carroll, Marchington, Earnshaw, and Taylor (1999) found that when an existing employee recommends a new recruit, he or she will tend to socialise that employee personally which may lead to a reduction in staff turnover. It is also pertinent to note that small organisations frequently tend to be more willing to recruit people from a variety of backgrounds which may increase the heterogeneous make up of those entering the organisational (Curran and Stanworth, 1979).

Bacon, Ackers, Storey and Coates (1996) concluded that human resource management practices in the small business sector were quite sophisticated. They found that small firms handled human resource management issues in ways which were appropriate and effective. This was consistent with Kinnie, Purcell, Hutchinson, Terry, Collinson, and Scarbrough (1999) who noted that SMEs modified human resource management in ways that encouraged and rewarded employee flexibility. Conversely, Bacon, Ackers, Storey and Coates (1996) found that small firms may have difficulty adopting new approaches to human resource management as they are frequently unaware of developments in other companies. Also Patton and Marlow (2002) questioned the effectiveness of the human resource management methods employed in small organisations. Because of these problems in human resource management methods, some SMEs may find it difficult to adapt to rapidly changing circumstances in their operating environments. One such change of circumstance is the entrance of significant numbers of non-Irish-nationals into the Irish labour market which has occurred in recent years. According to Niehoff and Maciocha (2007) this change in the composition of the available workforce has made human resource management tasks such as recruitment, training and socialisation of employees more complex and challenging for Irish organisations.

#### **2.2.4 Training in SMEs**

Matlay (1997) contended that the issue of training in smaller firms has been, to an extent, neglected by academic researchers and practitioners, who, he suggested, were "content to

suggest solutions which were more relevant to the business strategies of larger firms” (p. 578). Therefore, training and development of staff in smaller firms may be a strikingly different activity from that observed in their larger counterparts. For example, Devins and Johnson (2004) found that:

“Human resource development practices in the small organisation are revealed as largely unplanned and reactive, accompanied by informal on the job training activity and led by someone other than a HRD officer or expert” (p. 3).

Many small firms devote quite limited attention to training, and it is generally unplanned and informal, and methods are usually implemented with the aim of meeting purely short-term aims (Vickerstaff and Parker, 1995; Tregaskis and Brewster, 1998; Hill and Stewart, 2000; Kotey and Sheridan, 2004; Birdthistle, 2006). Patton and Marlow (2002) also described the training processes in SMEs as somewhat disorganized. They said:

“Training in SMEs is a diffuse process and occurs throughout the organisation as individuals observe, imitate and learn from others on a fragmented and flexible basis” (p. 261).

Such a reliance on informal, unsophisticated training methods is common in organisations which possess weak internal labour markets and which have low skill requirements and limited training and promotion opportunities (Jameson, 2000). Matlay (2002) also reached the conclusion that individuals working in small firms were less likely to receive formal, externally provided training than those employed in larger organisations. Consistent with this, a report on competence development in SMEs published by the Observatory of European SMEs (2003) found that SME involvement in formal/non-formal competence development methods is correlated with the size of enterprises. Other previous research has found that while the provision of employee training was frequently limited, management development was afforded even less attention (Marlow and Patton, 1993; Kotey and Slade, 2005; Thorpe, Anderson, and

Gold, 2006). According to a report by the European Commission (2003), managers of small businesses sometimes failed to engage in training for themselves because the limited amount of information available to them meant that they encountered difficulty in diagnosing their own training needs. Conversely, Loan-Clarke, Boocock, Smith and Whittaker (2000) found that take up of management training was relatively widespread among owner/managers of SMEs. The importance of management development was illustrated by Martin and Staines (1994) who described the role of the owner/manager as crucial in avoiding business failure and noted that the education and training of this person were particularly important. Also Vinten (2000) informed that owner/managers who have received training in human resource management are more likely to invest in training for their staff. Bacon, Ackers, Storey and Coates (1996) found that relatively sophisticated staff training methods, such as the provision of induction packs and the use of outside trainers, were utilised by many small firms. The training offered by SMEs is also quite effective (Westhead and Storey, 1999; Kinnie, Purcell, Hutchinson, Terry, Collinson, and Scarbrough, 1999; and Rigg and Trehan, 2002). Finally, it is also worth noting that Westhead and Storey (1999) stated that the quality of the training provided by SMEs was equal to the training provided by larger firms.

There are several barriers to effective training in smaller organisations (Westhead and Storey, 1997; Matlay, 1999; Lange, Ottens and Taylor, 2000). Matlay found these barriers to be time constraints, the cost implications of training and the lack of internal trainers. Lange, Ottens and Taylor (2000) stated that cultural, financial, and awareness barriers could potentially inhibit the provision of employee training in SMEs. They also asserted that the horizontal structure of SMEs was also a possible barrier to training: More hierarchical organisations tended to require employees to specialise in a particular role and become highly skilled in that role. By contrast, SMEs generally require more broadly skilled employees who may require less training.

### **2.2.5 The role of the owner/manager in determining HRM policies in SMEs**

The Bolton Committee (1971) reported that small firms are managed by owners or part owners in a personalised way and not through the medium of a formalised management structure. Consistent with this, previous research has found that, in small firms in general, the organisation was usually under the control of a single individual who made all decisions relevant to human resource management (Marlow and Patton, 1993; Matlay, 1999). Hill and Stewart (2000) also noted the importance of the owner/manager and found that SME owner/managers are typically positioned closer to the workforce, in both a metaphorical and a literal sense, and are therefore better able to control and monitor activities in his or her organisation. Consequently, the particular characteristics of an owner manager and his/her attitudes towards human resource policy in general may play a significant part in determining an organisation's approach to the management of its employees (Kets De-Vries and Miller, 1986; Martin and Staines, 1994; Vinten, 2000; Coetzer, 2006). It should be noted, however that Westhead and Storey (1997) questioned the willingness of owner/managers to invest in formal training and development as they noted that many owner/managers were sceptical of its worth to the organisation. This lack of investment in formal training is particularly evident in the early stages of organisational development (Kotey and Sheridan, 2004).

### **2.3 Organisational Culture**

According to Van Maanen and Schein (1979), organisational socialisation is, primarily, a "cultural matter", meaning that organisational socialisation illustrates the progress of organisational entrants as they attempt to integrate into the culture of a particular organisation. Therefore, in order to fully understand the nature of organisational socialisation processes, it is first necessary to examine the concept of organisational culture.

Informal networks of relationships and communication exist in parallel with the formal structure of an organisation (Ghiselli and Brown, 1955; Porter, Lawler, and Hackman,

1975, Lincoln and Miller, 1979). These informal relationships may be hidden to an outsider and may contribute to the development of the culture unique to each organisation. Harrison (1972) used the term organisational ‘character’ to describe the social workings of an organisation. Similarly, Louis (1980) stated that an organisation is more than simply a collection of jobs, it may be said to possess a ‘personality’ which is unique to that organisation. Schein (1984) suggested that the concept of organisational culture is best thought of as a set of ‘basic assumptions’ contained within the minds of the members of the group. He defined it thus:

“Organisational culture is the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered or developed in learning to cope with the problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (p. 2).

Certain behaviours are ‘manifestations’ of culture and Schein proposed that these may be observed at three levels. At the shallowest level are artefacts or symbols comprising language or jargon used, as well as dress adopted. Influential individuals deemed to be role models occupy the second cultural level. Thirdly, beliefs held at the deepest levels form the base of a particular culture but as they may be held unconsciously, observation is rendered extremely difficult for an outsider. Similarly, Hofstede (2001) has depicted four layers of organisational culture with values placed in the core of the circles. This diagram is shown in Fig.2.1.

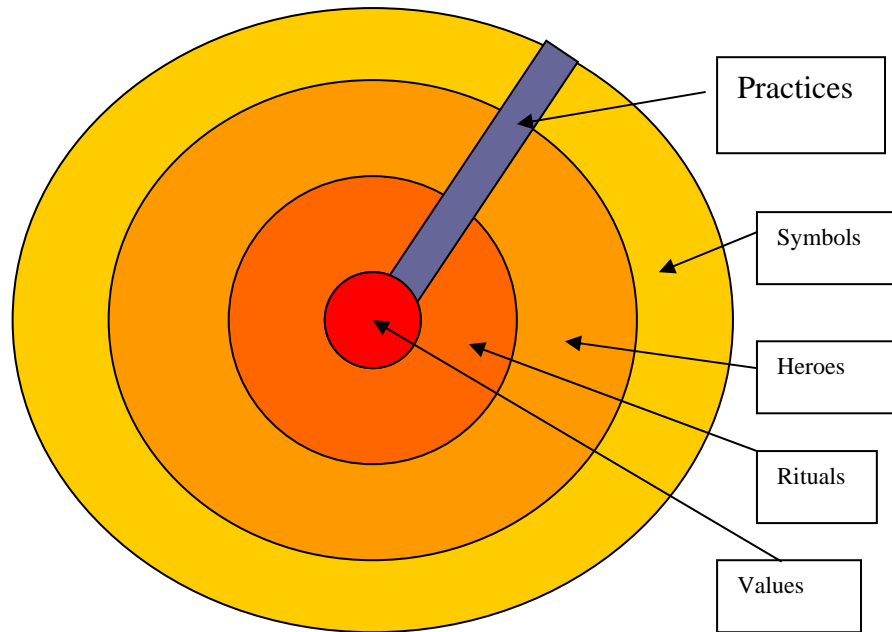


Fig. 2.1 Manifestations of culture at different levels of depth in an organisation (Source: Hofstede, 1997, p. 9)

According to Van-Maanen and Schein (1979) any given group will tend to develop its own set of shared values over time. These values of organisational members are quite subtle and may be invisible to an external observer. This ‘mental programming’ of members of the group is determined by an individual’s experiences and surroundings; it is partly unique and partly shared by others (Hofstede, 2001). Fox and Tan (1997) identified four elements which are common to all cultures. Firstly that it is stable and resistant to change. Secondly, it is taken for granted and held unconsciously, thirdly, it derives its meaning from organisational members and fourthly it incorporates sets of shared understandings.

Organisational culture is a concept that has received a considerable amount of academic attention for example Pettigrew (1979), Schein (1983; 1984; 1996), Brown (1998) and Helms and Stern (2001). According to Pettigrew (1979), the concept of organisational culture has a particular value in adding some colour to organisational life as well as allowing the entrepreneur to infuse the organisation with “energy, purpose, and commitment” (p. 580). Similarly, Schein (1984) has stated that the culture of an organisation serves to bind the group of people within an organisation together forming

a type of “miniature society” (Brown, 1998). However, the “society” within an organisation should not be regarded as a single cohesive entity; rather it may contain subgroups formed by the differing perceptions of people working at different levels of the organisation as well as their demographic backgrounds (Helms and Stern, 2001). The nature of the culture in a particular organisation will play a significant role in determining many of the actions taken within that organisation (Pettigrew, 1979; Brown, 1998). Organisational culture is created by information from a variety of sources, for example Kirk (1998) asserted that it may be seen as reflecting “external and internal experiences and historic as well as recent influences” (p. 89). It is determined by internal organisational variables such as structure, the organisations history, or the personality, qualifications and vision of its founder and also by external factors (Schein, 1985; Hancock and Tyler, 2001).

### **2.3.1 The influence of national culture on organisational culture**

Hofstede (1997) cautioned that the use of the same words to describe both national and organisational cultures may imply that both types of culture are identical. This is incorrect; rather, they are very different types of cultures and the values of the national culture are far more deeply ingrained in its members than the values of an organisational culture. However, national culture is important in the context of the present study as organisational cultures are, to an extent, derived from the national culture or ‘parent culture’ in which they operate (Schein, 1985; Williams, Dobson, and Walters, 1993; Hofstede, 1997). According to Tayeb (1996) the extent to which national culture influences an organisation’s culture depends on the degree of internationalisation of that firm. For instance a domestic firm with no foreign interests was likely to be strongly influenced by the national culture surrounding it. Tayeb (1996) also contended that the particular values, attitudes, behaviours, and values of a national culture are carried unwittingly by entrants into an organisation. Although Morgan (1997) has noted that modern societies have many similarities, their differences should not be dismissed lightly, nor should the consequences of these differing attitudes on the formation of organisational cultures. A well known analysis of national culture has been conducted by Hofstede (2001). Hofstede concluded that there are five distinct dimensions of culture. Individualism vs. Collectivism, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Masculinity vs. Femininity, and Long term vs. Short term. These dimensions

encapsulate certain characteristics of cultures that Hofstede considered most important. For instance, societies that are disposed toward collectivism as opposed to individualism display higher levels of group cooperation. It should be noted, however, that groups strongly inclined toward any particular dimension may not be compatible with each other. Hofstede's (2001) seminal work on cultures, though influential, has been criticised by authors such as McSweeney (2002) and Trompenaars (2003). McSweeney questioned the validity of some of Hofstede's findings, pointing out that though the overall sample size had been extremely large, some regions surveyed relied on quite small numbers of respondents. For instance, the surveys performed in some regions, including Ireland, relied on fewer than two hundred respondents. Also, he stated that Hofstede failed to sufficiently allow for the occurrence of heterogeneity within cultures, for example Britain is treated as a single entity despite the fact that it is composed of three nations, namely England, Scotland and Wales. Trompenaars (2003) criticised Hofstede's basic assumption that cultures could be plotted on a linear scale, calling it unrealistic and over simplistic. Adler (1996) stated that many managers operate under the mistaken assumption that their organisation's culture will be strong enough to suppress any influences of national culture that culturally different outsiders may bring with them. In fact, the opposite may happen and employees may cling strongly to their national culture in an attempt to resist the pressures to conform. See Section 2.5.2.1 to read more details about the outcomes of the socialisation process for culturally diverse entrants.

### **2.3.2 The influence of the owner/manager on organisational culture**

In a small firm context, the owner/manager has the potential to exert a significant influence on the culture present in his or her organisation (Pettigrew, 1979; Schein, 1983; Storey and Sykes, 1996; Swe and Kleiner, 1998; Matlay, 1999; Hill and Stewart, 2000; Sadri and Lees, 2001). The founder of a small organisation has a particularly strong influence on the culture within that firm. Such may be the influence of that person that his or her vision may continue to set the direction of the organisation long after he or she has departed (Williams, Dobson, and Walters, 1993). However, research carried out by Hendry, Arthur and Jones (1995), indicated that many small firms find the task of shaping culture within the organisation a greater challenge than operational issues. Consistent with this contention, Morgan (1997) stated that organisational culture



is not something that can be consciously made or designed; it is influenced to only a small degree by management. However, Kets-De-Vries and Miller (1986) have noted that the personality of the leader within a small organisation can become excessively influential. This excessive power is particularly prevalent in organisations with a homogenous workforce and may result in a lack of flexibility in decision making.

### **2.3.3 Diagnosing organisational culture**

Organisational cultures vary significantly from one organisation to another and several authors have investigated the differences between cultures. Harrison (1972) Handy (1985) and Hofstede (1997) have grouped organisational cultures according to what they perceived as their salient features, and applied descriptive labels to the various types they identified. For instance, Harrison (1972) identified the power, bureaucratic, task and person cultures. Among these, the power culture is of the greatest relevance to the present study. This is a culture where power is concentrated in the hands of a few people, or even a single individual. Small firms are often managed by a single individual meaning that SMEs may be categorised as power cultures (Marlow and Patton, 1993) Attempting to diagnose an organisation's culture with any confidence is a complex process requiring a series of tests and thorough investigation (Goffree and Jones, 1988). Wallach (1983), however, questioned the validity of attempting to categorise organisational cultures.

According to Van Maanen (1984) each organisational culture is different and therefore the variation in their requirements and expectations of entrants has implications for the socialisation process. Because of this, individuals have to be socialised again every time he or she leaves one organisation and enters another. The entrant's previous socialisation experiences may be entirely useless in the new organisational context and possibly even damaging (Van Maanen, 1984).

Schein (1983) identified two broad types of organisational culture in small firms; personalised cultures and formalised cultures. Firstly, a personalised culture in small firm may be created by a founder or owner/manager. The management style in this culture is hands on and goal centred and the personal dominance of the owner/manager is pronounced in this type of culture. Secondly, formalised cultures, which are

characterised by consultation and teamwork, though Schein noted that these are far less common in small firms and the personalised culture is, therefore the prevalent form of organisational culture observed in small firms (Brown, 1998). Therefore, the owner/manager's adoption of a particular management style, whether conscious or otherwise, is key in the determination of organisational culture (Zimmerer and Scarborough, 1998; Haugh and McKee, 2004). This illustrates once more, the considerable power of the owner/manager within the context of the small firm.

## **2.4 Organisational Socialisation**

Organisations have two basic tools at their disposal for handling the task of gaining and integrating suitable new members of their workforces. Recruitment and selection processes and organisational socialisation processes. Organisations may opt to place significantly more emphasis on either one of these tools than the other or attempt to employ both in a complimentary fashion. See also Section 2.4.2.4 to read more about recruitment and socialisation. According to Wanous (1980) recruitment and selection processes can supply an organisation with newcomers who are qualified for the job and training can remedy any shortcomings they may have in terms of skills. However, in order to integrate them and ensure that they perform to an acceptable level, the organisation must socialise the organisational entrants (Wanous, 1980). Individuals tend to be flexible in nature and will adapt to fit in with many different groups and situations throughout their lives (Brim and Wheeler, 1966). According to Bandura (1977) people, particularly in childhood, learn by observing and copying others who act as role models for the 'correct' behaviour which should be adopted in a particular context. However, this continues into adulthood and so forms part of the basis of the socialisation of organisational entrants. Hofstede (2001) encapsulated the fundamental principles of the socialisation process in the following statement:

“Societies, organisations and groups have ways of conserving and passing on mental programmes from generation to generation with an obstinacy that is often underestimated” (p. 3).

Organisation socialisation has received a considerable amount of academic attention for example, Schein (1971), Van-Maanen (1978), Van-Maanen and Schein (1979), Feldman (1976), Ards, Jansen and Van der Velde (2001), and Menguc, Han and Auh, (2007). The work of Schein (1971) and Van-Maanen (1978) has had a strong influence on subsequent socialisation research. In particular, the seminal work of Van-Maanen and Schein (1979) produced a comprehensive model of socialisation tactics and their outcomes which continues to remain influential in organisational socialisation research. More recently, Menguc, Han and Auh, (2007) outlined two perspectives on organisational socialisation in the literature. The first such perspective is the organisation led socialisation processes involving the use of specific socialisation tactics which are intended to lead to specific outcomes while the second relates to the newcomers' proactive socialisation efforts. A third perspective relates to a combination of the two called the 'interactionist perspective' which has been investigated by researchers such as Reichers (1987) and Griffin, Collella and Goperaju (2000). Porter, Lawler, and Hackman (1975) have used the analogy of a late arrival at a party to describe a new employee entering an organisation and attempting to make sense of the myriad of relationships which have built up within it to describe organisational socialisation. According to Louis (1980), the individual entering an unfamiliar organisation may experience a certain degree of stress and 'uncertainty' upon his or her entry to that organisation. To effectively adapt to the new surroundings and become a useful member of the organisation, the entrant must absorb and retain as much information concerning acceptable behaviour as possible during this period as well as shedding any values or practices considered unacceptable (Brown, 1998). As Harrison (1972) has noted, organisational cultures are not uniform. Organisations will, therefore, wish to encourage different standards in certain areas including adequate work performance, familiarity in everyday social interactions at work, dress and appearance, and social activities after work (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004). In short, organisational socialisation is a matter of the newcomers 'learning' the organisations' culture (Van-Maanen and Schein, 1979). Schein (1968) referred to the socialisation process simply as one of 'learning the ropes.' A more technical definition was provided by Hauter, Hoff-Macan and Winter (2003). They stated that

“organisational socialisation is the process by which employees acquire knowledge about and adjust to new jobs, roles, work

groups and the culture of an organisation in order to participate successfully as an organisational member” (p. 21).

Schein’s (1971) seminal work visualised all ‘movement’ or progression within an organisation as occurring in a three dimensional model. This model of organisational progression serves as an effective illustration of the socialisation process. The three possible movements depicted in this model were vertical, circumferential, and, radial. (see Figure 2.2). The vertical movement relates to an employee’s progression either up or down the hierarchy of an organisation, circumferential movement relates to an employee’s change in role within the organisation. Finally, radial movement relates to an employee’s degree of ‘inclusion’ in the organisation and illustrates the degree of success of his or her socialisation. Socialisation may, therefore, occur several times within an organisation as an entrant changes roles or jobs but the most important occasion is upon the newcomer’s entry to the organisation (Chao, O’Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein and Gardener, 1994).

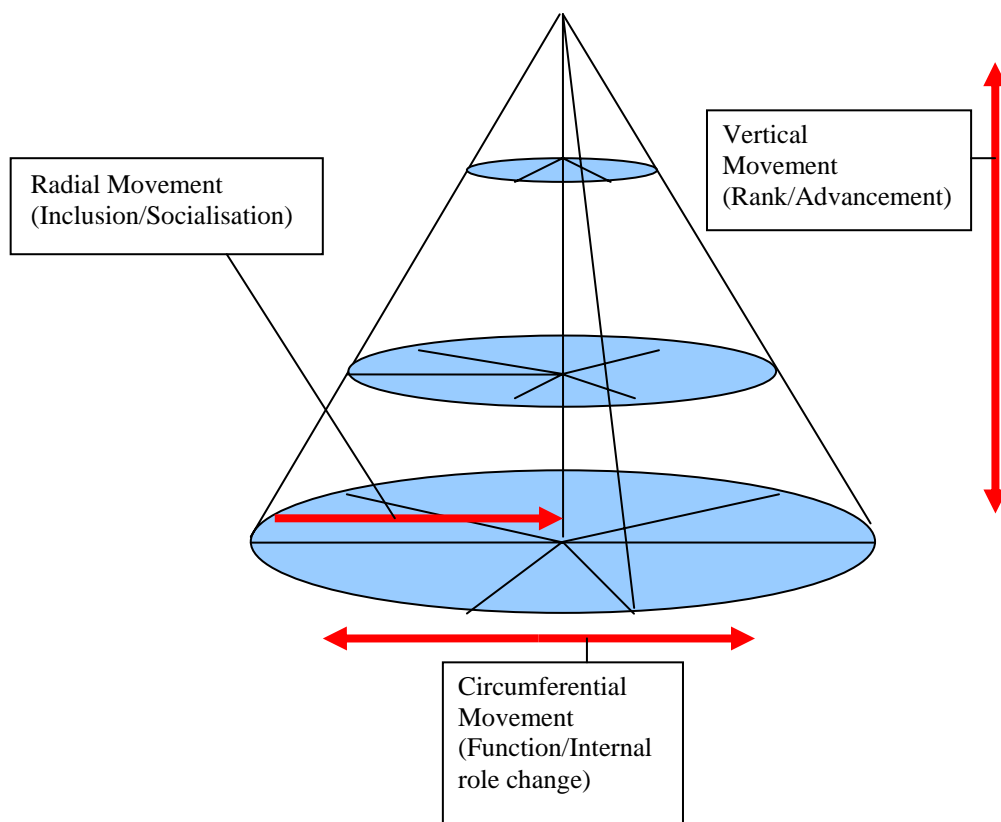


Fig. 2.2 Movement within an organisation (Source: Adapted from Schein, 1971, p. 404)

#### **2.4.1 The importance of organisational socialisation**

Buchanan and Huczynski, (2004), regarded organisational socialisation as a process which managers frequently have difficulty in fully controlling. However, Bigliardi, Petroni and Ivo-Dormio (2005) have recently suggested that organisational socialisation is a process which can be brought totally under the control of management. This was supported by Saks, Uggerslev and Fassina (2006) who contended that ‘astute’ managers can control the socialisation of newcomers by using certain methods to exert an influence on that person’s behaviour.

However, according to Louis (1980) organisations and organisational entrants do not always appreciate the requirement for effective organisational socialisation of entrants. Similarly Van Maanen (1978) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979) stated that many organisations adopt a ‘laissez faire’ approach to the socialisation of their new recruits allowing it to occur without significant interference. Consistent with this, Louis, Posner and Powell (1983) found that organisations vary in the importance they attach to socialisation, sometimes investing substantially in it, sometimes paying scant attention to the process. This may occur because many organisations fail to recognise that socialisation has the potential to create ‘numerous long lasting effects’ in the relationship between newcomers and organisations (Kwesiga and Bell, 2004). Some organisations, however, prefer not to leave the process to chance and utilise planned interventions. To this end some organisations use formal employee induction programmes, although Buchanan and Huczynski (2004) and Mujitba and Sims (2006) questioned the effectiveness of these programmes. Buchanan and Huczynski described them as frequently brief and superficial, concentrating mainly on mundane matters such as health and safety regulations.

#### **2.4.2 Organisation driven socialisation**

The first way of viewing the organisational socialisation process is to examine the tactics employed by organisations to socialise newcomers. This perspective regards entrants as essentially ‘passive’, reacting to the process but making no significant contribution to it (Gruman, Saks, and Zweig, 2006). However, Morrison (1993) points

out a flaw in view of organisational socialisation, it assumes that the entrant is passive without any meaningful contribution to make to the socialisation process which may not necessarily be the case.

#### **2.4.2.1 Organisational socialisation tactics**

According to Van Maanen (1978), organisational socialisation tactics refer to the various methods which management may employ to influence a newcomer's behaviours so that it becomes consistent with organisational requirements. These tactics may be selected by an organisation's management and may take the form of formal training sessions or induction programmes prior to an entrant's assumption of a particular role. An extremely important study on organisational socialisation was conducted by Van Maanen and Schein (1979). This seminal work outlined a number of socialisation tactics that managers of an organisation could employ to direct the socialisation process which they asserted could be used in any organisational context. They found that six possible socialisation tactics were at the disposal of management and placed each on a bipolar continuum. It should be noted that tactics may be implemented consciously or unconsciously and can occur simultaneously. The tactics were: 1) collective vs. individual processes 2) formal vs. informal processes 3) sequential vs. random steps in the socialisation process 4) fixed vs. variable socialisation processes 5) serial vs. disjunctive socialisation processes 6) investiture vs. divestiture socialisation processes. Saks and Ashforth (1997) have since emphasised the importance of this seminal model, calling it "probably the closest thing in the literature to a testable theory of organizational socialisation" (p. 236). Subsequent researchers, such as Jones (1986) added further layers of depth to Van Maanen and Schein's work. Jones grouped the six tactics into two distinct sets, institutionalised and individualised socialisation tactics. These tactics are presented in Table 2.1

Tactics mainly concerned with	Institutionalised tactics	Individualised tactics
Context	Collective processes	Individual processes
	Formal processes	Informal processes
Content	Sequential processes	Random processes
	Fixed processes	Variable processes
Social Aspects	Serial processes	Disjunctive processes
	Divestiture processes	Investiture processes

Table 2.1 Socialisation tactics (Source: Jones, 1986, p. 263)

Institutionalised tactics represent a structured socialisation process formulated and implemented for the entering individual by the organisation (Jones 1986). On the other hand, individualised socialisation tactics may not receive the same level of attention from management and may represent a more ‘laissez-faire’ type of approach to the socialisation process by management (Ashford and Saks, 1996; Saks, Uggerslev, and Fassina, 2006). Individualised tactics are particularly powerful socialisation tools according to Jones (1986) and are also eminently suitable for use by smaller organisations (Ashforth, Saks, and Lee, 1998). The organisational socialisation process is often informal, rather than a planned programme of instruction and many organisations utilise mainly informal socialisation methods with formal in depth introductory training methods used for only certain ‘categories’ of entrant (Mujitba and Sims, 2006). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) also identified what they found to be the probable outcomes associated with the use of the various tactics and contended that the outcomes were, to an extent, predictable. These outcomes ranged from an ‘innovative’ response, in which the entrant attempted to exert his or her own influence on the organisation to a ‘custodial’ response in which the entrant accepts his or her role unquestioningly (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979).

#### 2.4.2.2 Proactive socialisation

While the input of the newcomer in the socialisation process has sometimes been ignored or classified as reactive in the literature, it nevertheless constitutes an important component of the process (Morrison, 1993). Organisations may provide entrants with

information upon entry but providing an entrant with all the information that he or she may require is a difficult task (Feldman, 1976). Therefore entrants may have to seek supplementary information themselves through whatever means are available (Miller and Jablin, 1991; Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1992). According to Ashforth, Sluss, and Saks (2007) this is termed 'proactive socialisation'. Griffin, Collella and Gopara (2000) stated that an entrant is likely to engage in 'proactive' socialisation when he or she finds that the levels of information and assistance provided by the organisation are not sufficient to allow him or her to adjust to the new environment. A newcomer who has gone through an individualised socialisation process is quite likely to seek supplementary information as such processes frequently provide less information to entrants than institutionalised processes (Grumman, Saks and Zweg, 2006). One such method of proactive socialisation available to newcomers is to seek assistance from peers. A considerable body of previous research has determined that assistance from peers, or agents of socialisation, is of vital importance to a successful conclusion of the socialisation process (Schein, 1968; Buchanan, 1974; Louis, Posner, and Powell, 1983; Jones, 1983; Miller and Jablin, 1991; Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1992; Allen, McManus, and Russell, 1999; Anakwe and Greenhaus, 1999; Cable, Aiman-Smith, Mulvey and Edwards, 2000; Filstad, 2004). The agents of socialisation are the entrants' fellow employees, both experienced and newcomers, and the owner/manager or immediate supervisor. Individuals from outside the organisation such as an entrant's friends or family are also agents of socialisation though they are far less influential (Cable, Aiman-Smith, Mulvey and Edwards, 2000).

According to Ostroff and Koslowki (1992), there are six sources of information available to a newcomer, mentoring from employees at a higher level on an informal basis, supervisors, co-workers, observation, trial and error, and manuals provided by the organisation. The newcomers must select the most appropriate source of information and Louis, Posner and Powell (1983) suggested that direct supervisors and experienced co-workers are the most appropriate, rather than other newcomers. According to Filstad (2004), newcomers tend to rely on a number of established employees to act as role models rather than just one. His or her choice of role models is crucial in determining the eventual outcome of the socialisation process. The quality of the entrant's interaction with established organisational members in the first year of his or her employment is particularly important (Buchanan, 1974).



Newcomers search for two basic types of information simultaneously, task related information to assist with role adaptation and social information to facilitate social integration (Miller and Jablin, 1991; Morrison 1993). The newcomer may gain information through observation or through directly asking experienced employees for information, although it should be noted that there is a certain ‘social cost’ attached to the latter option. Miller and Jablin (1991) have noted that entrants sometimes fear rejection or appearing ignorant and this may discourage entrants from proactively seeking required information. There is also a second drawback to seeking assistance in this way. The quality of information transferred in this circumstance as well as the agent’s ability to transfer such knowledge varies widely as experienced employees and supervisors take their knowledge so much for granted that they find it difficult to transfer that knowledge in a form likely to be useful to newcomers (Jones, 1983). Previous research has found that results of proactive socialisation processes tended to be more successful than those in which the entrant played a passive role (Reichers, 1987; Cooper-Thomas and Anderson, 2002; Ashforth, Sluss, and Saks, 2007). Proactive socialisation was also shown to be beneficial for ‘culturally dissimilar’ employees by Fu, Shaffer and Harrison (2005). However, it has also been suggested that organisations should not rely excessively on proactive socialisation as the entrant may not choose to engage in this practice at all (Hsiung and Hseih, 2003; Menguc, Han, and Auh, 2007).

#### **2.4.2.3 An interactionist perspective on socialisation**

A considerable body of research suggests that organisation led or proactive socialisation do not occur in isolation but that both occur simultaneously and influence each other. Therefore several authors have adopted a compromise perspective which looks at how newcomers’ proactive socialisation efforts interact with the organisation’s own efforts to socialise employees (Porter, Lawler, and Hackman, 1975; Griffin, Collella, and Goparaju, 2000; Cini, 2001; Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004).

Porter, Lawler, and Hackman (1975) examined how the entering individual exerts some degree of influence on the organisation, terming this process ‘individualisation’. Similarly, Cini (2001) stated that every newcomer to an organisation will change the

culture of the group to some extent and the established members may find his or her arrival quite disruptive. Conversely, the entry of new employees may have a beneficial effect on the organisation by bringing fresh perspectives to bear on issues (Sutton and Louis, 1987). Indeed, Sutton and Louis suggest that the very act of selecting and socialising newcomers forces insiders to cast a critical eye over their organisation as they interview and induct the newcomer. Therefore, managers should be aware of the recruits' potential to contribute to the socialisation process and attempt to facilitate this (Griffin, Collella and Goparaju, 2000). Griffin et al. stressed the requirement for organisations to implement flexible socialisation methods as socialisation processes of excessive rigidity could prevent an entrant from using proactive socialisation tactics such as 'information seeking'.

As outlined in section 2.4.2.2, the entrant may proactively draw upon the experience and expertise of established members of the organisation during the socialisation process. Organisations can, however, influence this process. For example, they can attempt to select the individuals who will serve as role models by appointing particular employees to this role (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004). Organisations may also train and prepare established employees to assist newcomers (Anakwe and Greenhaus, 1999; Cooper-Thomas and Anderson, 2000). The acculturation strategy chosen by culturally diverse entrants affects the outcomes of the organisational socialisation process. Assimilation and pluralistic strategies may increase the chances of successful socialisation while separation and deculturation may decrease it (McMilan and Lopez, 2001; Lopez and McMilan-Capehart, 2003). See Section 2.5.2 to read more about the socialisation of culturally diverse entrants.

#### **2.4.2.4 Recruitment and selection and organisational socialisation**

There is some debate within the literature concerning the relative importance of the tactics of recruitment and socialisation to organisations as they attempt to incorporate suitable newcomers into their workforces. One perspective in the literature finds that a well designed selection process can reduce the need to devote considerable efforts to the socialisation process (Chatman, 1991; Rodan, 2005). According to Williams, Dobson, and Walters (1993) an organisation may attempt to preserve the cohesion of its organisational culture by devoting significant levels of attention to recruitment and

selection process. By doing this, the organisation is engaging in ‘boundary maintenance’ and permitting entry only to those deemed compatible with the existing organisational culture (Williams, Dobson, and Walters, 1993). Also, Dubinsky, Howell, Ingram and Bellinger (1986) found that recruitment processes can be more important than socialisation processes as it would generally be unfeasible for organisations to implement a unique socialisation process for each new recruit. This necessitates devoting greater attention to recruitment and selection. Similarly, other authors have suggested that if the entering individual finds that he or she is incompatible with the organisation and its values and requirements he or she may decide to leave the organisation of his or her own volition thereby reducing the importance of socialisation (Porter, Lawler, and Hackman, 1975; Cable and Judge, 1996; Brown, 1998). In short, the organisation attracts likeminded people, socialises those who differ and disposes of those who cannot adapt resulting in a homogenous workgroup (Ashforth, 1985).

The opposing view within the literature finds that socialisation remains the primary method for achieving a match between the attitudes and values of the entrant and those of the organisation (Feldman, 1976; Lopez and Mc-Milan-Capehart 2003; Becker and Connor, 2005). Socialisation is particularly important for employees at the lower levels of an organisation, as less emphasis is placed on their recruitment, increasing the necessity for effective socialisation processes (Feldman, 1976). A third view of this issue within the literature suggests that a compromise strategy is possible. For example, Schein (1968) advocated a complimentary relationship between recruitment and selection and socialisation. Similarly, Baker and Feldman (1991) suggested that both recruitment and selection and organisational socialisation processes should be used simultaneously.

### **2.4.3 Outcomes of socialisation processes**

According to Van Maanen and Schein (1979) the outcomes of socialisation tactics are, to an extent, predictable. Jones (1986) concurred with this, finding that particular tactics tended to lead to particular results. For instance, he contended that institutionalised tactics would be likely to lead to the entrant’s unquestioning acceptance of the organisational norms and values. Individualised tactics, on the other hand, would

be likely to result in an innovative response in which the entrant attempted to change the conditions of his or her employment.

Jones' (1986) study was subsequently replicated by Allen and Meyer (1990) who performed a longitudinal study to assess the outcomes of a socialisation process. Allen and Meyer found that institutionalised tactics tended to result in custodial role orientations and individualised tactics led to innovative role orientations. Their findings were, therefore, largely consistent with those of Jones (1986) as well as Van-Maanen and Schein (1979). Several authors have subsequently drawn upon the work of Van-Maanen and Schein (1979) and Jones (1986) to examine the effectiveness of socialisation tactics in different contexts (Arbeits, Jansen and Van Der Velde, 2001; Cooper-Thomas and Anderson, 2002). Cooper-Thomas and Anderson found that institutionalised socialisation tactics were appropriate in large, highly formalised organisations. Finally, Arbeits, Jansen and Van Der Velde (2001), found that organisations which employed a carefully selected balance of individualised and institutionalised socialisation tactics could achieve the most favourable socialisation results.

According to Schein (1968) the shared values of an organisational culture may be divided into two types; pivotal norms and relevant norms. Pivotal norms are the most basic ones in any organisation and relate to such issues as a profit motive for a business enterprise. Relevant norms include behaviour at work. It is essential for the operation of any business that entrants adopt the pivotal norms (Schein, 1968). Wanous (1980) illustrated the role orientation of a newcomer after socialisation and his or her acceptance or rejection of the pivotal and relevant norms. The resulting attitudes of the newcomer which result from his or her interaction with the organisation range from rebel to conformist (see Figure 2.3).

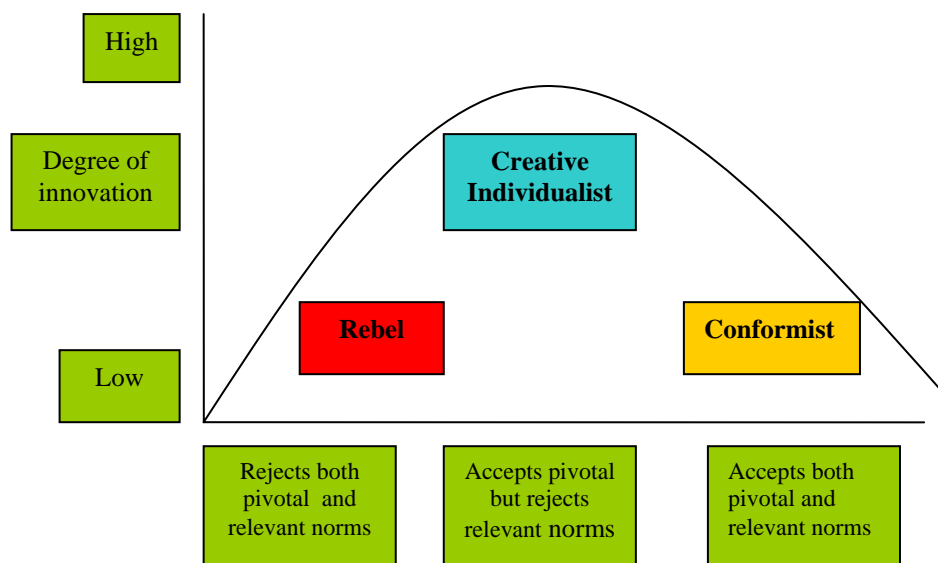


Fig. 2.3 Relationship between matches and innovation

(Source: Wanous, 1980, p. 194)

Wanous (1980) noted that any organisation is likely to contain employees of all three types, rebel, creative individualist and conformist with the majority being conformists.

The rate of turnover experienced by newcomers to an organisation serves as an indication of the success or otherwise of their socialisation (Jones 1986; Cable and Judge, 1996). High turnover rates also hinder the formation and maintenance of organisational culture as such high rates may simply not permit the culture to form (Schein, 1985). The entrance of a culturally different group to an organisation can be disruptive to an organisation and, if their socialisation is unsuccessful, it may result in an overall increase in the staff turnover of an organisation (O'Reilly III, Caldwell and Barnett, 1989; Jackson, Brett, Sessa, Cooper, Julin, and Peyronin, 1991). The organisation may attempt to influence this by assisting the entrants' adaptation process and effective socialisation programmes may assist in reducing turnover rates among employees of diverse cultural origin (Lueke, Svyantek, 2000; Hang-Yue, Foley, and Loi, 2006). However, Taris and Feij (2004) have cautioned that the fact that an employee has left the organisation does not necessarily indicate a failure of socialisation or an inability to perform the job. He or she may simply have decided to move to a

different job. The lack of any attempt by an entrant to achieve some form of progression within the organisation may also indicate a failed socialisation process (Taris and Feij, 2004). Niehoff and Maciocha (2007) and Quinn (2007) found that many employees of diverse cultural origin employed by Irish firms have expressed a strong desire to achieve progression in their places of employment, if they had not done so already, but Quinn also noted that they would probably leave their current jobs if such advancement proved impossible.

#### **2.4.3.1 Social integration**

According to Chao, O’Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, and Gardener (1994) there are several aspects to an entrant’s adjustment to an organisation and role adaptation is just one of these. They found that entrants must also familiarise themselves with the people in a work group as well as the internal politics and language of that organisation. According to Williams, Dobson, and Walters (1993) the pressure to fit in with an organisational group which is frequently exerted on a newcomer is intense and those who fail to fit in may find themselves ostracised. In short, entrants must integrate with the established workforce in order to become a useful member of the group. However, the task of learning the ‘unwritten rules’ and norms of a given group in order to integrate socially with that group may be extremely difficult for culturally diverse entrants (Cox, 1994).

The requirement to establish relationships with organisational members is particularly crucial if an entrant is to integrate socially with the experienced members of the group. An entrant’s involvement in ‘non-mandatory’ work related activities such as company organised social events can be conducive to successful integration on a social level and can also lead to improved performance (Louis, Posner and Powell, 1983; Sadri and Lees, 2000). Trice and Beyer (1984) said that social events held within organisations are examples of ‘rites of integration’ for employees. Gilbert and Ivancevich (2000) noted the importance of social events in developing informal networks. An employee’s attendance at such events may signal that he or she is becoming socialised into the organisation (Louis, Posner and Powell, 1983; Trice and Beyer, 1984; Brown, 1998). However, Kandola (2004) noted problems when social events were arranged for employees in a UK based organisation; employees of Asian origin, who did not drink, did not attend the social events. They therefore did not have the opportunity to engage

in social networking. This example provides an example of how socialisation tactics may have different and unanticipated effects when managers are dealing with employees of diverse cultural origin.

## **2.5 Intercultural contact**

Schein (1996) made a basic, and surprising, observation concerning contact between different cultures. He stated that, “the members of a culture are not even aware of their own culture until they encounter a different one” (p. 234). According to Hofstede (2001) contact between individuals from different cultures does not always occur without problems. Such problems are particularly likely when individuals from collectivist cultures interact with people from Western individualist cultures (Hofstede, 2001). According to Seelye and Seelye-James (1995), people from all cultures tend to possess parochial or ethnocentric attitudes, to some extent, in the sense that they view issues from a single, narrow perspective and exclude other points of view. Such parochialism is especially evident in English speaking countries (Adler, 1996). The dominant position of the English language in the world has meant that native English speakers have a less pressing need to learn a foreign language than those speaking other languages and this has decreased the ability of English speakers to adopt other perspectives (Hofstede, 2001). It is likely therefore, that the pressure to adapt to a new environment will be placed on the newcomer. The organisational entrant will go through a process called acculturation as he or she adjusts to the unfamiliar surroundings (Cox and Finlay-Nickelson, 1991).

According to Nahavandi and Malekzadeh (1988), the concept of acculturation was originally developed for the study of societal groups, though the concept can equally be applied to organisational groups. Cox and Finlay-Nickelson (1991) put forward a typology describing four possible types of acculturation strategies that newcomers may employ as they enter organisations. These strategies are assimilation, separation, deculturation, and pluralism. Firstly, assimilation means that individuals entering an organisation, irrespective of their cultural background will adopt the expected behaviour unquestioningly and suppress any traits which differ from the established organisational norms. Assimilation is likely when a ‘minority member’ enters a strong organisational culture in which significant pressure to conform is exerted. Secondly, Cox and Finlay

Nickelson (1991) and Jandt (1998) noted that separation processes may occur if an entering individual cannot adapt to the culture present and engages with the organisation to a limited degree. Separation is particularly likely to occur if a group of entering individuals share the same cultural background (Cox and Finlay Nickelson, 1991). Thirdly, Cox and Finlay Nickelson (1991) stated that deculturation processes were sometimes observed when neither the entering member's cultural group nor the organisational culture was strong enough to significantly influence the entrant's conduct. Finally, pluralism refers to an adaptation process in which each party adapts to some extent to accommodate the other. Cox (1994) and Berry (1997) informed that this process of acculturation occurs in parallel with socialisation and plays an integral part in the socialisation of groups or individuals with attitudes and values differing from those present in the group which they are entering. Culturally diverse recruits may select particular strategies as they enter an organisation. Some of these tactics, assimilation and pluralistic strategies, are conducive to successful socialisation while others, separation and deculturation, are unhelpful in this regard (McMillan, and Lopez, 2001; Lopez and McMillan-Capehart, 2003).

### **2.5.1 The receptiveness of organisations to culturally diverse entrants**

An organisation's culture may impact upon the socialisation and acculturation processes of culturally diverse entrants (Cox, 1994; Aghazadeh, 2004; Liao, Joshi, and Chiang, 2004). According to Cox and Blake (1991), certain organisational types are more receptive to diversity than others. They identified three such organisational types; monolithic, plural and multicultural organisations on a linear scale. Monolithic and multicultural organisations lie at opposing extremes of the scale with the former being almost completely controlled by the dominant group while the latter is very accepting of diversity. Multicultural organisations, Cox noted however, are extremely rare. Plural organisations, which occupy the midpoint of this scale, are in quite a complex position; it may be management policy to recruit employees of diverse origin but they may fail to provide them with the support and training that would allow them to integrate fully (Larkey, 1996). This lack of support may prove particularly problematic in relatively culturally homogenous organisations. According to Lincoln and Miller (1979) employees of such organisations frequently tend to resist the entrance of culturally diverse recruits. This hesitancy to embrace diversity is possible in cultures and



organisations which have been largely culturally homogenous in terms of their make up for extended periods of time (Brown, 1998). Nemetz and Christensen (1996) have noted that the proportion of employees of diverse origin employed by an organisation is crucial as a group's capacity to absorb such diversity may be limited. If that proportion increases rapidly a 'balkanisation'<sup>1</sup> of the groups within the organisation may be the result.

It should be noted that not all organisational cultures will benefit equally from increased levels of diversity. Chatman, Polzer, Barsade and Neale (1998) proposed that benefits of diversity are more likely to emerge in organisations which encourage people to act in the organisation's common interest rather than those that emphasise individualism and competition among members. Carnavale and Stone (1994) stressed the need for an organisation to undergo a 'cultural transformation' before benefits may be accrued from diversity. Liff (1999) noted, however, that this remains a process fraught with difficulty; attempts by management to effect change in behaviour through use of regulations and punishments may leave the underlying attitudes and beliefs relatively untouched. Similarly, other previous research has concluded that attempting to eliminate stereotypes held by an organisation's members is an exceedingly difficult task (Falkenberg, 1990; Wilson, 2000).

### **2.5.2 The socialisation of culturally diverse entrants**

It has been suggested that the process of socialisation increases in complexity when people of diverse origins are involved (McMillan, and Lopez, 2001; Niehoff and Maciocha, 2007). According to Albert, Ashforth, and Dutton (2000) this increased level of difficulty is due to the diversity of expectations and requirements of a heterogeneous workforce in comparison with those of a more homogenous one. Therefore these varying expectations and perceptions render the task of creating a cohesive culture extremely difficult (Helms and Stern, 2001). McMillan and Lopez (2001) suggested that 'aggressive and intrusive' socialisation may have to be implemented by management in order to be effective when socialising entrants from different cultures. This is particularly the case should the entrants be at a disadvantage of any sort, for

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<sup>1</sup> Balkanisation means that a group has divided into factions which tend to quarrel with each other (Dictionary.com, 2008).

example if they are experiencing language difficulties (Johnson and Redmond, 2000). McMillan-Capeheart (2005) suggested that the level of diversity present in an organisation is a crucial factor in selecting the appropriate socialisation tactic. She suggested that individualised socialisation programmes were most appropriate for organisations with high levels of diversity among their workforces. In a move which may assist Irish organisations as they attempt to integrate such diverse employees, the Equality Authority (2006) has issued guidelines regarding employment equality policies in enterprises. In their recommendations regarding job orientation and induction, the Equality Authority recommended that a number of simple equality practices may assist entrants from diverse backgrounds as they adjust to new surroundings. For example, they recommended that existing staff take the time to learn how to read and pronounce the name of a new recruit with a 'non-English' name. Also, it has been recommended by IBEC (Irish Business and Employers Confederation) (2003) and the Chambers of Commerce Ireland (2004) that induction processes for non-Irish-national employees be tailored specifically for their needs.

#### **2.5.2.1 Outcomes of the socialisation of culturally diverse entrants**

Any group will define its boundaries, meaning that it will decide who is 'in' and who is 'out'. These boundaries develop slowly and the groups become more entrenched with the passage of time (Schein, 1992). In an intercultural situation, encounters between individuals of different cultural origin frequently result in separation between the entering and the established groups (Miller and Rowney, 1999; Hofstede, 2001; Maxwell, 2004). According to Kandola (2004) culturally diverse entrants were frequently placed in the 'out' group and afforded lower levels of power and privilege than the 'in' group. Evidence of such polarisation of groups and negative attitudes toward culturally diverse entrants has been found in Irish organisations (Quinn, 2007; Cross and Turner, 2007). The ability of management to influence this process of intercultural encounter may be limited as cultural attitudes and prejudices of the employees may be much more difficult to change than he or she may realise (Hofstede, 2001).

The proactive socialisation strategies employed by members of the 'out' group will have an extremely important effect on the success or otherwise of the socialisation

process for entrants of diverse origin (Lopez and McMillan-Capehart, 2003). However, the approach adopted by such employees is not always conducive to effective socialisation. Employees who are in some way different from the dominant group are more likely to refuse to conform to established organisational norms than employees who are similar to the others (Liao, Joshi and Chuang, 2004). This finding was contradicted, however, by Chattopadhyay, Tluchowska and George (2004) who found that members of an 'out' group frequently attempted to increase their status within the organisation by gaining acceptance by the 'in' group.

Brown (1998) noted that cooperation was not observed to occur equally between all types of cultures. Hofstede (2001) noted that the occurrence of adaptation problems encountered depends on both the sending and receiving cultures; problems may arise when cultural values are incompatible as people from collectivist and individualist cultures tend to have different values and approaches to cooperation. Groups made up of people from collectivist cultures tend to display greater levels of cooperative behaviour than people from individualist ones while they also asserted that people from individualist cultures tended to display more competitive behaviour. It should be noted that Western cultures, including Ireland, tend to display high levels of individualism. In this way, Ireland's cultural orientation differs quite markedly from that of Poland's as Poland tends to be more collectivist and more accepting of authority (Hofstede, 2008). Conversely, Jackson (2002) found that the Czech Republic and Poland tend to be quite similar to Western Europe in their thinking and he attributed this to a strong German influence in those countries. This may create problems for the entry of culturally different employees to an organisation as Brown (1998) noted that migration levels to Western countries have increased in recent years and that the migrants entering these highly individualistic cultures have frequently originated from collectivist oriented cultures.

## **2.6 Diversity Management**

The organisational socialisation of employees of diverse cultural origin is a complex process according to Lopez and McMillan-Capehart (2003) and it may not result in the complete assimilation of culturally diverse entrants into an organisation. Therefore,

managers must deal with a diverse workforce with a wide set of values, opinions, and requirements on an ongoing basis (Thomas, 1990).

Sadri and Tran (2002) stated that two possible approaches to handling this task are identifiable; affirmative action and managing diversity. Affirmative action is a legislatively driven approach which originated in the US and was aimed primarily at eliminating discrimination in recruitment. On the other hand, diversity management seeks to allow an organisation to operate effectively with a diverse workforce while allowing all staff members to retain their own unique characteristics (Liff, 1997). The underlying aim of this approach, according to Sadri and Tran (2002) is that organisations should attempt to manage diversity rather than try to eradicate it. Strachan, Burgess and Sullivan (2004) stated that previous initiatives such as affirmative action had been externally driven by legislation, which failed to eradicate workplace inequality. Diversity management, by contrast, is an internally driven initiative spurred by the promise of organisational gain. The concept of managing diversity has its origins in the US in the early 1990s, prompted by significant demographic changes. Organisations in the UK and Ireland have begun to employ diversity management methods in recent years (Kandola and Fullerton, 1998; IBEC, 2003). As they formulate diversity management policies, Irish employers must also be aware of the fact that any discrimination against minorities, intentional or otherwise, is expressly forbidden by the Equality Act (2004). The challenge posed by workforce diversity, while it has piqued the interest of many researchers, has provoked generally mixed reactions from employers. Some opt to simply ignore diversity and treat the heterogeneous workforce in an identical fashion to a homogenous one. Others only pay lip service to the issue while still others attempt to address the management of diversity in a proactive way (Tayeb, 1996). Adler (1996) identified three strategies at the disposal of organisations for managing cultural diversity. Firstly, parochial, which does not acknowledge diversity. Secondly, ethnocentric, which sees diversity only as a potential source of problems. Thirdly synergistic, which recognises the potential of a diverse group working together. The first two strategies identified by Adler (1996) are, she states, quite common. Similarly, Schneider and Barsoux (1997) also identified three basic diversity management strategies: ignore, minimise or utilise. The effectiveness of the first two of these strategies has been called into question by some researchers such as Richardson (2004). Also, O'Reilly III, Caldwell and Barnett (1989), and Jackson,

Brett, Sessa, Cooper, Julin and Peyronin (1991) found that the presence in an organisation of a non integrated or assimilated minority group may be disruptive to the whole organisation, possibly resulting in negative consequences such as increased staff turnover.

Therefore, there is a strong incentive for organisations to engage in diversity management as their workforces are likely to consist of 'unassimilated diversity' for the foreseeable future (Thomas, 1990). This contention was supported by Richardson (2004) who noted that competitive advantage for organisations has come to depend on the successful management of diverse workforces and also by Hang-Yue, Foley, and Loi (2006) who suggested that effective management of diversity could help to tackle internal organisational problems such as increased levels of staff turnover.

Tayeb (1996) suggested that awareness of the importance of culture on the part of management, both of the organisation's and of the entering individual or group is of considerable importance. Therefore, in order to derive maximum possible benefit from diversity, the culture of the entering individuals should be taken into account and management should use this as a guide when designing organisational structures and cultures (Adler, 1996). Matveev and Milter (2004) suggested that 'intercultural competence' is necessary for managers when dealing with employees of diverse origin. The manager will be required to use his or her knowledge, experience, and skills to effectively manage a diverse workforce. Similarly, leadership styles may not be equally effective when dealing with employees from various cultural backgrounds (Jung and Avolio, 1999; Jackson, 2002). A leader must attempt to match his or her leadership style with the culture of the employees. For instance, a strong leadership style may be most appropriate for employees from a collectivist background who tend to be more compliant than those from individualistic cultures (Hofstede, 2001). According to Quinn (2007), this has begun to happen in an Irish context as managers in Irish firms have been compelled to alter their communication styles to match those of non-Irish-national entrants. According to Williams, Dobson, and Walters, (1993), managers are flexible in their adoption of a particular management style, although they note that such styles are often selected for pragmatic reasons rather than any underlying personal conviction.

According to Agoos and Burr (1996) the appropriate choice of diversity management tactic is crucial for organisations dealing with increased levels of diversity. The consequences of poorly chosen diversity management methods can be high as research indicates that greater levels of diversity, if managed poorly, can contribute to higher levels of dissatisfaction and turnover in an organisation (Miliken and Martins, 1996). The Equality Authority (2006) recommended that employers invest in planned, systematic equality and diversity training for indigenous staff. This type of training should be provided to employees prior to the entrance of employees of diverse origin (Pendry, Driscoll, and Field, 2007). It was acknowledged by Pendry, Driscoll and Field, however, that the actual effects of diversity training are difficult for organisations to assess. Data on the reaction of Irish businesses to the increased cultural diversity of the workforce has been provided by the Chambers of Commerce of Ireland (CCI) (2004). This report found that the majority of Irish businesses employing non-Irish-national workers surveyed had not introduced any specific policies to address integration.

Specifically addressing the case of diversity management in small businesses, Hartenian and Gudmondson (2000) noted that increased levels of diversity in the workforce offered small business an opportunity for improved business performance, providing it is well managed. They also noted that small firms may not have the option of retaining previous techniques developed for managing homogenous workforces as they are likely to become increasingly dependent on a labour pool that is more culturally diverse in the coming years.

Some researchers, however, such as Morrison and Von Glinlow (1990) have been critical of diversity management as an initiative, claiming that it does not seek to implement tangible change to organisational cultures that are hostile to entrants of diverse origin. They, therefore, asserted that a hostile working environment is likely to remain fundamentally 'unsympathetic' to such diverse employees.

## 2.7 Summary

The purpose of this chapter has been to create an understanding of the general topic of the socialisation of non-national employees into Irish SME's workforces. This has been accomplished by firstly focusing briefly on the importance of the SME sector and definitions of the SME, where no single universally acceptable definition was found to exist. The SME sector was found to be of considerable economic significance to both the Irish and the broader European level, as the employment figures testified. This was followed by an examination of literature focusing on how SMEs operate, specifically how they manage and engage in training of their human resources and the nature of these processes. It was noted that human resource management methods varied widely among SMEs. However, these human resource management methods, such as training processes, were described as relatively sophisticated and suitable for the SMEs' needs. The ability of SMEs to cope with an influx of non national entrants remains, therefore unclear, as opinion in the literature regarding the efficiency of SME training and development processes remains divided. The strong impact of the owner/manager in the determination of these processes was acknowledged. It was generally recognised in the literature that small firms tend to operate in individual styles, differing significantly from larger firms and they adopted idiosyncratic, frequently very effective, solutions to meet their unique challenges. Literature was then presented on organisational culture, including material on the various factors impacting on its formation such as national culture. The personality of the owner/manager was once more observed to be of particular importance. Research indicates that culture in smaller firms tends to differ from that observed in larger ones and research specifically focusing on the cultures encountered in smaller firms was also presented. The next section of literature reviewed focused on the integration of new employees into an organisation's culture, including a presentation of previous research on the core issues of organisational socialisation, socialisation tactics and effectiveness. The likely cultural reaction of Irish firms to the entrance of culturally diverse employees remains unclear due to the limited amount of previous research performed and conflict in the literature. The tasks of socialisation and management of diverse employees were found to be difficult processes.

The area of the socialisation of non national workers into Irish SMEs is, therefore, an extremely complex one with a number of, sometimes conflicting, variables. That the

SME sector is one characterised by low levels of investment in training and development is largely borne out in the literature. This may lead to problems in the integration of non-national employees. The power of the owner/manager in fostering an organisational culture that is welcoming to culturally diverse entrants should also not be overlooked and the interactions of Irish national culture with other cultures is also of critical importance in this regard.

The following chapter outlines the research problem, question and objectives which have been derived from this literature review. It will also outline the particular philosophical orientation which underpins the current study. It will then detail the particular research design and data collection tool used in the primary research phase of the current study.



## **Chapter 3: Methodology**

### **3.1 Chapter Overview**

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the methodology that the researcher used in the current study. Firstly, the context of the study and the particular research problem which this study identified are outlined. This is followed by an examination of the contrasting philosophies in research in which the opposing paradigms of subjectivism and objectivism are explored. Following this, the contrasting epistemological positions of positivism and phenomenology are outlined. This is followed by a justification of the particular philosophical positions adopted by this study.

The quantitative and qualitative methods which stem from these philosophical positions are then explained and justification for this researcher's decision to utilise qualitative methods is provided. The research method of the study is outlined and this is also presented in diagrammatic form. The sampling strategy employed by this survey is outlined and this is followed by an explanation of the particular information gathering tool, the semi structured interview, which was employed in this study. The content and protocol of the interview are outlined and the methods used to document and analyse the interviews are then explained.

### **3.2 Research problem**

Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs) are extremely important within both the Irish and the broader European economies as they employ significant numbers of people (Garavan, O'Cinnéide, Flemming, McCarthy and Downey, 1997). The European Union Commission (2003) has recognised the significant levels of employment generated by small firms. The commission stated that "*it is increasingly new and small firms that are the major providers of new jobs*" (p. 6).

The current study focuses on a particular issue relating to the changing composition of the workforce employed by SMEs caused by sharply increased levels of immigration

into Ireland (CSO 2004, p. 17). Irish SMEs have become increasingly dependent on foreign labour as they have encountered significant difficulty in recruiting indigenous workers. This increased dependence has been partly due to the significant increase in the levels of economic activity witnessed in recent years. ISME (2004), the Irish Small to Medium Enterprises representative body, stated that “in many regards the future of Irish economic growth is dependent on successfully recruiting migrant workers” (p. 1).

When an individual is recruited by an organisation that person must undergo a process called organisational socialisation as he or she adapts to the new working environment. Organisational socialisation has attracted a relatively significant amount of attention since the late seventies when Van-Maanen and Schein (1979) published their seminal work on the topic. Since that time numerous studies have examined the topic from a variety of perspectives including Jones (1986), Miller and Jablin (1991) and Saks and Ashforth (1997). Literature surrounding issues concerning the management of culturally diverse workforces has also received considerable attention, for example Cox and Finlay-Nickleson (1991) and Cox (1994).

Irish Small to Medium Enterprises are currently facing the task of socialising significant numbers of employees of non-Irish origin into their workforces. The socialisation of employees of diverse origin into small businesses, however, has not been the subject of significant scrutiny and the methods employed in smaller firms to socialise non-national employees remain largely un-examined. In addition, despite the attention devoted to the areas of organisational socialisation and diversity management, there have been very few studies that have incorporated elements of both streams of research. The work of Lopez and McMillan-Capehart (2005) being something of an exception in this regard. Also, no such study has previously been performed in an Irish context. The present study has been designed to address this particular aspect of socialisation research. Specifically, this research will provide insights into the socialisation process of non-Irish-nationals as they enter Irish SMEs. The conceptual framework for this study is shown in figure 3.1.

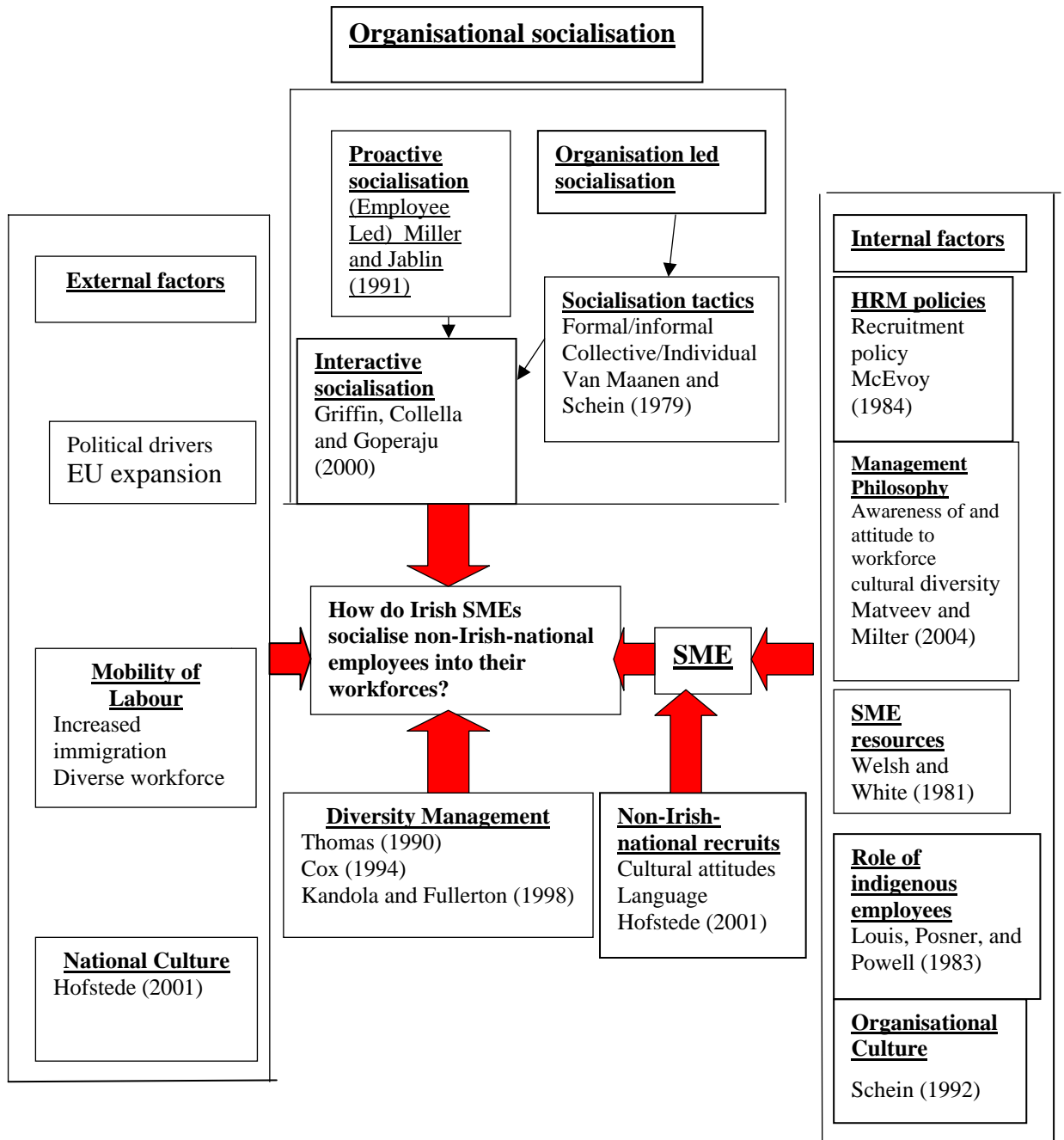


Figure. 3.1 Conceptual framework (Source: current research)

The conceptual framework was prepared in order to assist this researcher in the task of identifying areas of literature relevant to the study. Following the drafting of this framework, a comprehensive literature review was undertaken by this researcher.

According to McNeill (1990), a study must incorporate a literature review to allow the researcher to ensure that the present study will build on existing knowledge. Similarly, Kumar (1999) found that undertaking such a review allows the researcher to place his or her study in the context of previous research. He also noted that reviewing the literature shows a researcher what type of research methodologies have previously been used in the area and this will assist the researcher in the eventual selection of an appropriate methodology (Kumar, 1999). This review of the literature will also assist the researcher in settling on a precise research question. A thorough grounding in previous research is essential in allowing the researcher to formulate a research question that will address a problem or research gap not previously addressed. If a researcher poses a question that has already been addressed in other studies, he or she betrays his or her ignorance of the literature (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 1997). The present study's research question is outlined in section 3.3.

### **3.3 Research question**

Bryman and Bell (2003) emphasised the importance of a well formulated research question. They stated that questions which have not been adequately thought out and placed within the proper context of previous research will lead to unsatisfactory outcomes for a study. The present study aimed to gain an insight into how non-Irish-national employees are currently being integrated into Irish SMEs. This research entailed examining what steps, if any, the management of these organisations have taken to assist non-Irish-nationals in this process. It also sought to describe the factors influencing the process such as the input of indigenous employees and their impact on the eventual outcomes of the processes. The research question for the current study, therefore, is:

How do Irish SMEs socialise non-Irish-national employees into their workforces?

The research question is a concise statement of the overall aim of the study. It also assists the researcher in formulating a set of research objectives for the study (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 1997). The research question also provides an indication for the eventual methodologies that can be used to answer this question. The research question in the present study is descriptive in nature in that it seeks to describe a particular issue, rather than one which seeks to establish a relationship between particular variables. This researcher will outline various research philosophies and approaches and will select those which are best suited to answering this question.

### **3.4 Research objectives**

According to Kumar (1999), after the researcher has decided on a particular research question, he or she will then be able to identify specific research objectives pertaining to the study. The research objectives are the goals of the study, the attainment of which will allow the researcher to answer the research question. The setting of the research objectives for a study is an extremely important part of the research process as they will ultimately determine what type of research design will be required in order to achieve those objectives (Kumar, 1999).

The present study's research objectives are:

- 1 To identify and investigate the socialisation tactics which are currently being used by SMEs to direct the socialisation process of non-Irish-national employees.
- 2 To ascertain whether individual SME characteristics have influenced the socialisation of non-Irish-national employees.
- 3 To identify how the human resource management methods utilised by SMEs have influenced the socialisation of non-Irish-national employees.
- 4 To examine the influence of the owner/manager or operations manager on the socialisation of non-Irish-national employees.

- 5 To investigate the role played by indigenous employees in the socialisation of non-Irish-national employees.

In the present study, the precise framing of the research objectives allowed the researcher to begin the process of answering the research question. To answer the research question and address the gap identified in the literature, the researcher undertook a process of primary research. This process is now explored in detail.

### **3.5 The research process/research design**

According to Bryman and Bell (2003), a research design is a framework that has been designed for the collection and analysis of the particular type of data that are required in order to answer a research question. Similarly, Kumar (1999) described a research design as “a structure which guides the execution of a research method” (p. 32). A comprehensive model of this process was provided by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (1997). This model shows how a research process begins with the research philosophy as a foundation. This model illustrates how research philosophies form the basis of a research design as these have been placed in the outermost layer of a series of concentric circles. The design becomes progressively more focused as it moves closer to the centre of the ‘onion’. The specific data collection methods which a study may employ are listed in the innermost circle. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhills’ model is shown in figure. 3.2

The present study will, to an extent, parallel Saunders, Lewis and Thornhills’ model as it will now focus on philosophy, followed by quantitative and qualitative techniques before finally outlining the specific data collection choices available. It will then outline the specific methods selected.

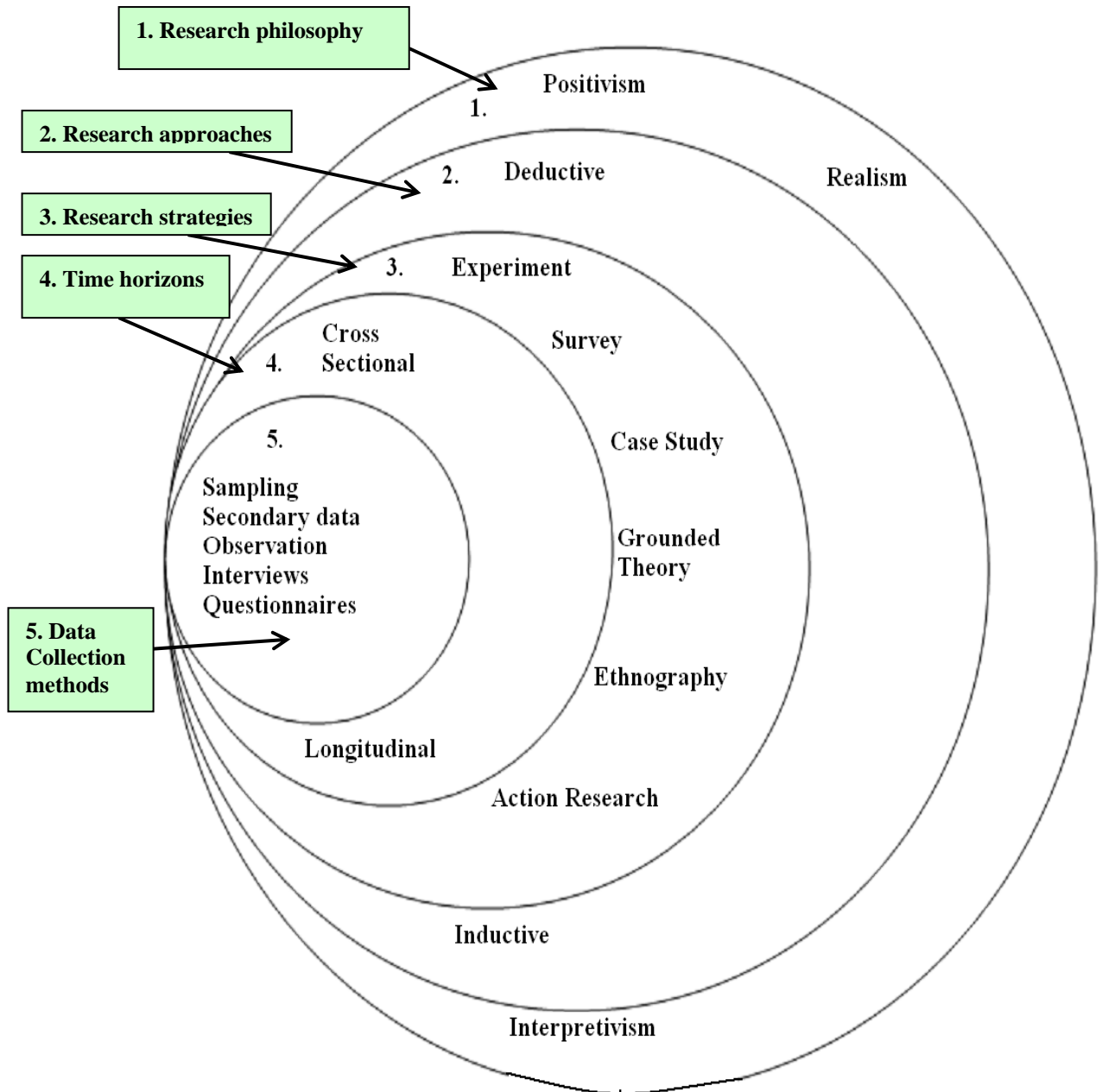


Figure. 3.2 The Research process Onion  
 (Source: Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 1997, p. 83)

### 3.6 Research philosophies

The following section focuses on the contrasting philosophies associated with research in the social sciences and expands on the particular characteristics of each. Robson (2002) contended that the philosophical debates ongoing in the area of scientific enquiry, particularly in social science, should not be ignored by researchers as any research involving other people requires that researchers be well versed in available methodologies prior to undertaking any study. Therefore knowledge of the various contrasting philosophies will enable the researcher to recognise the design that best fits the research (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Lowe, 2002). According to Burns (2000) research in the social science areas, like research in other subjects, has generally followed the traditional objective scientific method. Since the 1960s however, a strong move towards a more qualitative, naturalistic and subjective approach has left social science research divided between two competing philosophical perspectives: the scientific positivistic tradition and the naturalistic phenomenological mode.

Burrell and Morgan (1979) found that each philosophy holds differing assumptions about the nature of social science in four key areas: ontology, epistemology, human nature and methodology. Table 3.1 encapsulates the sets of assumptions outlined by Burrell and Morgan.

<b>The subjectivist Approach to social science</b>		<b>The objectivist approach to social science</b>
Nominalism	Ontology	Realism
Anti-positivism	Epistemology	Positivism
Voluntarism	Human Nature	Determinism
Ideographic	Methodology	Nomethic

Table 3.1 The subjective–objective dimension (Source: Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.3)

The most fundamental assumption identified by Burrell and Morgan is the Ontological assumption which relates to the observer’s perception of reality. The second assumption, epistemology, relates to perspectives on how knowledge of the world can best be gained. Once a researcher has examined these assumptions and analysed his or



own perspectives on these matters, he or she can then begin to consider which perspective is most appropriate for the particular problem at hand.

According to Mason (2002), the researcher must identify his or her ontological position. For instance, does he or she adopt a perspective of “realism” which asserts that there is one, undeniable and universally applicable reality? Or does the researcher adopt a “nominalist” perspective which doubts that any such concrete reality exists? The research methodology selected by the researcher should be consistent with these positions (Mason, 2002). According to Morgan and Smircich (1980), ontological and epistemological positions can be placed on a scale with purely objectivist perspectives at one end and purely subjectivist views on the other extreme. Various intermediate positions occupy the midsection of the scale and each position suggests the use of particular research methods. For instance an ontological position of extreme objectivity, which views the world as a single concrete reality, would suggest the employment of laboratory experiments or surveys. On the other hand, a researcher may adopt a position of extreme subjectivism, which completely rejects the concept of any single reality, See Table 3.2.

	<b>Subjectivist approach to social science</b>					<b>Objectivist approaches to social science</b>
<b>Core ontological assumptions</b>	Reality as a projection of human imagination	Reality as a social construction	Reality as a realm of symbolic discourse	Reality as a contextual field of information	Reality as a concrete process	Reality as a concrete structure
<b>Basic epistemological stance</b>	To obtain phenomenological insight, revelation	To understand how social reality is created	To understand patterns of symbolic discourse	To map contexts	To study systems, process change	To construct a positivist stance
<b>Research methods</b>	Exploration of pure subjectivity	Hermeneutics	Symbolic analysis	Contextual analysis	Historical analysis	Lab experiments, surveys

Table 3.2 Network of basic assumptions characterising the subjective - objective debate within social science

(Source: Adapted from Morgan and Smircich, 1980, p. 492)

A midpoint on Morgan and Smircich’s scale views reality as a ‘contextual field of information.’ This epistemological position is concerned with understanding an organisation in its environmental context. However, studies performed from this epistemological perspective are relatively unconcerned with establishing causal

relationships than a more objective epistemological, or positivistic, stance. In the present study, this researcher has assessed his own philosophical position and concluded that he rejects the extremes of both the subjectivist and objectivist positions and prefers to frame his research in the context of this intermediate position. The selection of the ‘contextual’ epistemological position is appropriate for the present study as it revolves around examining how organisations have responded to an external influencing factor, the entrance of non-Irish-nationals into Irish workforces.

### 3.6.1 Positivism and phenomenology

Positivism and phenomenology represent two different epistemological perspectives. Positivism is ‘objectivist’ in its orientation and seeks to use ‘natural science’ based methods to research social issues. The findings of a positivistic study should be quantitatively expressed. Phenomenology by contrast, is more ‘subjectivist’ in its orientation and aims to examine a particular situation in context. Unlike positivism, phenomenology regards the researcher as being an integral part of the research process. On the other hand, positivism regards the researcher as a detached observer who plays no part in the process he or she is observing.

	<b>Positivism</b>	<b>Social constructivism</b>
<b>The observer</b>	Must be independent	Is part of what is being observed
<b>Human interests</b>	Should be irrelevant	Are the main drivers of science
<b>Explanations</b>	Must demonstrate causality	Aim to increase general understanding to the situation
<b>Research progresses through</b>	Hypothesis and deductions	Gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
<b>Concepts</b>	Need to be operationalised so that they can be measured	Should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
<b>Units of analysis</b>	Should be reduced to the simplest terms	May include the complexity of ‘whole’ situations
<b>Generalisation through</b>	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction
<b>Sampling</b>	Large numbers selected randomly	Small numbers of cases chosen for specific reasons

Table 3.3 Contrasting implications of positivism and social constructivism

(Source: Easterby Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002, p. 30)

### **3.6.1.1 Positivism**

Positivism has been termed the “standard” view of science (Robson, 2002). In the positivist paradigm, the observer is detached and independent of the phenomena observed which allows knowledge to be gained through neutral observation (Krauss, 2005). Lincoln and Guba (1985) provided an ‘axiom’ of the positivist perspective, stating that: “The inquirer and the object of inquiry are independent; the knower and the known constitute a discrete dualism.” (p. 94)

### **3.6.1.2 Phenomenology**

The phenomenological approach derives its name from that fact that it is primarily concerned with the examination of how individuals experience various phenomena as they occur in the world around them (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 1997). Within the phenomenological perspective, people are viewed as the primary data source and the researcher must interact with them in order to gain access to such data. This perspective seeks to take into account the context of particular situations and aims to gather rich data from which ideas may be induced (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Lowe, 2002). Schwandt (2000) also contended that gaining knowledge is not a passive process; rather human beings must actively process information in order to create knowledge. Within this perspective, therefore, knowledge is not simply discovered and recorded but is created as a result of interaction between observer and subject. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) an axiom of non-positivistic perspective is as follows: “The inquirer and the object of inquiry interact to influence one another; knower and known are inseparable” (p. 94). Similarly, Krauss (2005) stated that the observer cannot hope to remain completely detached from the phenomena he or she observes. Consequently, the inquiry causes changes in both the observer and the subject which, inevitably, impacts on the findings of the study to some degree. Also, according to Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2006), an individual’s interpretations of the social environment are ‘culturally derived and historically situated’. This subjective viewpoint differs markedly from a positivistic perspective which assumes that a single, concrete reality exists which would mean that subjects of study do not change regardless of how they are studied or, indeed, who studies them. Finally, it should be noted that these features of the phenomenological

philosophy mean that replication of studies guided by this perspective is rendered extremely difficult. See section 3.7.4 on the trustworthiness of the study.

### **3.6.1.3 Selection of appropriate research philosophy**

The contrasting philosophies each have particular qualities which make them suitable for the requirements of different studies. The researcher must, therefore, use his or her knowledge of the ongoing debate within social science research to assist in selecting the most appropriate philosophy.

Hill and McGowan (1999) noted that approaches to research focusing on small business have been largely influenced by the positivistic paradigm. Hill and McGowan (1999), criticised this reliance on what they saw as an inappropriate paradigm in the following manner. They called this practice “square pegging from the traditional disciplines into the rounder holes of small firm entrepreneurship research” (p. 6). Robson (2002) has questioned the suitability of any positivistically oriented approach to research in the social science area as positivism cannot allow for the unpredictability of human actions.

According to Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (1997), phenomenological research is particularly well suited to examining a small segment of a population with the aim of gaining a deep insight into some phenomenon experienced by that segment. A positivistic approach, by contrast may permit an overview of a wider segment (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 1997). The present study is concerned with the examination of a specific human problem as it occurs in a particular context. This study aims to gain a degree of insight into the socialisation of non-Irish-nationals with the goal of describing the situation in detail. This researcher, therefore, believed that the best way to research this phenomenon was through a phenomenological process. The adoption of such an approach is also consistent with this researcher’s epistemological position. This researcher regards the study of particular human phenomena as a worthwhile way of gathering knowledge.

### 3.7 Quantitative and Qualitative research

Research may be divided into two broad categories; quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative and qualitative research methods are underpinned by positivistic and non-positivistic epistemological perspectives respectively (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Lowe, 2002). Quantitative research is firmly rooted in the positivistic tradition. This type of research emphasises the study of causal relationships between variables and it is claimed that observers of such studies can remain entirely detached from their subjects (Krauss, 2005). By contrast, qualitative researchers stress that reality is socially constructed and acknowledge a relationship between the researcher and what is studied. Mason (2002) has noted that qualitative studies tend to be grounded in an ‘interpretivist’ philosophical tradition. She also found that qualitative studies tend to use methods of data generation which are designed specifically for the particular study. This is in marked contrast to quantitative designs which do not take the particular context into account and instead apply standardised methods to all subjects, (Mason, 2002).

	<b>Quantitative</b>	<b>Qualitative</b>
<b>Principal orientation to the role of theory in relation to research</b>	Deductive	Inductive; generation of theory
<b>Epistemological</b>	Natural science model	Interpretivism
<b>Ontological orientation</b>	Objectivism	Constructivism

Table 3.4 Fundamental differences between quantitative and qualitative research strategies (Source: Bryman and Bell, 2003, p. 25)

It should be noted, however, that the differences between the qualitative and quantitative approaches are not always readily apparent. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), all social research contains an element of interaction between the researcher and the subject. For instance a researcher setting a questionnaire is influenced by his sample when he or she considers whether the subjects will or will not be able to answer particular questions. Thus, even postal surveys contain an element of interaction, albeit a very small one (Wilson, 1996). This interaction is particularly evident in qualitative methods such as interviews, as Lincoln and Guba (1985) stated that it is very rare to encounter a situation where the interviewer is not influenced, at least a little, by the respondent. Finally, Burns (2000) stated that researchers should not

dwell excessively on the continuing conflict between advocates of the approaches but instead recognise that both are legitimate tools of research and either can be useful provided it is well chosen (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

### **3.7.1 Quantitative research**

Punch (2003) stated that “for the quantitative researcher, reality is conceptualised as variables which are measured and the primary objectives are to find how the variables are distributed and especially how they are related to each other and why” (p.2). There are several methods which are regarded as being driven by the quantitative paradigm. These methods include mass surveys which can be used to collect large amounts of data over a relatively short period of time, this data is usually statistical in form (McNeill, 1990). There are several methods at the disposal of researchers who utilise quantitative techniques. These include case studies, quantitative surveys and experiments (Balnaves and Caputi (2001). According to Balnaves and Caputi, a quantitative survey can cover a vast range of issues and normally results in a “variable by case matrix”. Mass surveys, such as opinion polls have the aim of generalising from a sample to a wider population. To achieve this aim of generalisation, it is necessary to select a representative sample. In principle, each member of the ‘target’ population should have an equal chance of being selected; this necessitates the use of random sampling techniques (Oppenheim, 1992).

### **3.7.2 Qualitative research**

Strauss and Corbin (1990) provided the following definition of qualitative research. They stated:

“By the term qualitative research, we mean any kind of research that produces findings not arrived by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification. It can refer to research about persons’ lives, stories, behaviour, but also about organisational functioning social movements or interactional relationships” (p. 17).

Creswell (1998) has stated that 'good' qualitative research has the ability to capture a 'story' in a credible way that can capture all the complexities of a real situation. Mason (2002) contended that qualitative research has a great capacity to gain insights into how things work in 'particular contexts'. Similarly, Krauss (2005) has stated that qualitative research in social science aims to understand the complex world of human experience and behaviour from the point of view of those involved in the particular situation of interest. The qualitative researcher's goal should be to explore a particular human problem or situation in depth and build a holistic picture of that situation (Creswell, 1998).

Several researchers have, however, identified problems inherent in the qualitative research methods. For instance, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) noted that adherents to positivistic traditions continue to question the ability of qualitative research to achieve acceptable levels of validity. Also, Robson (2002) stated that the creation of a controlled environment is impossible for a qualitative researcher who enters his or her subjects' environment. This results in a somewhat 'messy' and unpredictable situation for the researcher (Robson, 2002). This may lead to a charge of 'anecdotalism' as the researcher may be seen to selectively present certain findings and quotes while deliberately excluding others in order to tell the story that he or she has already decided on (Silverman, 2005).

### **3.7.3 Decision on whether to use qualitative or quantitative research**

Several researchers have found that qualitative research methods are best suited to examining human phenomena as they occur in particular contexts including the context of an organisation. Smith (1991) found that qualitative methods were most appropriate for researching organisations. Hill and McGowan (1999) went on to call for further qualitative research in small business research.

It has also been noted that the phenomena being studied in social science research in general, and in organisational research specifically, are fundamentally different from those being examined in the natural sciences (Jankowicz, 2000). Therefore, the phenomena which occur in the social science area may require the use of different

methods from those used in natural science. Tesch (1990) questioned the usefulness of quantitative techniques in the area of social research. She succinctly expressed her reservations by noting that “unfortunately, not many phenomena in the human world come naturally in quantities” (p.1). Burns (2000) also questioned the suitability of quantitative techniques for research in the social science area. Burns stated that the emphasis on ‘factual’ knowledge and a single objective reality is now obsolete and the preferred form of social science research must be qualitative. According to Robson (2002) a study’s research question influences the choice of strategy. For instance, questions which include words such as ‘how many?’ suggest the use of a quantitative strategy such as a survey. On the other hand, questions including the word ‘what?’ which are concerned with examining a specific phenomenon lend themselves to some form of qualitative design (Robson, 2002).

The present study is one that is investigative in nature and focuses on a small sample of respondents. A qualitative methodology is best suited to a study which focuses intensively on a small number of subjects. A quantitative methodology, by contrast would cover a larger number of subjects but does not seek to gain the same level of depth from each respondent that a qualitative methodology does. In addition, the author of the present study felt that the flexibility and capacity for responsiveness inherent in a qualitative study might be more appropriate than a rigid quantitative study which might have hindered the researcher’s capacity to respond to interesting or unexpected findings. Therefore, this researcher has elected to use qualitative methods to gather the required information.

#### **3.7.4 Trustworthiness of qualitative and quantitative research**

Gummerson (1991) used an effective analogy to describe the concept of validity. He stated that an architect’s map should match the terrain. If it did not, most people would simply discard the map. Gummerson noted, however, that such clear-cut pronouncements are more applicable to the natural sciences than social sciences.

Adam and Healy (2000) noted that both the quantitative and qualitative traditions suffer from differing problems in this regard. They found that quantitative studies are more accurate than qualitative studies but sacrifice internal validity as they focus on many



cases with few variables. They found that small scale qualitative studies, by contrast, are very realistic but the generalisability of their results may be lessened due to their focus on a small number of subjects. According to Mason (2002), this remains a particularly problematic area for qualitative research as the established measures of validity, reliability and generalisability are largely derived from the positivist traditions. There are problems inherent in the concept of generalisability when attempts are made to apply it to qualitative research (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Robson, 2002). Lincoln and Guba (1985) found that concepts such as causality may simply not apply to research in social science. “Billiard ball” examples of A influencing B are not appropriate for social science (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). This is especially evident when a researcher who has completed a qualitative study attempts to demonstrate the ‘external validity’ or generalisability of a study. It is possible to replicate a ‘fixed’ or quantitative study but replicating the exact conditions of a qualitative study is difficult, if not impossible (Robson, 2002).

The author of the present study acknowledges that this study’s small sample size limits the possibility of being able to draw generalisations from the findings of this study. The findings of this study relate only to the organisations surveyed. However, this is consistent with a core aim of qualitative research which is to present a detailed picture of a phenomenon as it occurs in a particular situation (Creswell, 1985).

One method of strengthening the validity of a study is triangulation. According to Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002) every method of data gathering has its own particular flaws and the use of several methods of data collection within the same study can help to compensate for these flaws. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002) identified several types of triangulation including data triangulation, triangulation by different investigators, and methodological triangulation. Methodological triangulation should be used with caution as Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (2002) advised that researchers should use different methods from within the same paradigm. However, they should be wary of mixing methods from different paradigms. This is because a researcher would find difficult to justify the simultaneous adoption of qualitative and quantitative methods as they are philosophically incompatible.

This study did not use triangulation as interviews with employees were not carried out. The research was therefore limited to a single source of information from each participating organisation. The use of multiple sources, each viewing the same topic from a different perspective would have been an effective tool of data triangulation.

This researcher instead undertook an extensive literature review in the subject area and was able to place the results of the present study within the context of previous research.

### **3.8 Research method**

The preceding sections of this chapter have outlined the philosophical stance of the present study and the choice between quantitative or qualitative methods. This section now outlines the various qualitative data collection techniques which were available and explains the researcher's decision to use one particular method. For the present study, this researcher has chosen to utilise semi-structured interviews and the reasons for this choice are also outlined. The research method which was used in this study is illustrated in figure. 3.3. As can be seen from figure. 3.3, one of the early steps in this was to identify and select suitable subjects for study. This step is outlined in section. 3.8.1.

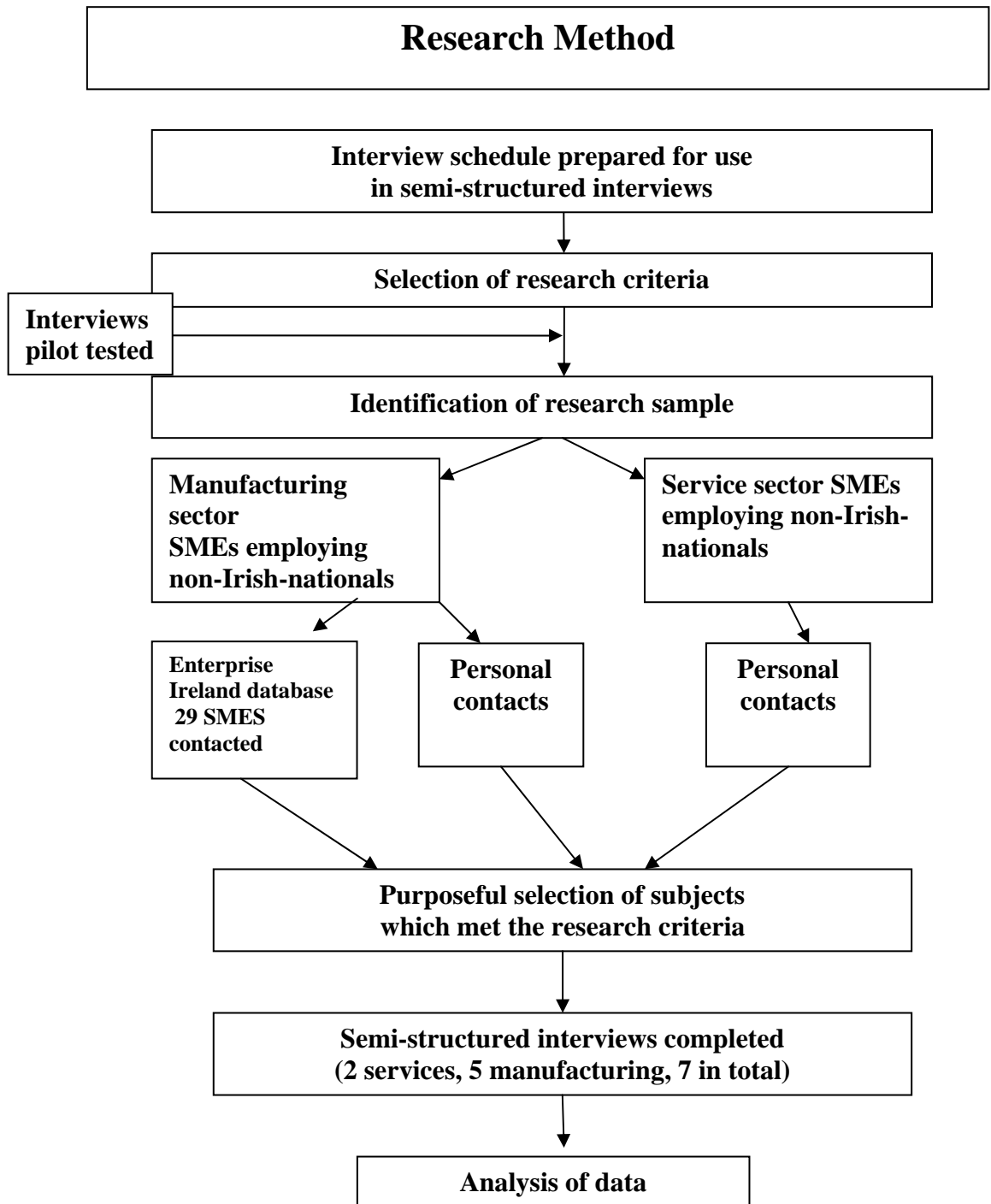


Figure 3.3 Research method (Source: current research)

### **3.8.1 Research instruments**

According to Bryman and Bell, 2003, a research method is, quite simply, a means of gathering the information which the researcher requires. Sekaran (1992) noted that required information can be gathered in a wide variety of different ways. These include interviews which may be rigid and highly structured or flexible and unstructured or simple observation of subjects. The researcher may also utilise various types of quantitative survey. These methods may be employed singly or may be combined in a single study as part of a 'mixed methods' approach (Sekaran, 1992). In the present study, this researcher had already decided to adopt qualitative techniques. The data collection tools available to qualitative methods included observation, structured, unstructured, and semi-structured interviewing. The current study required that the researcher gain access to information concerning the methods that SMEs use in their dealings with non-Irish-nationals. This type of information may be considered somewhat sensitive in nature, and, for this reason, this researcher decided that the best way to gain access to such information was through the use of face-to-face interviews. There are several distinct types of interview at the disposal of researchers. These are outlined in Sections 3.9 to 3.9.3.

A researcher intending to adopt a method such as face-to-face interviewing should regard the viewpoints of people as meaningful components of social reality and should see interacting with those people as a valid and worthwhile method of gathering meaningful data relating to a particular topic (Mason, 2002). However, Robson (2002) has asserted that the researcher must be pragmatic in his or her choice of methodology and the most appropriate design must be used in each individual instance. He also stated that researchers should not attempt to use their favoured methodological approaches in all studies that he or she undertakes. Krauss (2005) also advocated a pragmatic approach to choice of method as all methods are not equally suitable for the examination of different phenomena. Finally, Denscombe (1998) used the colourful phrase 'horses for courses' to encapsulate his attitude towards the selection of appropriate methodologies. However, it should be borne in mind that other pressing concerns may impact on a researchers choice of method (Staw, 1982) Staw noted that, realistically, researchers may not choose a particular methodology based solely on striving to match the most appropriate methodology with the research problem. Staw

found that constraints in terms of the resources available to researchers also influence the choice of method.

### **3.9 Interviews**

Interviewing is a difficult process that Kvale (1996) described as being closer to an art than a science. The qualitative research interview seeks to describe and interpret specific situations and actions from the subject's world. It does not seek general opinions which are not helpful in answering the research question (Kvale, 1996). According to Fontana and Frey (2000) an interview should generally take the form of a "chat", or at least give the appearance of one. It is not, of course, a conversation which is more of a reciprocal exchange. According to Denscombe (1998) any apparent similarity between a conversation and an interview is illusory and possibly dangerous for the researcher as it may lull him or her into a false sense of security and cause him or her to underestimate the task. Interviewing remains the most popular method of gathering qualitative data (King, 2004). Qualitative interviewing is particularly suitable for explaining a particular social process in a particular context. There are several types of research interview at the disposal of the researcher and these are now described in detail.

#### **3.9.1 Structured interviews**

According to Fontana and Frey (2000), when using structured interviews, all respondents are asked the same set of questions in the same sequence. These questions should be asked in the same manner by a trained interviewer. Open ended questions are used infrequently and interruptions are not permitted, nor is the interviewer permitted to express any opinions (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 1997). This type of interview is generally used in survey research, hence the highly standardised nature of the process (Fontana and Frey, 2000). Structuring an interview in this way reflects an attempt to make the interview a more neutral tactic of information gathering; however it is difficult to fully eliminate biases such as interview error (Mason, 2002; Holstein, and Gubrium, 2004).

### **3.9.2 Unstructured interviews**

This type of interview is an open ended exchange between interviewer and subject (Fontana and Frey, 2000). According to Wilson (1996) this type of ‘naturalistic’ encounter is characterised by a high degree of flexibility and informality. The setting must be the subject’s everyday one and interruptions are permitted as they assist in capturing the sense of a ‘real’ and unforced exchange. The interviewer does not use a pre-set list of questions but instead relies on a flexible ‘topic guide’ to facilitate the gathering of data on a number of issues of interest (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill 1997). This is however a difficult mode of interview for an inexperienced interviewer as the exchange can easily drift into areas that are not relevant to the study. Mason (2002) recommended that only experienced interviewers should employ this method.

### **3.9.3 Semi-structured interviews**

This interview type represents a compromise between the structure of standardised interviews and the flexibility of unstructured interviews. Semi-structured interviews consist of a mixture of both closed and open ended questions and may allow for a more free flowing engagement with the subject than would be possible with either surveys or a more constrained type of interview while still providing a degree of structure that the researcher may use as a guide. Questions may be added or omitted at the researcher’s discretion as the interview proceeds (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill. 1997.)

As relates to the current study, this author judged that semi-structured interviews would be the most effective tool to enable the researcher to obtain rich information through engagement with a small number of respondents. In this study, the use of semi-structured interviews had several advantages. Firstly, it was sufficiently flexible to permit the respondent to expand at length on answers and also to allow the researcher to clarify questions and probe further as happened in several instances. These interviews enabled the interviewer to gain something akin to an insider’s perspective on each of the situations described by the respondents. The relatively fluid structure of the interview allowed the participants to freely express their opinions. The fact that the interviews took place in the respondents’ workplace during working days also contributed to the

authenticity of the exchange. This was in accordance with Krauss' (2005) recommendation that interviews should take place in the respondent's 'natural setting'.

### **3.10 Research Criteria**

The present study is a small scale study which has relatively few respondents. It is therefore imperative that all respondents are suitable. To ensure that this is the case, the researcher drafted a set of research criteria which assisted in the selection of this suitable sample. Only those who met all the criteria were selected for inclusion in the study. The current study's research criteria were as follows.

- The subject SME<sup>2</sup> should be based in the South East of Ireland
- The subject SME should operate in either the manufacturing or the services sector
- Non-Irish-nationals<sup>3</sup> should comprise between ten and twenty per cent<sup>4</sup> of the subject SME's workforce
- The potential respondent should be either the owner/manager or operations manager of the SME

#### **3.10.1 Identification of research sample**

The present study used an Enterprise Ireland database which listed SMEs located in the South East region of Ireland. Identifying businesses that employed a suitable proportion of non-Irish-national employees was a difficult task as no such database, as far as this researcher is aware, exists in Ireland. Therefore, this researcher contacted SMEs individually in order to assess their eligibility for inclusion in the present study. Twenty nine SMEs were contacted and ten of these were deemed suitable as potential subjects.

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<sup>2</sup> For the purposes of this study, an SME is classified as an organisation which employees between ten and two hundred and fifty employees. This classification is in line with the European Union Commission definition of an SME.

<sup>3</sup> A non-Irish-national is classified as a person who was born outside of Ireland. That person's country of origin or native language are not relevant to the current study. In addition, the length of time that person has been a resident in Ireland was also deemed irrelevant.

<sup>4</sup> This figure is in line with the results of a study performed by the Chambers of Commerce Ireland (2004) on the Irish labour force which found that non-Irish-nationals comprised an average of fourteen per cent of the workforces of Irish businesses who employed non-Irish staff members.

### 3.10.2 Purposeful selection of subjects

According to Sekaran (1992), there are several sampling techniques at the disposal of researchers and these may broadly be divided into random and non-random sampling techniques. Random sampling is conducted with the purpose of ensuring that results will be generalisable to a wider population and, as such, is appropriate for quantitative studies. On the other hand, non-random sampling techniques are necessary when a study requires the subjects to meet certain criteria. The most appropriate form of sampling for qualitative research is non-random purposive sampling (Burns, 2000). According to Jankowicz (2000) and Kvale (1996), the question of how many interviews a researcher should conduct is not one that has an easy answer. Kvale has found that researchers face a dilemma. He stated that if they carry out too few interviews they may find that generalisability is impaired. Conversely, if a researcher carries out too many interviews he or she may find that depth of insight has been sacrificed and the study cannot hope to make any “penetrating interpretations”. The selection of appropriate subjects is, therefore, vital as Stake (2000) has noted that much data can be gained from even a single case, provided it has been well chosen, either for its representativeness or its particular qualities. Using the criteria set out in section 3.8.1, the researcher then selected candidates which met all these criteria.

Four organisations were selected in this way and this was then supplemented by a further three organisations arranged via personal contacts. These seven SMEs included two services and five manufacturing organisations. See Table 3.5.

Organisation	Respondent	Sector	Total employed	Number of non-Irish-nationals employed	Non-Irish-nationals as a percentage of total workforce
1	A	Manufacturing	82	48	59%
2	B	Manufacturing	37	15	41%
3	C	Service industry	99	62	63%
4	D	Service industry	29	15	52%
5	E	Manufacturing	90	50	56%
6	F	Manufacturing	68	29	43%
7	G	Manufacturing	33	18	55%

Table 3.5 Subjects selected (Source: current research)



### **3.11 Interview Protocol**

In the present study, this researcher contacted businesses using the Enterprise Ireland database as a guide and enquired directly as to whether they employed non-Irish-national people and also what proportion of their workforce they constituted. When this researcher contacted potentially suitable organisations, he spoke to a receptionist at first. If the responses of this person indicated that their organisation might be suitable for study, this researcher requested to be allowed to speak to the owner/manager or operations manager. This was done in all cases and this researcher was able to speak to the owner/manager directly. In cases where personal contacts were used, the researcher also telephoned the organisation, again identifying himself and stating his business before requesting to speak with the owner/manager or operations manager. The researcher then informed the owner/manager or operations manager of the nature of the study and asked if he or she would be willing to participate. Speaking to the owner/managers in this way, allowed this researcher to explain the nature and purpose of the study and also to begin to establish a rapport with him or her. At this point, the researcher made it clear that the interview would be treated in the strictest confidence and that the respondent's anonymity was guaranteed. The researcher also enquired as to whether the respondent would be comfortable with the use of a dictaphone by the researcher. This issue was raised at this stage so as to avoid startling the interviewee by producing a tape recorder unexpectedly when the interview commenced.

Following this, further details concerning the nature of the study were supplied to the potential interviewee via e-mail and a covering letter was sent to the organisations via post. Finally, interviews were scheduled at times convenient to the respondent. It was also arranged that all the interviews should be conducted in the premises of each organisation. This arrangement was convenient for the respondents and also allowed this researcher to conduct the interview in the interviewee's natural setting. All seven respondents granted permission for the interview to be tape recorded and signed a consent form which indicated that they fully understood the conditions of the interview. Copies of the covering letter and consent form are attached as Appendices A and B respectively.

### **3.11.1 Interview content**

The questions which were used in the interviews performed in the current study consisted of both open and closed ended questions. In accordance with the recommendations of Fontana and Frey (2000), simple, closed ended questions requiring straightforward factual answers were asked in the beginning of the interview. This had the dual purpose of gathering necessary information and setting the respondent at ease at the outset of the interview. More closed ended questions were asked at another point approximately halfway through the interview in order to give the interviewee a respite from more demanding questions. This semi-structured format also allowed the interviewer to clarify any questions which the respondents had difficulty with. This would not have been possible in the case of a more rigid interview. Prior to commencement of the data gathering process, this researcher did a pilot study of the interview schedule with an experienced researcher. The feedback from the pilot test resulted in changing the words and phrases used in some of the questions. The researcher pilot tested the interview schedule with the assistance of an experienced researcher prior to the commencement of the data gathering process. That researcher recommended that the language used in several questions should be simplified. The interview schedule was duly modified in line with these suggestions. A copy of the interview schedule is attached as Appendix 'C'.

### **3.11.2 Limitations of interviews**

According to Fontana and Frey (2000), the interview is not a 'neutral' method of gathering information; rather it is an interaction between two individuals which leads to a mutually agreed results. Total neutrality in the context of an interview is impossible according to Lincoln and Guba (1985). Also, some other problems are very difficult to counter. For instance an interviewee who is naturally recalcitrant by nature will present a considerable challenge to the skills of the interviewer (Holstein and Gubrium, 2005). According to Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, and Sechrest (2000) interviews are an intrusion into a subject's natural environment. Because of this disruption of the subjects' natural settings, the interview may elicit 'atypical' responses to the interview questions.

### **3.11.3 Ethical considerations**

Certain ethical concerns may arise from the use of interviews as a data collection method. Stake (2000) has described the social science researcher as an ‘intruder into private space’. As such, a researcher should be mannerly at all times with a strict code of ethics in which any tactics that could be described as deceptive or coercive must not be used (Robson, 2002). The subjects of social research are human beings and so are deserving of all possible respect. Therefore measures must be taken to avoid inflicting any stress or harm upon a study’s participants, be it intentional or otherwise (Kvale, 1996). These measures include obtaining informed consent from interviewees and ensuring that their right to privacy is protected at all times (Kvale, 1996; Fontana and Frey, 2000). Informed consent entails informing potential interviewees of the purpose of the inquiry as well as any possible risks and benefits which will be associated with participation in the study. Were a researcher to fail to inform the subject of these details, it may constitute deceptive practice on the part of the researcher (Kvale, 1996). Also, a researcher must make strenuous efforts to faithfully interpret and present the findings of the interview process; to prevent a distorted picture of the process and the information conveyed as it constitutes a breach of trust (Kvale, 1996). Finally, confidentiality is particularly important in qualitative research as the information that has been gathered is not “neutral”. This information is something that has been specifically imparted to a researcher by a particular respondent (Jankowicz, 2000). McNeill (1990) found that allowing participants to remain anonymous tends to increase the chances of eliciting honest answers to questions from respondents, thereby strengthening the validity of a study.

In the current study, this necessitated the preservation of the identity of both the company names and individual respondent’s names which was done by applying simple codes to all respondents. At the outset of the analysis stage each respondent was allocated a code in place of their name; they were termed respondents A through G. Their organisations are not referred to by name throughout the study; they are simply referred to as Respondent A’s organisation and so on. This served the dual purpose of preserving the respondents’ anonymity as well as simplifying the task of data handling (See Table 3.5). Also, all respondents gave written consent to be interviewed prior to

the commencement of the interviews. A copy of the consent form is attached as Appendix 'B'.

#### **3.11.4 Recording interviews**

Interviews may be recorded through use of a tape recorder, by notes taken by the interviewer or by a combination of both and each has its own merits and demerits. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), raw notes from interviews are frequently sketchy and almost illegible, containing many abbreviations and errors. In fact, Miles and Huberman stated that notes taken during interviews usually contain less than half the actual interview content. According to Webb, Campbell, Schwartz, and Sechrest (2000), recording is highly recommended as it provides a record which is 'uncontaminated by other hands'. A secondary benefit of using a tape recorder was identified by Robson (2002) who found that tape recording assisted in countering the threats to internal validity which may result from inaccurate or incomplete note taking. In addition Perakyla (2004) stated that recordings have the benefit of allowing a greater level of transparency of the research than field notes would permit. Tape recording is not without its disadvantages, however, after transcription, the researcher may find that any non-verbal clues have been lost and the data is presented in an exclusively verbal format (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Others recommend using field notes as the interviewees' responses may be inhibited by the use of a tape recorder (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

In the present study, this researcher used a dictaphone to record all the interviews and also made supplementary notes as the interview progressed. This researcher found the use of the tape recorder to be a most satisfactory method of recording data. Also, the interviewees did not appear to be discomforted by the use of the tape recorder and all had no hesitation in granting permission for it to be used. The recordings were then ready to be transcribed in the first stage of the data analysis.

#### **3.12 Analysis**

In the present study, this researcher faithfully transcribed all the interviews. The transcripts produced were strictly verbatim although when extracts were included in the

findings chapter, these were sometimes edited for the purposes of clarity. According to Kvale (1996), the aim of interpreting the sometimes large amount of data that interviews have yielded is not to produce vast quantities of information but to generate a relatively concise set of findings characterised by depth and quality. Kvale noted, however, that interpreting the frequently quite ‘complex’ stories which respondents have related to the researcher is a difficult task for which there are few standard techniques available to guide the process.

Tesch (1990) has elaborated on the difficulty inherent in the tasks of analysing and interpreting the findings of a qualitative research study. She said

“The path between what is said and what is perceived is not direct. It can be so mysterious, in fact, that scientists still haven’t figured out exactly how to establish with certainty what a text means. At best, they may agree on what it should be taken to mean” (p.57).

Even after a relatively small number of interviews, a researcher may find that the volume of data collected has reached proportions which become difficult to manage. This problem is particularly acute in qualitative research as verbal data is frequently much harder to manage than numerical data (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

There are several specialised computer packages which may assist the researcher in the task of coding and analysing qualitative data. The best known of which is N-Vivo and use of such packages assists the researcher with some of the more mundane aspects of the analysis process. Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (1997) sum up their estimation of the contribution of such programmes as follows:

“Qualitative analysis software is a tool, rather like a washing machine. It performs tedious and time-consuming operations, thus releasing you and your brain for creative thinking and the generation of ideas” (p. 358).

Silverman (1985) noted that some qualitative researchers have a tendency to insert quotes verbatim from the findings without clarifying what pattern this is intended to illustrate. Silverman also noted that packages such as N-Vivo can contribute to the validity of a study by simply allowing the researcher to clearly illustrate the number of times a particular viewpoint was expressed. This facility should be used in conjunction with well chosen quotes to illustrate the findings of particular interest.

According to Seale (2005), there are several advantages in using such a programme. These include increased speed and efficiency in the handling of large volumes of data and improvement of rigour as deviant findings are easily identified. The core task of analysing findings, discerning patterns and understanding their meaning, cannot be automated but the researcher may find that the need to concern him or herself with more mundane elements of the research process has been reduced (Burns, 2000). However, Burns did note the familiar “garbage in, garbage out” problem which is common to all computer packages. Bryman and Bell (2003) also noted a fundamental problem with the use of computer programmes to analyse qualitative findings. They stated that it introduces an element of artificiality to the process and tempts the researcher to attempt to quantify the findings. Finally, Richards (2005) noted that some researchers still have a somewhat ‘romantic’ view of the task of data analysis using scraps of paper. She was dismissive of such an attitude and noted that N-Vivo does nothing which could not also be done on paper though it is a much more laborious task when done manually.

In the present study, this researcher weighed up the benefits that might be accrued through the employment of a computer package to assist in the analysis of the data that had been gathered. As the amount of data that had been gathered from the seven interviews was relatively large, this researcher decided to use this programme to assist in the analysis of the data. This researcher therefore used features of the N-Vivo programme to assist in the management of the accumulated data. This researcher used the programme to categorise the data into a set of forty five ‘free nodes’ which helped to illustrate the themes emerging from the responses. A list of these ‘free nodes’ is attached as Appendix ‘D’.

### **3.13 Summary**

The objective of this chapter was to explain in detail the methodology used to gather and analyse the information required in this study. It also provided justification for the selection of the particular methods used.

Firstly, the background to the research was explained. This section included the identification of an important topic which has received relatively little previous academic attention, that is the socialisation of non-Irish-nationals into Irish SMEs.

This was followed by an exploration of the philosophies underpinning the research process. This was necessary in order to ground the research in the proper philosophical context and had ramifications for the eventual methodology selected.

Following this, the qualitative and quantitative approaches to research were contrasted and the selection of a qualitative approach to this research was justified. The research method used in the present study was then outlined. This included an explanation of the decision to employ semi-structured interviews as an information gathering tool. Some limitations and ethical consideration relating to the interview method were then appraised. Subsequently the content and protocol of the interviews which were performed was outlined in detail and the methods used to record and analyse them were summarised.

Chapter Four will now present the findings of this study.

## **Chapter 4: Data Analysis**

### **4.1 Chapter overview**

The purpose of this chapter is to present the primary research findings of the current study. The findings outlined in this chapter are derived from a series of seven semi structured interviews with the owner/managers or operations managers of Small to Medium sized Enterprises (SMEs) performed by the researcher during July 2007. Subject organisations were selected on the basis of the following criteria: Firstly, they should employ fewer than two hundred people in total. Secondly, non-Irish-nationals should comprise at between ten and twenty percent of their workforces, thirdly the SMEs should be either services or manufacturing organisations. Finally, the SMEs should be located in the South East of Ireland.

Organisations operating in both the manufacturing and service sectors were selected for comparative purposes. Owner/managers were interviewed where available, operations managers were interviewed in cases where this was not possible, specifically; respondents A, D, and E. In all cases, the owner/manager or operations manager interviewed had direct control over a relatively small group of employees which included both Irish and non-Irish employees. The intended contribution of this analysis is to gain a degree of insight into how non-Irish-nationals are socialised into Irish SMEs.

A note on the profiles of selected organisations is relevant at this point. In order to preserve confidentiality of respondents, neither organisations nor individual interviewees will be identified by name. Instead, coding will be applied and interviewees will be designated respondents A through G. The sectors in which the organisations operate will also be outlined. These details are presented in table 4.1.

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first section details the methods of socialisation of non-Irish-national employees in use in the organisations surveyed. The second section outlines this study's findings on the impact of individual SME



characteristics on the implementation of socialisation methods. In the third section the role of HRM in the socialisation process is outlined. The fourth section details the influence of the owner/manager or operations manager on the socialisation process. The fifth section outlines the role played by indigenous employees in the socialisation process. Finally, a summary of the chapter is presented.

Organisation	Respondent	Sector	Total employed	Number of non-Irish-nationals employed	Non-Irish-nationals as a percentage of total workforce
1	A	Manufacturing	82	48	59%
2	B	Manufacturing	37	15	41%
3	C	Service industry	99	62	63%
4	D	Service industry	29	15	52%
5	E	Manufacturing	90	50	56%
6	F	Manufacturing	68	29	43%
7	G	Manufacturing	33	18	55%

Table 4.1 Organisation profiles (Source: Current research)

Respondent	Status of Interviewee	Qualifications	Experience of respondent, or any of the management team, of managing diverse workforces
A	General Manager	Third level education	No
B	Part owner/ manager	Third level education	Yes*
C	Part owner/manager	Third level education	Yes
D	Manager under license	Second level education	Yes
E	Operations manager	Third level education	Yes
F	Owner/manager	Primary level education	Yes*
G	Part owner/manager	Primary level education and City and Guild apprenticeship	No

Table 4.2 Qualifications of Respondents and experience of managing diverse workforces within organisations (Source: Current research)

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\* Respondent did not have previous experience of managing a culturally diverse workforce but was able to draw on the knowledge of other staff members who did possess such experience

	<b>Respondents</b>						
<b>Nationality of employee</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>E</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>G</b>
<b>Polish</b>	48		21	5	45	11	9
<b>Lithuanian</b>		14	6	10			
<b>Slovakian</b>			8			7	
<b>Latvian</b>			3				9
<b>Czech</b>			6			6	
<b>British</b>			3		4		
<b>Hungarian</b>						4	
<b>Estonian</b>			3				
<b>Latvian/Russian</b>			2				
<b>Romanian</b>					1		
<b>Slovenian</b>		1					
<b>German</b>			1				
<b>French</b>						1	
<b>Cameroonian</b>			1				
<b>South African</b>			1				
<b>Philippino</b>			1				
<b>Thai</b>			1				
<b>Chinese</b>			1				
<b>Unknown</b>			3				

Table 4.3 Breakdown of nationalities of non-Irish-nationals employed in SMEs surveyed (Source: Current research)

Table 4.1 displays the number of employees, both Irish and non-Irish-national, in the organisations surveyed and categorises them according to sector. The number of non-Irish-nationals employed by those SMEs is also expressed as a percentage of the total number of employees.

Table 4.2 presents data on the interviewees' status, qualifications and experience of managing diverse workforces. This was deemed worthy of inclusion given the particularly strong influence of the owner/manager or operations manager in a small business context and the likelihood that the task of formulating the socialisation methods examined may fall largely on his or her shoulders.

Table 4.3 presents data on the countries of origin of the non-Irish-nationals employed in each organisation surveyed. The vast majority of the non-Irish workers employed by the organisations investigated originated from Eastern European countries. The

composition of the workforce of respondent C's organisation differed somewhat from the others in that a wide mixture of people from many different countries were employed there although European workers still constituted the bulk of the workforce in that organisation. The fact that respondent C's organisation employed such a wide variety of culturally diverse employees may have further complicated the task of socialising the non-Irish-national employees in that organisation. It should be noted, however, that respondent C had previous experience of managing such a diverse group which may have been helpful in the formulation of appropriate socialisation tactics. This is explained more fully in Section 4.6.

Five of the respondents surveyed either had personal experience of managing culturally diverse workforces or have access to individuals in their organisation who have had such experience. None of the respondents had previous experience of managing a culturally diverse workforce in Ireland. See Section 4.5 to read more about the influence of the owner manager on the socialisation process.

## **4.2 The methods of socialisation of non-Irish-national employees in use in the SMEs surveyed**

There are a wide range of methods at the disposal of organisations as they manage the entrance of newcomer to an organisation. Organisations may take a formal or informal approach to the process, or may adopt a mixture of formal and informal methods. This section of the chapter focuses on the methods employed by the organisations surveyed to socialise non-Irish-national newcomers. It presents findings on the recruitment of non-Irish-nationals, induction, and socialisation methods specifically formulated for the non-Irish-national entrants. It also includes findings on problems and integration issues which have emerged during the course of the socialisation process.

### **4.2.1 Recruitment of non-Irish-nationals**

All organisations surveyed relied on informal methods for the recruitment of non-Irish nationals. Two organisations, those managed by respondents A and C, utilised the services of a recruitment agency at first before shifting to more informal methods. Respondent B described the initial stages of the recruitment of non-Irish-nationals in

that organisation as a “*stumble job*” meaning that the recruitment of non-Irish-nationals began in an unplanned fashion. All organisations surveyed utilised word of mouth recruitment methods. This use of employee recommendations as a recruitment method has caused the number of non-Irish-nationals employed in all the organisations surveyed to rise rapidly after the initial entrance of one or two non-Irish-nationals as the non-Irish employees frequently recommended family members and friends as potential recruits.

Respondent B reported that non-Irish-nationals were recruited one at a time, while the six other respondents said that groups or pairs were recruited and inducted simultaneously. Three respondents, however, C, D, and G, stated that non-Irish-nationals are also recruited individually. For example, respondent D said that individual recruitment as opposed to group recruitment would occur depending on organisational requirements. Respondent F disclosed that non-Irish-nationals were recruited singly at first but this has since changed and small groups are now brought in together. This is an important issue because it dictates whether entrants are socialised singly or collectively which has implications for the nature of the organisational socialisation process as well as the likely end results of that process. For instance, Fisher (1986) found that an organisation may find it easier to exert an influence on the socialisation of one or two entrants and appoint appropriate mentors to assist the newcomer as they adjust to the organisation. By contrast, the entrance of a group of recruits is harder to influence as the entrants tend to have a significant impact on each other.

All seven respondents reported that the decision to hire non-Irish-national workers was driven primarily by the difficulty encountered in hiring indigenous employees. Respondents E and G also stated that their decision in this regard was partly driven by skill shortages in addition to labour shortages. In addition respondents A and B stated that the perceived strong work ethic of many non-Irish-national employees was an incentive to hire non-Irish workers.

#### **4.2.2 Induction**

Six organisations surveyed employed quite formal induction or orientation programmes for new entrants. These induction processes took the form of induction packs and introductory talks with the aid of a flip chart and tours of the premises. All these

organisations provided their documentation in the employees' native language in addition to English. The seventh company, however, respondent D's organisation, did not employ any specific formal induction programme but instead favoured informal methods such as pairing entrants with more experienced employees. In respondent D's organisation, introductory role training was only utilised for certain roles involving the handling of food. Three respondents, C, E, and F mentioned spending half a day on induction while respondent A's organisation spends a couple of days on the process.

All six respondents who stated that formal induction programmes were used in their organisations said that these programmes were designed in-house. Respondent C, however, described how some external assistance from Fáilte Ireland was sought for the design of such programmes in that organisation. The content of all induction programmes employed by the SMEs surveyed related to generic matters such as health and safety although respondent A supplemented this with some background material on the region in which that organisation was located. This additional material had been specifically prepared for the non-Irish-national entrants to that organisation.

All the manufacturing organisations investigated in this study used formal type induction methods, providing induction packs or delivering talks in the employees' native language in all cases. On the other hand, the service organisations surveyed employed formal methods in one case, respondent C's organisation, while more informal methods were employed in the second, respondent D's organisation.

#### **4.2.3 Socialisation methods formulated for non-Irish-national entrants**

In addition to the induction methods identified by this study, informants also disclosed details of a variety of unique methods formulated and used in the socialisation process. All these methods were consciously designed by management to assist the non-Irish-national entrants to organisations adjust to their new surroundings and roles. These methods include the use of non-Irish-nationals as agents of socialisation to assist entrants and other initiatives such as the setting up of football teams which included both Irish and non-Irish players. These are outlined in further detail below.

#### **4.2.3.1 Non-Irish-nationals as agents of socialisation**

Three organisations, those managed by respondents B, D, and G, have informally charged non-national employees with the task of assisting their fellow country people as they enter the organisation. Respondent G described the role of this person as to act as a “*liaison*” between management and non-Irish-national employees. A further two respondents, A and E have specifically hired non-Irish-national people in human resource management roles.

One organisation in particular, Respondent A’s organisation has developed a range of socialisation methods. The most striking of these is the Polish flag which flies prominently outside the premises. Respondent A’s organisation has also negotiated special bank accounts for the non-Irish-nationals and offered short term assistance with electricity bills. In addition, Polish food has been served in the canteen on important dates in the Polish calendar. Both Irish and non-Irish-national employees in respondent A’s organisation have also participated in football matches which were arranged by the operations manager.

Respondent C has offered advice to non-Irish-nationals in the area of banking, recommending that they deal with a specific bank whose rates are low in comparison with those of competitors. Respondent D’s organisation has some rooms available for rent on the premises of that organisation and some non-Irish-national employees are, in fact, staying in this accommodation. These findings are in line with the recommendations of the report on the Irish labour force presented by the Chambers of Commerce Ireland in 2004. This report recommended that employers implement orientation programmes for non-Irish-national recruits which also addressed their particular requirements in terms of accommodation and banking.

#### **4.2.4 Integration issues**

Three respondents, B, D and E, noted that non-Irish employees frequently did not understand the Irish sense of humour. What respondent D termed “*slagging*” or the light-hearted teasing that Irish people often engage in was frequently misinterpreted as insulting and abusive behaviour by the non-Irish-national employees. Respondent B

also noted that humour did not translate readily between the Irish and non-Irish employees and this had reduced interaction between the groups. This is in marked contrast to the findings of Terrion and Ashforth (2002), who found that the use of ‘put down’ humour between group members increased the sense of group identity amongst those individuals. It should be noted, however, that the subjects of Terrion and Ashforth’s study were from a single cultural background as opposed to the heterogeneous make up of the employees in the organisations investigated in the current study. Respondents C and E noted that what they called an “*aggressive*” manner on the part of the non-Irish workforce had the effect of limiting integration. Respondent C stated that the Eastern-European workers are extremely direct in their dealings with other employees. Respondent C stated that: “*it’s acceptable, culturally, in their country but I would deem it as bullying*”. This was echoed by respondent E who said:

*“I think the Polish employees who do not speak English can be quite aggressive in the canteen but they don’t mean anything by it. It’s just their manner; they tend to raise their voices a lot”*

Respondents F and G had not encountered any difficulties caused by cultural differences.

Three respondents, A, E and G, stated that a practical problem had arisen for their non-Irish-national employees. This problem related to the non-Irish-nationals’ status as migrant workers in Ireland and the difficulty involved in visiting their families. Because of this difficulty, respondents A, E, and G said that non-Irish-national workers in their organisations tended to look for more time off at holiday periods such as Christmas than their Irish counterparts. This has caused problems for management and also created resentment from Irish employees. Respondent A said that this had caused a certain level of “*friction*”. This respondent stated that it was “*probably the only area where we ever had any real problems between the Irish and the non-Irish members of staff*”.

Respondents A and E stated that the attitude and demeanour of Polish employees in those organisations varied significantly depending on what part of Poland they came

from. They said that employees from the western regions of Poland had a much more “western” outlook and had relatively little problems integrating. Respondents A and E stated, however, that employees from the eastern part of Poland frequently had a more difficult time integrating into that organisation. Respondent E noted that:

*“Their communication style comes across as very aggressive but, if you go to the Russian border that is how Russian people speak. The Polish people from the eastern part of Poland are quite similar to Russian people”*

Respondents A, D, and E noticed differences among the Eastern European employees in their organisations. They found that the earlier non-Irish-nationals recruited by their organisation tended to be highly ambitious and well educated. On the other hand, these organisations found that these characteristics have been somewhat less pronounced for subsequent entrants. Also, respondent C noted that employees of Asian origin tended to be unsettled by the very direct approach of employees of Eastern European origin, as, indeed were Irish employees.

Finally, respondent G noted that relations between individual Polish employees in his organisation had not always been positive. He had become concerned when the group of Polish employees appeared to split as people took opposing sides in a dispute. He reported that the dispute had been successfully resolved but due to the language barrier, he had been unable to discern the root cause of the problem. He speculated that it had been due to some form of regional rivalry among the Polish employees.

#### **4.2.4.1 Language barrier issues**

Varying levels of difficulties caused by the language barrier between Irish and non-Irish employees were reported by most respondents. Respondents B and D were the exceptions in this regard with both reporting that the non-Irish-nationals they employed displayed a good grasp of the English language. All others reported that the non-Irish-national employees had either poor or mixed levels of English. These respondents stated that they had arranged for one or two non-Irish-national members of staff to act



as interpreters. Respondent E noted that his interaction with many of the employees in his organisation was extremely limited as some non-national-employees had no English at all. Respondents A, C, E, and F described how their organisations had attempted to overcome this problem. Language classes had been organised by respondent A and Es' organisations for non-Irish-national employees with the aim of improving communication. However, respondent A's organisation had been forced to suspend these lessons after they proved prohibitively expensive. Respondent C said that the use of multiple languages has been a particular concern in that organisation and disclosed that several thousand Euros had been spent on the translation of materials for the non-Irish-national employees. Finally, respondent F stated that one of the Irish supervisors in that organisation provides informal assistance to the non-Irish-national employees as they attempt to improve their English language skills. Respondent E said that the successful integration of a non-Irish member of staff depended almost entirely on his or her proficiency in the English language. Respondent E's organisation, it should be noted, displayed particularly stark differences in terms of language proficiency of non-Irish-national staff, ranging from people with good English skills to people with no English whatsoever. Respondent E described the situation in the following way:

*“From a company point of view, the English speaking Polish employees have integrated a lot better than the Polish speaking employees. This is because the Polish speaking employees alienate themselves from the Irish employees and they become a different group”*

#### **4.2.4.2 Formation of groups within the workforce (separation)**

Cox (1991) and Berry (1997) found that when individuals originating from a particular culture entered a culture with values differing from their own, they went through a process called acculturation. In this process, the entering individual could employ a variety of strategies; assimilation, pluralism and separation. The strategy utilised by the entrant has direct consequences for the outcomes. Due, in part, to such strategies the entrant may 'fit in' or fail to 'fit in' with the group that they are entering (Lopez and McMillan-Capehart, 2003). The following findings suggest that many non-Irish-

national entrants to the SMEs surveyed had adopted an acculturation strategy of separation.

Respondents, A, F, and G stated unequivocally that Irish and non-Irish staff regularly mix during break times. The remaining four respondents reported that mixing during breaks either did not occur or was limited to some degree. Respondent C reported that there is a tendency for non-Irish-nationals to group together during breaks. Respondent C speculated that this could be due to the fact that non-Irish-national employees of that organisation often know each other before entering the organisation. A similar situation was described by respondent G who said that all the Polish employees in that organisation originate from a single town in Poland. Similarly, respondent E stated that all the Polish employees in his organisation are recruited from a single factory in Poland through word of mouth contacts. Respondent G also disclosed that a Polish employee has been appointed as a supervisor in that organisation. The department which that employee supervises is staffed entirely by Polish workers while another department is entirely staffed and supervised by Irish employees. This may also contribute to the polarisation of the two groups within the organisation. Respondent B also reported a tendency of non-Irish-nationals to cluster together but he found that this was due to an entirely different reason; these employees were from Lithuania where smoking in the workplace is permitted, so they frequently used the smoking room. This has created a situation in which the smoking room in this organisation is used almost entirely by non-Irish-national members of staff. Respondent B said “the smoking room has become a Lithuanian room.” Respondent E gave an account of quite serious problems becoming visible during break times and recounted how Irish employees sometimes reacted to what he described as a more “*aggressive*” Polish attitude. He said that:

*“The Irish employees are a bit uncomfortable with it.  
So, what happens is some of the Irish people leave the  
canteen instead of confronting this behaviour”*

Finally, respondent D said that there was relatively little interaction during break times. Elaborating on this, he attributed this apparent gulf between the groups of employees to the differing education levels of the two groups, with the non-nationals being the more educated and ambitious of the two groups. These findings seem to indicate that the

acculturation strategies employed by the organisational entrants have resulted in 'separation' in some organisations. However, these findings contradict those of Chattopahyay, George and Lawrence (2004) who found that 'dissimilar others' of relatively low status tended to identify more strongly with the established group than their own group and made 'concerted' efforts to integrate with the dominant group.

#### **4.2.5 Company organised social events**

The importance of social events in organisational cultures has previously been emphasised by Trice and Beyer (1984). They suggested that such events are 'rites of integration' in organisations and provide an opportunity for all staff and management to interact and thereby "lessen the social distances between them" (p. 663). Despite the fact that social events may be arranged by the organisation with the goal of increasing group cohesion, some of these events organised had the opposite effect and caused problems such as increased levels of separation and resentment among the workforce: Four respondents, A, B, E, and F, stated that their organisation arranged social events that were attended by both Irish and non-Irish employees. However, two of these four, respondents B and E, reported problems. Respondent B reported that this past Christmas, for the first time, three or four Irish staff members refused to attend company organised social events. These Irish employees believed that this event would be attended mainly by non-Irish-national employees and they apparently feared that they would be made to feel isolated. Respondent B recalled that, on that occasion, these Irish staff members had asked him sarcastically whether "*phrase books in Lithuanian would be passed around at the party*".

Nevertheless, respondent B related that the vast majority of staff did attend and enjoyed the evening. Respondent E reported that events are organised in his organisation three or four times a year but these have led to resentment among the Irish employees. He recalled that at any social event, the Polish staff tended to drink for only as long as the free drinks were available then stop when the bar started charging. Respondent G stated that non-Irish-nationals employed by that organisation had been unable to attend Christmas parties due to their desire to return to their home countries during the Christmas period. He disclosed that he is considering arranging social events at other times of the year in order to enable non-Irish employees attend such events.

#### 4.2.6 Outcomes of the socialisation process

Respondents expressed a diverse range of views on the question of how well they felt the integration of non-Irish-nationals into their workforces had gone. Three respondents, A, F, and G, described it as having gone generally well while a fourth, respondent C, said that the non-Irish-nationals were becoming increasingly well integrated but the Irish staff members felt progressively more isolated in that organisation.

Respondent D questioned whether the non-Irish-nationals in that organisation wanted to fully integrate as he observed a somewhat reserved attitude towards the Irish staff members in his organisation. Respondent D said that a possible explanation for this slightly negative attitude was the fact that the non-Irish-national employees in that organisation had much higher levels of education than the Irish members of staff. He also said that he had noticed that the non-Irish-national employees tended to be much more ambitious than the Irish workers which also contributed to this reserved attitude toward the indigenous employees. The final two respondents, B and E, found that non-Irish-national employees were sometimes reluctant to discuss the topic of integration. One of these, respondent B, attributed this reluctance to the businesslike attitude of the non-Irish-nationals. When he questioned them on this, he found that *“they are more worried about maintaining productivity levels and not offending you than integrating with the Irish”*. This was echoed by respondent E who found that many non-Irish-national employees were not particularly interested in integrating into that organisations workforce.

When asked if non-Irish-nationals tended to accept the way the organisation operates largely without question, two respondents, A and C, said that they found this was the case. One of these, respondent A, attributed this response to the compliant nature of the non-Irish-national employees. He found that this was particularly the case with older non-Irish-national employees and speculated that this might be due to the lingering memories of an unchallenged dictatorial rule during the Communist regimes in their countries. Five respondents, however, found that the non-Irish-nationals did not accept the way the company operated unquestioningly and made suggestions for improvements or different ways of operating. Respondent B was especially pleased with the responses

to the socialisation process and innovative contribution of some non-Irish-national employees to that organisation, calling it “*a pleasant surprise*”. This finding differs from Wanous (1980) who found that the majority of employees within an organisation generally tend to accept the ‘norms’ and methods of operation of an organisation unquestioningly.

#### **4.2.7 Measures taken to address problems encountered in the socialisation processes**

Respondents A, E, and G described how the problem of non-Irish-nationals seeking increased time off was tackled in their organisations. Respondents A and E elaborated on solutions that involved rescheduling breaks to suit the needs of non-Irish-national employees. Respondent E explained that this allowed non-Irish-national employees to plan breaks far in advance, which was sometimes desirable given the travelling distance involved. Respondent G said that he is considering arranging social events at a time of the year that would be more convenient for Polish employees as Christmas is generally a time of year when they travel home.

Most respondents dealt with problems on an individual basis. Respondent E met and discussed issues with employees as far as possible though it was conceded that his dealings with Polish speaking employees were virtually non-existent. Respondent G also acknowledged that integration related problems may be hidden from management. Respondent B has had to intervene directly and deliver warnings to individual Irish staff members concerning their behaviour toward non-Irish staff members. He said “*you can’t stop all bad behaviour and you can’t react to every comment that a person makes but if there is a recurring problem, it has to be sorted out*”.

#### **4.3 The impact of individual SME characteristics on the implementation of socialisation methods**

This section presents findings on the structures of the organisations surveyed, the levels of the organisations at which the non-Irish-nationals are employed, as well as turnover rates of both Irish and Non-Irish employees. Findings on employee flexibility are also presented. The importance of flexibility in a small business context has previously been

emphasised by Marlow and Patton (1993). The ability of organisational entrants to quickly adapt to the high levels of flexibility required by a small business is, therefore, crucial and the importance of socialisation is increased.

#### **4.3.1 Organisational structures**

All respondents stated that their organisations were relatively ‘flat’ in terms of hierarchical layers. Respondent F’s organisation was the flattest with three layers. Three respondents, C, D, and G, said that their organisations had four layers while respondent A’s organisation had five. However, respondents A and D’s organisations, being part of larger groups, had external layers of management. Therefore, respondent A’s organisation had six layers while respondent D’s organisation had five layers. Respondent D did state, however, that the degree of external input and authority from higher levels was extremely limited. Respondents B and E’s organisations both had five hierarchical levels. The different numbers of layers in the organisations surveyed did not seem to have any appreciable impact on the socialisation processes. For example, the achievement of advancement by non-Irish-national entrants was similar in all organisations surveyed. See Section 4.3.2 for more on advancement of non-Irish-nationals.

#### **4.3.2 Level of employment and advancement of non-Irish-nationals**

According to Taris and Feij (2004) organisational newcomers may be encouraged to integrate into the workforce if they believe that good performance and the establishment of relationships with experienced organisational members will lead to advancement within that organisation. However, Taris and Feij also found that the lack of any attempt to achieve promotion may indicate a “failed or incomplete socialisation process” (p. 544). In the present study, all respondents stated that non-Irish-nationals were predominantly employed at lower levels in their organisations. However, all respondents reported that some non-Irish-national employees had been promoted to higher levels such as drivers, supervisors, or management positions. Respondent D commented specifically on the willingness of the non-Irish-nationals employed in that organisation to assume responsible positions. He contrasted this with the Irish employees in that organisation who were frequently reluctant to take such positions.

### **4.3.3 Turnover rates of Irish and non-Irish employees**

Jones (1986) outlined how an organisational entrant's 'intention to leave' a job may serve as an indicator of the success of the socialisation process. Also, Lueke and Svyantek (2000) found that poor relations between cultural groups within an organisation may cause an increase in staff turnover within that organisation. In the present study, respondents were questioned on the turnover rates of both Irish and non-Irish-national employees in their organisations. This was done in order to assess the success of socialisation of non-Irish nationals as well as the effect of their entrance on the overall staff turnover rates of those organisations. Five respondents, A, B, E, F, and G, said that the overall turnover rates of employees, including both Irish and non-Irish-national, in their organisations was low. Respondents F and G described situations in which no Irish employee had left the organisation for in excess of ten years. Respondent D described a more mixed situation. Some employees stay for long periods while others leave within two years, with the non-Irish-national employees tending to stay longer than the Irish employees. Respondent C described a similar situation, noting, however that those employed at more senior levels tended to remain with the organisation longer than those employed at lower levels.

Two respondents, A and G, described the turnover rates of non-Irish-national employees as being approximately equivalent to that of Irish staff. It should be noted that one of these, respondent A, did caution that it was still too early to spot any definite pattern as non-Irish-nationals had only been employed by his firm for about three years. He speculated that people might start to leave after another two years. Respondent G echoed this opinion, pointing out the possibility that although the non-Irish-national employees had not been with his organisation for very long, he believed that the older members of staff might leave after about five years while the younger people might stay for longer than that. Two respondents, D and E, noted that non-Irish-employees were staying for longer periods than their Irish counterparts while respondent B stated that they were staying for shorter periods than the Irish workers. Finally, respondent F found that the length of tenure of non-Irish-national employees with that organisation was gradually increasing over time.

Two respondents, respondents A and E, believed that the financial rewards of working in an Irish firm were important in determining the lengths of tenure of non-Irish-national workers. A third, respondent D, described another possible determinant of lengths of tenure. He observed that as non-Irish-national employees have less financial and family commitments in Ireland, they may be able to devote more time and effort to a job than their Irish counterparts. Respondent E speculated that Polish culture might play a role in this regard. He found that Polish people are generally extremely loyal and preferred to remain with a single employer if at all possible. Lastly, respondent B, who observed an increase in lengths of tenure of non-Irish workers in his organisation, attributed this to the growing community of non-national workers both in the organisation and in the country at large. Respondent B stated that this has led to reduced levels of isolation and homesickness and, therefore, less pressure on non-Irish-national workers to return home.

Overall, turnover rates were reported as being low for both Irish and non-Irish-national employees. All five respondents from the manufacturing organisations surveyed, A, B, E, F, and G, reported that non-Irish-national employees were remaining with their organisations for reasonably long periods of time. The respondents from the service organisations, C and D, offered responses to this question that differed quite markedly from each other. Respondent D stated that non-Irish-nationals were tending to remain for quite long periods of time, frequently longer than Irish employees in fact. By contrast, respondent C stated that the turnover rates of non-Irish-nationals in that organisation was quite high. Respondent C also reported that the subsequent separation of the workforce along cultural lines had contributed to a rise in the turnover rate of Irish employees. This was consistent with Lueke and Svyantek (2000) who found that negative relations between different cultural groups within an organisation may cause an increase in staff turnover.

#### **4.3.4 Flexibility**

According to Hill and Stewart (2000) SMEs frequently operate in a flexible manner as they strive to compete in the small firm sector. In the present study, all respondents stated that their organisations required high levels of flexibility from their employees in terms of both hours worked and role switching. Respondent F emphasised this in



particularly strong terms stating that organisation flexibility is of paramount importance in that organisation. All respondents stated that non-Irish-nationals in their organisations have no problems in meeting this requirement of flexibility. Also, all respondents emphasised the fact that non-Irish-nationals are in the company with a single minded desire to earn money and improve their status. This has the result of making non-Irish-nationals willing to work long hours where Irish employees might refuse to do so. Respondent B contrasted this with the somewhat less diligent attitude which he believed to be prevalent among Irish workers. He described the Irish workers in that organisation as being “*eight to five*”, meaning that their willingness to work overtime was less than that of the non-Irish-national employees. All respondents stated that the work ethic among the non-Irish nationals was very strong with no problems arising concerning issues such as attendance.

#### **4.4 The role of Human Resource Management in the socialisation process**

According to Baker and Feldman (1993) there is a strong link between the HRM strategies and the socialisation tactics employed by an organisation. This sub-section of the chapter examines the HRM policies in place in the organisations analysed in this research with particular emphasis on the presence of a human resource specialist in the organisation and the specific human resource policies in place regarding contracts of employment, performance appraisal, disciplinary procedures, grievance procedures and training methods.

##### **4.4.1 Human resource specialist in the organisation**

Four of the respondents surveyed, B, C, D, and F, reported that they fulfilled the role of human resource specialist themselves while a fifth, respondent G, reported that the organisations health and safety officer acted in this role. This was consistent with McEvoy (1984) who found that small firms generally did not employ HRM specialists. Respondent A, whose company is now part of a larger indigenous group, reported that HR expertise is centralised in headquarters. It is perhaps worth noting, however, that this respondent enjoys a considerable degree of independence in the methods he employs to socialise non-Irish employees: He disclosed that:

*“Management from the other two plants in the group take a different approach to integrating the non-Irish-national employees. People from the other branches were surprised to see that we had all the safety standards posted in dual language”*

Respondents A and E stated that a Polish person has been employed by the organisation in the role of human resource specialist specifically to deal with non-Irish employees.

#### **4.4.2 Human resource management policies**

Written contracts of employment are in use in five of the organisations surveyed. The remaining two, the organisations managed by respondents B and F favoured more informal agreements with employees. All respondents reported that they employed some form of employee performance appraisal in their organisations. Formal appraisal methods were in use in three organisations, those managed by respondents A, C, and E, while the remaining four, B, D, F, and G, utilised informal appraisal methods. Six of the organisations surveyed have formal, written disciplinary procedures in place, although respondent D disclosed that that organisation seldom used such formal disciplinary procedures as informal methods were favoured. The seventh, respondent F, utilised informal methods for disciplinary issues. Similarly, four of the respondents surveyed, respondents B, C, D, and F relied on formal, written grievance procedures. The remaining three, respondents D, F, and G utilised informal, ad hoc methods on a case by case basis. Three respondents, A, C, and E described the training methods in use in their organisations as formal while two others, respondents B and G, described the training as informal. The final two respondents, D and F, stated that both formal and informal training methods were used in their organisations.

The degree of formality reported varied widely; respondents from the manufacturing sector A, and E, stated that they used formal procedures for all the purposes listed above while respondents B, F, and G, stated that they adopted a compromise position, using a mixture of formal and informal methods.

In the services sector organisations, respondent C described using a completely formal set of HRM policies while respondent D stated that he employed a mixture of formal and informal procedures.

#### **4.5 Influence of the owner/manager or general manager on the socialisation process**

Owner/managers frequently have considerable influence and power within their organisations (Marlow and Patton, 1993; Matlay, 1999). This section covers the owner/manager or general manager's influence on the socialisation process in their respective organisations. It includes data on the leadership style adopted by the owner manager or general manager and his or her education level as well as previous experience in managing diverse groups.

##### **4.5.1 Leadership style**

Respondent A stated that it has become necessary to adopt two completely different management styles in dealing with the two groups of workers now employed by his company. A consultative approach has been necessary when dealing with the Irish workers and a more direct, authoritarian style was found to be appropriate with the Polish workers as that is what they are most comfortable with. This is consistent with the work of Jung and Avolio (1999) who found that leadership styles did not necessarily prove equally effective when dealing with culturally diverse employees. They found that individuals from collectivist societies performed best when leaders strove to forge long-term relationships. Conversely, individuals from individualist societies, performed best when mutually beneficial short-term relationships were established. This is also consistent with the work of Hofstede (2008), who found that in several important respects, Poland and Ireland differ in terms of cultural attitudes. Polish people are strongly inclined toward collectivism, which means that they have a strong concern for the group, as opposed to individualism. On the other hand, Irish people are somewhat less inclined toward collectivism. Also, Polish people are significantly more accepting of authority than Irish people (Hofstede, 2008). Three respondents, B, E, and F, stated that they employed a direct style of management, making decisions without consultation with the employees. Respondent C stated that decisions of a relatively minor nature

were made in consultation with employees while major decisions were made solely by management. Respondent G described the current practice within that organisation as '*top down with consultation*'. He also noted that efforts were currently being made to improve the communication system within the organisation with a view to developing a more consultative method of decision making. Respondents A and D stated that decisions in their organisations were made in consultation with employees.

The use of authoritarian styles was more prevalent in manufacturing organisations than in services. Three respondents from organisations in the manufacturing sector reported using authoritarian styles of management while two others stated that they were more flexible in their approach, employing consultative leadership styles where possible and appropriate. Both respondents from the service sector organisations used a more consultative management style.

#### **4.5.2 Owner/manager or operations manager's experience of managing culturally diverse groups of employees**

None of the respondents interviewed had prior experience of managing a culturally diverse workgroup in Ireland. Three respondents, respondents C, D, and E, did, however, have direct experience of managing a diverse group of employees whilst working abroad. Respondents B and F said that members of their management team had experience of managing such a group. Two respondents, A and G, described a situation in which neither they nor any of the management team members had such management experience. Those with experience of managing diverse groups of employees, or with access to other staff members with such experience, elaborated on how they were able to draw upon these experiences to assist them in their current situation. Respondent B described how a partner in his organisation had managed groups in Saudi Arabia which included "*South Africans, Iraqis, Iranians, New Zealanders and Australians*". This business partner had gained practical knowledge in the process which has been invaluable to the organisation. Respondent C described having had personal experiences of managing diverse groups in the USA and the Caribbean. Because of this, respondent C was able to draw parallels between that experience and the current organisational situation. The previous workforce that that

respondent had managed in the USA based organisation included many employees of Caribbean origin. Respondent C said that:

*“It has definitely helped. For example, we have a couple of South African and Cameroonian nationals with us and their mentality would be very similar to that of the Caribbean people”*

Respondent E also had some experience of managing diverse groups of employees. He learned to appreciate the fact that different cultural groups have different ways of working. He said *“I got used to differences between different groups of people”*. Respondent A did not have any direct experience of managing culturally diverse groups of employees but asserted that his experience as a worker in foreign countries allowed him to empathise with the situations of the foreign workers he now employs.

Both respondents from the service organisations had prior experience of managing a diverse workforce. The responses from those operating in the manufacturing sector were more mixed, however, with three respondents, B, E, and F, stating that they or members of their management teams had such experience while two, A and G, did not.

#### **4.5.3 Education levels of owner/managers or operations managers**

The findings showed that respondents were quite evenly split between those who had higher level qualifications and those who did not. For example, respondents A, B, C, and E had higher level qualifications while respondents D, F, and G did not. Findings were equally mixed for both sectors; one respondent from a service organisation, respondent C, reported having higher level qualifications while the other, respondent D, did not. Similarly, three respondents from manufacturing organisations, A, B, and E, possessed third level qualifications while the remaining two, F and G, did not. Respondent A had a Masters Degree in Business Administration (MBA) which was the highest education level of the respondents surveyed. It is also worth noting that his MBA thesis focused on the differences between national cultures. He stated that this had helped to prepare him for the task of managing a culturally diverse group of employees.

The respondents with third level qualifications employed a greater variety of socialisation methods than those without such qualifications. For instance, three respondents who had been educated to third level, A, B, and E, arranged social events for all employees. On the other hand, only respondent F, who did not have third level qualifications reported arranging such events. Similarly, two respondents with third level qualifications, A and C, reported assisting non-Irish-national with practical matters such as finding accommodation while only respondent, D, without such qualifications reported providing such assistance.

#### **4.6 The role played by indigenous employees in the socialisation process**

This section of the chapter examines the role of the influence of indigenous employees in the socialisation process. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) contended that the responsibility for socialisation of new employees in organisations is not only placed upon management but is shared across the entire organisation. This is frequently necessary as it is extremely difficult for an organisation to supply an entrant with all the information that he or she may need to assume a role within that organisation. The entrant may therefore be compelled to seek supplemental information about their new role in the organisation (Miller and Jablin, 1991). For reasons such as the language barrier, this may be an especially difficult task for culturally diverse entrants (Johnson and Redmond, 2000). Therefore the role of the indigenous employees in the task of assisting organisational entrants may assume greater importance than it would for indigenous entrants as non-Irish-national entrants may be quite dependent on assistance from established employees as they enter an unfamiliar environment. The instructions issued by management to the Irish workgroup in this regard are detailed in this section, along with data on the roles played by individual Irish employees in the socialisation process. Finally, findings on the acceptance or otherwise of the non-Irish-national entrants by Irish employees are presented.

#### **4.6.1 Provision of instruction to indigenous employees as a group on appropriate responses to non-Irish-national entrants**

Three respondents, A, B, and E reported that they spoke to their Irish employees as a group prior to the initial recruitment of non-Irish-national employees. These respondents instructed their employees to assist the non-Irish-national recruits as they settled in. Two respondents, A, and B encountered problems in this task. For example, respondent A had not planned to give any instruction to Irish staff members until signs of a somewhat hostile attitude towards the entrance of non-Irish-nationals became apparent among the Irish employees. This led to a staff meeting being convened and instructions on the matter were then issued by the respondent. Respondent B encountered similar problems as signs of a suspicious attitude concerning the impending entrance of non-Irish-national entrants to that organisation became evident.

The remaining organisations, those managed by respondents C, D, F, and G, did not issue any instructions to their Irish-national employees as they did not perceive a requirement to do so. They stated that they did not see the entrance of non-Irish-national employees as being any different from the entrance of any other employee to their organisations. Because of this attitude, they did not speak to their Irish employees before the non-Irish-nationals began work in their organisations. Respondent D said that:

*“I didn’t believe it was necessary as I knew the group the non-Irish-nationals were about to join were friendly and welcoming. There has not been any problem in terms of the welcome extended”*

The majority of manufacturing organisations, respondents A, B, and E issued such instructions to the Irish employees as a group. In this instance, the findings from the service organisations differed from those from manufacturing sector as neither respondent from the service sector companies surveyed reported issuing such instructions the group of Irish employees.

#### **4.6.2 Informal social events (events organised by staff)**

In three organisations, those managed by respondents C, F and G, staff arrange informal social gatherings for themselves which are attended by both Irish and non-Irish staff members. In addition, respondent C said that the employees organise football matches for themselves in which both Irish and non-Irish employees participate in. The other four respondents stated that social gatherings are not arranged by employees in their organisations although they may occur accidentally in local pubs. Two of these, respondents A and B, found, that the non-Irish-nationals were far more likely to meet socially with people from their own community. Respondent A illustrated the pattern in the following way:

*“You have pubs that cater to Polish people so there’s no incentive to mix, they stay within their own community. There’s no animosity but there isn’t a great degree of integration of the Irish and non-Irish-national employees in the organisation”*

Respondent B concurred with this stating that a large Lithuanian population in the region where that organisation is based might tend to limit such interaction in his organisation. Such a lack of social interaction may signal a lack of success in the socialisation process.

#### **4.6.3 The role of individual Irish employees in the socialisation of non-Irish-national entrants**

Respondents B and D stated that they have each informally charged one Irish employee with the task of assisting the socialisation of non-Irish-national entrants. Respondent G stated that the pairing of non-Irish-national organisational entrants with experienced Irish employees was a practice in the past but that this no longer occurs. Two other respondents, A and F, stated that individual Irish employees had established good relationships with some non-Irish-national entrants and had informally provided assistance to non-Irish newcomers whenever possible. It should be emphasised that these employees were not assigned these duties by the owner/managers or operations



managers, they had assumed these roles entirely on their own initiative. Anakwe and Greenhaus (1999) noted that this type of assistance from an entrant's peers is of vital importance to the successful conclusion of the socialisation process.

#### **4.6.4 Acceptance of non-Irish-national employees by Irish workers**

Six respondents stated that non-national workers had been largely accepted by the Irish workers in their organisations. However, all, apart from respondent F, outlined varying degrees of reservation on the part of Irish workers. These reservations ranged from respondent G who stated that all Irish employees, except for *'one or two'*, had accepted the non-Irish nationals to respondent E who described an atmosphere of underlying tension and resentment in his organisation. Respondent E stated that *"the Irish feel that there is little or no effort to integrate made by the Polish employees"*.

The proportion of non-Irish workers employed has increased in all the organisations surveyed. This changing numerical balance has affected the dynamics within the organisations. This was illustrated by respondent E when he stated that the Polish workers in his organisation have become *"a stronger more tightly knit group than the Irish and the Irish cannot accept that"*. As their numbers increase, he said that the non-Irish-nationals feel that the need to integrate has become less pressing and the Irish employees resent this. Respondent C recounted observing a similar pattern. This respondent said *"because the Irish are probably the minority, they are saying that they feel discriminated against"*.

Respondent A noted that Irish employees expressed misgivings about the work ethic of the non-Irish-national employees *"because the Polish workers take on a heavier workload than the Irish."* A similar type of suspicion was described by respondent F who noted a slight element of *'scepticism'* among Irish workers as non-Irish-nationals first entered the organisation. This suspicion has since faded as good relationships have developed between the groups in respondent F's organisation. Respondent B disclosed that there had been problems in this regard in his organisation and that he has been compelled to intervene on several occasions to prevent conflict between Irish and non-Irish employees.

Respondents B and E stated that levels of resentment among Irish workers have become a problem. Respondent B attributed this to a fear among Irish workers that their jobs may be under threat. He viewed this as an issue that Irish workers had with management rather than the non-Irish workers. He stated that:

*“They don’t look at the foreign national as the problem; they look at the employer employing them. Some of the Irish workers wonder if there will eventually be no Irish people employed in the firm and it will be completely staffed by the non-Irish-nationals”*

#### **4.7 Summary**

The purpose of this chapter was to present the findings of the current study which focused on seven small to medium sized firms who employ non-Irish-national people. The findings contained in this chapter were obtained through semi structured interviews carried out with the owner/managers or operations managers of the seven organisations selected. These organisations were drawn from both the manufacturing and service sectors. Non-Irish-national employees accounted for a minimum of twenty per cent of the workforce of each of the organisations surveyed. This study has been conducted with the aim of gaining insight into the methods currently employed by the Irish SMEs surveyed to socialise non-Irish-nationals into organisations and the factors impacting on the formulation of these methods. The findings of this study will contribute to the growing body of literature in the areas of socialisation and diversity management. The findings of this current study have been divided into five themes:

1. The methods of socialisation of non-Irish-national employees in use in the SME sector

This theme included data on the recruitment of non-Irish-nationals, induction, difficulties in integrating non-Irish-national employees into the workforce, problems arising from cultural differences and the measures taken to rectify these problems. Data

on additional methods of socialisation formulated and employed by respondents was also included. These supplementary measures are unique to each organisation and, as such, do not appear in previous literature in the area. Data on responses by the non-Irish-nationals to the socialisation tactics employed was also presented in this section.

2. The impact of individual SME characteristics on the implementation of socialisation methods

This theme included findings on the structures of the organisations surveyed as well as turnover rates of both Irish and Non-Irish employees. Findings on employee flexibility and the ability of non-national employees to meet the required levels of flexibility were also presented. In addition, data on the roles and responsibilities of non-Irish-nationals in the organisations surveyed was presented along with findings on their progression in those organisations.

3. The role of HRM in the socialisation process

This theme included findings concerning the HRM policies in place in the organisations. Subsections were presented here on the presence of a human resource specialist in the organisation and the specific human resource policies in place regarding contracts of employment, performance appraisal, disciplinary procedures, grievance procedures and training methods.

4. The influence of the owner/manager or operations manager on the socialisation process

This theme covered the leadership style adopted by the owner manager or operations manager, his or her qualifications and his or her previous experience in managing diverse groups of employees.

5. The role played by indigenous employees in the socialisation process

This theme included findings on the role of the influence of indigenous employees in the socialisation process. Subsections covered the instructions issued by management

to Irish employees as a group in order to assist socialisation and the role of individual Irish employees as agents of socialisation. Findings on the acceptance or otherwise of the non-Irish-national entrants by Irish employees were also presented in this chapter.

The findings which were presented in this chapter are discussed in Chapter 5.

## **Chapter 5: Discussion of Findings**

### **5.1 Chapter overview**

The aim of the present study was to examine the socialisation of non-Irish-nationals into Irish SMEs. It also sought to identify and describe the various factors which contributed to how the socialisation processes proceed. The objective of this chapter is to discuss the findings of the primary research. The findings have outlined the processes of socialisation of non-Irish-nationals into SMEs in the South East of Ireland which were observed in the organisations surveyed. The findings also indicated that some of the outcomes of the socialisation process have been somewhat unsuccessful for several of the organisations examined and these findings are also discussed. This chapter focuses upon the following four major points.

The first point discussed is the socialisation methods employed by the organisations surveyed, including the HRM methods which impacted on the process. In particular, these findings focus on the induction methods formulated and employed in the organisation as well as the recruitment process for non-Irish-nationals.

The second point discussed is the role of the owner/manager or operations manager in the process. In particular, the leadership styles adopted by the respondents are examined. The usefulness or otherwise of that management style for the task of socialising non-Irish-nationals is also appraised.

The third point discussed in this chapter is the role of established employees as agents of socialisation. The roles of both Irish and non-Irish-employees receive attention in this section and the relative importance of each is considered.

The final point discussed in this chapter is the separation of the workforces of several of the organisations surveyed into two groups; Irish and non-Irish-national. This was a particularly striking outcome of some of the socialisation processes. The likely contributory factors to this outcome are also discussed in this section.

## **5.2 The socialisation methods employed in SMEs surveyed**

As individuals enter an organisation, they must learn about their role and about the organisation itself in order to become useful members of that organisation (Brown, 1998). As they attempt to absorb all they can about their roles and their new working environment, they go through a process of 'organisational socialisation' (Schein, 1971; Van-Maanen and Schein, 1979). As Louis (1980) has noted, this is a difficult and confusing process and the organisation may wish to provide assistance by furnishing the entrant with information on the preferred ways of doing things within that organisation (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2004). In the present study, all organisations surveyed provided some form of guidance to the recruit during their socialisation processes which was consistent with Buchanan and Huczynski (2004). This guidance took the form of informal measures such as mentoring of newcomers by established employees which occurred in six organisations, those managed by respondents A, B, D, E, F, and G. In all SMEs surveyed, with the exception of respondent D's organisation, the informal socialisation methods were complimented by a planned, formal component such as the provision of induction packs in dual language format.

This finding is interesting because previous research on socialisation has focused largely on how the process is carried out in larger organisations while small firms, by contrast, have received relatively little attention. Due to this lack of previous research, it had been unclear what types of socialisation measures, if any, would be observed. This study has found that the small firms surveyed do engage in socialisation of non-Irish-national using socialisation processes which were designed in-house. Specifically, it was established that six of the seven organisations surveyed used formal induction techniques upon the organisational entry of a new recruit. These induction methods took the form of tours of the premises, introductory talks and the provision of induction packs in the entrants' native language.

The owner/managers or operations managers of these six organisations specifically decided to invest organisational resources on the translation of induction materials designed to assist the socialisation of organisational entrants. The fact that such socialisation methods were employed may suggest that the owner/managers or

operations managers surveyed are cognisant of the requirement to adjust their organisations' socialisation methods to deal effectively with the influx of non-Irish-national employees. It should be noted, however, that the formal induction methods implemented in several of the organisations surveyed did not differ radically from the induction processes used for indigenous recruits.

Three respondents, C, E, and F, disclosed that they spent half a day on the process although a fourth respondent, A, reported that his organisation spent two days on the induction process. In all organisations, these induction sessions tended to concentrate on generic issues such as health and safety. This was consistent with Buchanan and Huczynski (2004) and Mujitba and Sims (2006) who regarded formal induction processes frequently employed by organisations as being 'brief and superficial'. Only one respondent, A, stated that the 'standard' induction documentation was supplemented with material specifically prepared for the non-Irish-national entrants to that organisation.

The finding that methods such as the provision of induction packs to newcomers was used by several SMEs surveyed was consistent with Bacon, Ackers, Storey and Coates (1996). Bacon et al. found that SMEs frequently utilised relatively sophisticated methods such as the provision of induction packs in their management of human resources. There were also a number of supplementary socialisation measures employed by several organisations which were designed specifically for the non-Irish-national entrants. For example respondents A and C provided assistance with banking for non-Irish entrants and respondent D provided on-site living accommodation for non-Irish-national entrants to that organisation. This tailoring of induction methods for non-Irish national entrants was consistent with McMillan-Capehart (2005) who recommended that organisations should adjust their socialisation tactics to deal with diverse entrants. She warned that organisations with high levels of diversity would experience negative consequences such as increased conflict if managers did not attempt to aid socialisation of culturally diverse entrants through use of carefully designed and implemented socialisation methods.

In the present study, all organisations surveyed used HRM methods of a relatively formal nature. However, there was one notable exception in this regard. This exception

was the ad-hoc recruitment methods which were used in all organisations. This relatively high degree of formality in the HRM methods used by the SMEs surveyed was interesting because previous research by Jameson (2000) had indicated that that informal, ad-hoc methods of human resource management were prevalent in small firms. Specifically, written contracts of employment were in use in five organisations surveyed, those managed by respondents A, C, D, E, and G, and all organisations surveyed used some form of employee appraisal whether formal or informal. Also, four of the seven organisations surveyed had drawn up formal disciplinary procedures and three SMEs, those managed by respondents A, B, and C, had policies regarding bullying and harassment in place. In addition six of the seven organisations surveyed had formal written procedures for the handling of grievances in place though they are used sparingly. This finding was consistent with MacMahon, (1996) who suggested that small firms seldom needed to employ formal HRM policies.

The HRM policies of all SMEs surveyed had proven sufficiently flexible to allow non-Irish-national employees achieve advancement within those organisations. The importance of organisational progression in achieving successful socialisation and reducing turnover had previously been noted by Jones (1986). This is particularly relevant for Polish employees in Irish organisations as they tend to possess high levels of education and ambition and may simply leave an organisation if advancement proves impossible (Niehoff and Maciocha, 2007). It was therefore interesting to note that respondent C reported that the turnover rates of non-Irish-national employees who had been promoted to higher levels of that organisation was lower than those employed at lower levels.

The present study found that all organisations surveyed from both manufacturing and service sectors relied primarily on informal methods to recruit non-Irish national employees. Specifically, all organisations surveyed used recommendations from established non-Irish-national employees to assist in the recruitment and selection of more non-Irish-nationals. This reliance on recommendations was consistent with Duberly and Walley (1995) who found that employee recommendations were a very common recruitment method used by small firms. It is interesting to note that this informal approach to recruitment contrasts sharply with the formal recruitment processes favoured by larger firms. According to Curran and Stanworth (1979) large



firms generally insist on entrants having established employment histories while owner/managers in small firms are often willing to recruit workers from a wide variety of backgrounds with varying levels of qualification.

This informal approach to recruitment was illustrated by the description of an almost accidental beginning of the policy of recruitment of non-Irish-nationals by respondent B. Respondent B described the policy of recruiting non-Irish-nationals into his organisation as a 'stumble job' which had begun as the organisation strove to meet labour shortfalls. This recruitment policy was not part of any long term plan. It is the contention of the author of the present study that all organisations from both sectors surveyed relied on post-entry socialisation of entrants to achieve person/organisation fit rather than more tightly controlled recruitment and selection methods. This was evidenced by the fact that all seven organisations surveyed used recommendations to recruit new employees. Due to this reliance on recommendations, a degree of organisational control over the recruitment process was effectively ceded to their existing non-Irish-national employees. This finding that socialisation was the favoured method of ensuring that a recruit would fit in with the organisation was consistent with Feldman (1976). In addition, Feldman (1976) noted that socialisation was particularly important for the recruitment of employees at the lower levels of an organisation. Previous research has also shown that socialisation is of particular importance when dealing with culturally diverse recruits (McMilan-Capehart, 2005).

This widespread use of employee recommendations as a recruitment method has implications for the socialisation process. For example, according to Carroll, Marchington, Earnshaw and Taylor (1999) when a recruit enters an organisation after being recommended for employment by an existing employee, he or she is likely to be socialised by that employee. Non-Irish-national employees were recruited in groups in all five manufacturing organisations and in one service organisation. It is reasonable to assume that the entering groups may have had a significant influence on each other. This, therefore, constitutes group socialisation. The author of the present study contends that the majority of non-Irish-national recruits were socialised by fellow non-Irish-nationals. This was evidenced by the significant role which established non-Irish-national employees played in assisting the adjustment of non-Irish-national entrants. It should also be noted that these organisational entrants were frequently acquainted with

each other as well as those who recommended them prior to their entry to the organisations. For example, respondent C noticed that non-Irish-national employees of that organisation tended to cluster together during breaks. Respondent C attributed this to the fact that many of these employees were familiar with each other before entering the organisation.

The fact that entrants were previously acquainted with each other also contributed to the collective nature of their socialisation. This contention is supported by Fisher (1986) who found that organisations find it difficult to exert a significant influence over a group of recruits as appointing appropriate mentors to each entrant may prove impossible. For this reason, when a group of recruits enter an organisation at the same time, they tend to socialise each other (Van-Maanen, 1978). It should be noted, however, that other newcomers are deemed inappropriate sources of information for entrants (Louis, Posner, and Powell, 1983).

The role of experienced non-Irish-national employees in the socialisation process is described in section 5.4. The author of the current study further contends that this high level of interaction between established and entering non-Irish-national employees has led to detrimental consequences for several organisations such as those described by five respondents, A, B, C, D, E. These respondents described varying degrees of separation of their workforces into two groups; Irish and non-Irish-national.

In the present study, the socialisation processes observed in six organisations surveyed may be described as relatively formal, though it should be noted that none of the more intensive institutionalised organisational socialisation tactics described by Van-Maanen and Schein (1979) were used in any case. These institutionalised techniques, such as sequential tactics in which a recruit goes through a prolonged, pre-planned indoctrination process, are generally considered impractical for smaller organisations (Jones, 1986). It is interesting to note that two respondents, A and C, had arranged language classes for their non-Irish-national employees but had been forced to discontinue these due to the excessive costs involved. The apparent inability of these SMEs to fund this socialisation method is consistent with Welsh and White (1981) who found that SMEs frequently suffered from what they termed 'resource poverty'. The author of the present study suggests that SMEs may be at something of a disadvantage

in this regard as the larger resource bases of a bigger firm might have permitted the implementation of such methods.

The use of semi-formal socialisation methods is consistent with Jones (1986), who found that individualised and informal socialisation processes were more suitable for the requirements of small organisations than institutionalised methods. Also, McMillan-Capehart (2005) has noted that semi-formal methods are eminently suitable for organisations with culturally diverse workforces.

### **5.3 The owner/manager or operations manager as an agent of socialisation**

One of the objectives of the current research was to examine the role of the owner/manager or operations manager in organisational socialisation. Previous research has established that the owner/manager or operations manager occupies a particularly important and influential position in SMEs (Storey and Sykes, 1996). This influence is particularly strong for a founder of an organisation (Pettigrew, 1979). Also, the literature reviewed indicates that the practical decisions concerning human resource management are usually under the control of a single individual; the owner manager (Mc Evoy, 1984; Marlow and Patton, 1993; Martin and Staines, 1994; Matlay, 1999; Hill and Stewart, 2000). This previous research was supported by the findings of the current study as the owner/manager or operations manager played a key role in the formulation and implementation of the HRM methods employed in all organisations surveyed. The owner/manager or operations managers also played a key role in the formulation of the induction methods used to assist the socialisation of non-Irish-national entrants.

The leadership tactics adopted by respondents in the current study may not always have been conducive to the socialisation of non-Irish-nationals as Polish people, who comprised the vast majority of the non-Irish-nationals employed by the organisations surveyed, differ considerably from Irish people in their attitudes toward authority. Polish people are much more accepting of authority than Irish people who are more likely to resist and question it (Hofstede, 2008).

In the present study, several owner/managers or operations managers employed an authoritarian style of management, that is they were able to make decisions and implement policies with little or no consultation of the staff in those organisations. Three respondents from manufacturing organisations, B, E, and F, reported using an authoritarian management style while respondents A and G stated that they favoured a semi authoritarian approach. By contrast, the respondents from both service organisations, C and D, used a consultative style of management. However, it was interesting to note that the authoritarian style of management adopted by some owner/managers did not necessarily appear to contribute to successful socialisation of the non-Irish-national entrants. For instance, respondents A and F both used authoritarian styles of management when dealing with non-Irish-national employees and both reported reasonably positive results in terms of the integration of these entrants. This apparently beneficial effect of this style of leadership was consistent with Goffree and Jones (1998) who found that a 'strong' leader can contribute to achieving cohesion within the organisation.

However, respondent E also utilised an authoritarian leadership style and he reported quite severe problems in terms of the integration of the two groups of employees. On the other hand, those respondents who adopted more consultative styles, such as respondents C and D, also reported problems in terms of integration.

An interesting finding from the current study was that one respondent, A, stated that he consciously uses two different management styles when dealing with the two groups of workers in that organisation. He found that an authoritarian style worked best when dealing with Polish employees while a consultative approach was most effective for Irish employees. It is interesting to note that this respondent had previously studied cultural differences as part of his Masters Degree in Business Administration (MBA). He said that this had helped prepare him for the task of managing a culturally diverse workforce. This adoption of different leadership styles for different cultural groups is consistent with Jung and Avolio (1999) and Jackson (2002) who recommended that managers must be adaptable in their dealings with culturally diverse groups of employees. Also, Hofstede (2001) stated that a consultative management style may be most appropriate when dealing with individualistic employees while a more authoritarian approach may be most suitable for employees from a collectivist

background. Also, in recent research conducted in an Irish context, Quinn (2007) found that Irish supervisors have had to adjust to the more direct communication style of Polish workers.

The present study established that several owner/managers or operations managers had previous experience of managing a diverse workforce. Three respondents, C, D, and E, reported that they had personal experience of managing groups composed of culturally diverse employees while two other organisations, those managed by respondents B and F had Irish members of staff who had such experience. In the current study, those with experience of managing diverse workforces used largely the same core socialisation methods as those without such experience. For instance, induction packs were issued in six organisations despite the fact that two of those respondents did not have any experience of managing a diverse workforce. Also, respondent D did not adjust his management style despite having considerable experience of managing culturally diverse workforces. It is difficult to judge what consequences resulted from respondent D's use of a consultative management style. While relations between the groups of Irish and non-Irish employees were not as strong as those in respondent F's organisation, they were certainly no worse than those in respondent E's organisation. It should be noted that both respondent E and respondent F utilised authoritarian management styles.

Previous research had suggested that the experience and cultural knowledge of owner/managers would enable them to develop 'intercultural competence' and formulate methods appropriate for the handling of diverse workforces (Adler, 1996; Matveev and Milter, 2004). Tayeb (1996) suggested that awareness of the importance of culture is vital for managers dealing with culturally diverse employees. Similarly Matveev and Milter (2004) have emphasised the value of 'Intercultural competence' of managers comprising 'cultural knowledge, skills and personality' when dealing with a multicultural workforce. The culture of the entering individuals should be taken into account and management should use this as a guide when deciding on management methods (Adler, 1996). The findings did not, however, support the contention that experience of dealing with and knowledge of other cultures would lead to different methods of managing diverse workforces. Only one respondent, A, adjusted his management style and he did not possess any such experience. Overall,

owner/managers or operations managers who had previous experience of managing diverse workforces did not implement socialisation methods which varied significantly from those who did not possess such experience.

It is the contention of the author of the current study that owner/managers or operations managers should adjust their management styles to match the requirements and preferences of the entrants. It is also the opinion of this author that the owner/managers or operations managers of the SMEs surveyed are well placed to adopt such suitable management styles because of their considerable power within the organisations. Also, it has been demonstrated by respondent A's decision to alter his management style, that the experience of the owner/manager in managing a diverse workforce may not be the crucial factor in achieving such 'intercultural competence'. This was consistent with Porter, Lawler, and Hackman (1975) who found that leaders sometimes used different tactics having been influenced by those they supervised.

#### **5.4 Irish and non-Irish-national employees as agents of socialisation**

A considerable body of previous research has indicated that established employees within an organisation have the potential to play an extremely important role in an entrant's socialisation (Schein, 1968; Buchanan, 1974; Anakwe and Greenhaus, 1999). The current study has established that experienced employees, either Irish or non-Irish, played a significant role in the socialisation of non-Irish-national entrants in six of the organisations surveyed.

In five organisations, those managed by respondents A, B, D, E, and G, non-Irish-nationals employees provided assistance in the socialisation of non-Irish recruits. In three of these organisations, those managed by B, D, and G, non-Irish-national employees were assigned these duties informally while the other two, A and E, reported that these non-Irish-national employees were hired or promoted specifically to assist in the management of the non-Irish-national employees. The finding that the majority of the organisations surveyed availed of the assistance of established employees in the socialisation of newcomers is consistent with Buchanan and Huczynski (2004). Buchanan and Huczynski found that organisations frequently attempt to influence the socialisation of newcomers by instructing particular employees to assist newcomers.

Among the five organisations which instructed non-Irish-national employees to assist organisational entrants, four operated in the manufacturing sector while the fifth, respondent D's organisation, was a service.

Two respondents, B and D, reported that they specifically assigned mentoring roles to individual Irish employees. Two more respondents, A and F, reported that informal mentoring relationships had developed spontaneously between Irish and non-Irish staff members. Respondents A and F had not instructed these employees to assume such roles. This spontaneous development of relationships between established employee and entrants was consistent with Allen, McManus, and Russell (1999) who found that mentoring can be either initiated formally by management or can develop spontaneously as relationships between individuals take shape.

The findings of the current study have, therefore, established that non-Irish-national employees within the organisations played a greater role than Irish employees in the socialisation process. These findings are interesting because the author of the present study contends that the potential contribution of the indigenous employees in socialising the non-Irish-national entrants was underutilised in all cases.

It is the contention of the author of the present study that the use of non-Irish-national employees to recruit and socialise non-Irish-national entrants may increase the possibility of separation as it entrusts the task of assisting the entrant to a non-Irish-national employee whose values may or may not be compatible with those of the organisation to begin with. This may create an effect similar to the effect of collective socialisation noted by Van-Maanen (1978) in which organisational entrants socialise each other. Also, previous research carried out by Carroll, Marchington, Earnshaw, Taylor (1999) found that employees who recommend other employees tend to socialise that person themselves. As the employees who recommended the non-Irish-national recruits were themselves non-Irish-nationals, it may be possible that entrants may be socialised into their own cultural group rather than into the organisation as a whole. In short, the combination of the recruitment methods, the subsequent collective socialisation and the use of non-Irish-national employees as agents of socialisation may have increased the likelihood of separation.

## **5.5 Separation of Irish and non-Irish-national employees**

The present study established that some form of problems caused by cultural differences had occurred in four organisations surveyed. These problems ranged from mistranslations of humour to perceptions of aggressive conduct on the part of non-Irish-nationals among the Irish employees and management. This finding is consistent with Liao, Joshi, and Chuang (2004) who found that dissimilar employees were quite likely to engage in 'deviant behaviour'. According to Robinson and Bennett (1995) 'deviant' behaviour can include 'personal aggression'. In the current study the standard of English spoken by non-Irish-national entrants has been a barrier to integration in the majority of organisations surveyed. These findings were consistent with Swe and Kleiner (1998) who noted that communication within organisations tended to suffer due to language difficulties as diversity levels increased. This adverse effect on communications was illustrated by respondent E, whose organisation had taken on a significant number of Polish workers who were unable to speak English. He said that his organisation was reaching a 'saturation' point at which it would be unable to absorb and integrate any more workers with such poor language skills. Respondent E said that this language barrier meant had resulted in quite serious communication problems in that organisation. He disclosed that he had very limited dealings with the employees who did not speak English. Both language and cultural barriers may have been barriers to integration in organisations surveyed in the present study. One could conclude at this point that the recruitment policies employed by the organisations surveyed have not been sufficiently selective as they have, in several instances, allowed the employment of significant numbers of people whose language skills were extremely poor. This has caused serious problems in terms of integration that could have been alleviated though the use of a more stringent recruitment policy. Previous research has suggested that the process of organisational socialisation increases in difficulty and complexity when entrants of diverse cultural origin are involved (Johnson and Redmond, 2000; McMillan, and Lopez, 2001; Helms and Stern, 2001; Niefhoff and Maciocha, 2007). Cox and Finley-Nickelson (1991) identified a factor which contributed to this increase in complexity. This factor is called acculturation and is a second adjustment process which culturally diverse organisational entrants undergo in parallel with the



socialisation process. In this acculturation process, entrants have a range of strategies regarding their approach to integration at their disposal. These tactics are as follows:

- Assimilation

An entrant of culturally different background to the majority changes his or her conduct and values to match those of the culture he or she is entering. This individual will seek to establish relationships with members of the new culture and will be less concerned with sustaining relationships with members of the original culture.

- Separation

Entrants who have adopted this acculturation strategy seek to distance themselves from the new culture and, instead, seek out contact with members of the culture from which they originated.

- Deculturation

Entrants who have adopted a strategy of deculturation have not established relationships with members of the culture that they have entered. Also, they have not sought to maintain ties with their original culture. They have become 'marginalised' as they no longer belong to either culture.

- Pluralism

In this mode of acculturation the entering individual attempts to adopt elements of the new culture while at the same time maintaining contact with the old one.

(Source: Adapted from Cox and Finley-Nickelson, 1991)

These tactics interact with the socialisation process to produce results which may be either helpful or unhelpful in achieving a successful outcome of the socialisation process (Cox, 1994; Lopez and McMilan-Capehart, 2003). Assimilation and pluralism strategies are helpful while separation and deculturation tend to lead to unsuccessful socialisation.

Evidence gathered in the present study suggests that many of the non-Irish-national entrants have adopted an acculturation strategy of separation. For instance three

respondents, A, F, and G, reported that the non-Irish-nationals in those organisations mixed freely during break times. The other four respondents, B, C, D, E, however, said that such mixing was somewhat limited. This finding of limited mixing is consistent with Cox and Finley-Nickelson (1991) who found that separation was likely to occur when a group originating from the same culture entered an organisation simultaneously or, in rapid succession. Such an entering group would find it much easier to develop, or maintain, relationships amongst themselves than to establish new ones with members of the culture that they are entering.

Respondent E also noted the fact that the Polish workers in that organisation had become a unified group as their numbers had increased. He said “*they have become a stronger more tightly knit group than the Irish and the Irish can’t accept that*”. Respondents C and D also recounted observing similar types of separation. The separation of groups resulting from the entrants’ adoption of an acculturation strategy of cultural separatism is entirely consistent with Lopez and McMilan-Capehart (2003). Lopez and McMilan-Capehart found that organisational entrants who adopted a strategy of separation would tend to reject aspects of the culture which they were entering and instead choose to mix with members of their own culture as far as possible. They also noted that this strategy would tend to limit the effectiveness of any socialisation tactics employed by an organisation. The author of the present study contends that this separation occurred partly because the high proportion of migrants in each SME meant that the pressure to integrate in the workforce as a whole was relatively low for the entrants. This was most vividly illustrated by the situation described by respondent E, who reported that employees who spoke only Polish formed their own community within the organisation without having to learn English.

Previous research indicates that the arrangement of social events by organisations can serve as an effective tool to assist in the creation of a cohesive workforce (Louis, Posner and Powell, 1983; Trice and Beyer, 1984; Brown, 1998 Liao, Joshi, Black and Chuang 2004; Gilbert and Ivancevich, 2000). In the present study, four respondents, A, B, F, and E from manufacturing organisations, reported that social events were arranged at Christmas and other occasions in their organisations which were attended by both Irish and non-Irish-national employees. However, respondents B and E reported that problems in terms of resentment of the non-Irish-national workers on the part of Irish

workers had become evident because of these events. While the non-Irish-national employees of respondent B and Es' organisations did attend the social events, cultural differences had become very evident on those occasions which led to bitterness among the Irish employees. Respondent E, for instance, disclosed that Irish employees were aggrieved by what they perceived as reluctance on the part of non-Irish-national employees to pay for drinks at the function. Also, respondent B disclosed that levels of resentment among some sections of the workforce had become evident as the event was being planned.

The separation of Irish and non-Irish-national employees into distinct groups in the present study is consistent with previous research on intercultural encounters (Tsui, Egan and O'Reilly, 1992; Nemetz and Christensen, 1996; Miller and Rowney, 1999; Hofstede, 2001; Maxwell, 2004). The fact that problems of resentment and suspicion have been reported in the present study is consistent with Lincoln and Miller (1979) who found that workforces which have been monocultural in their composition for an extended period of time will tend to resist the entrance of culturally diverse employees. Similarly, Nemetz and Christensen (1996) concluded that organisations may be limited in their capacity to absorb culturally diverse entrants before "balkanisation" occurs.

In the current study, this separation may have occurred partly because the organisations have, to a large extent, played a relatively limited role in socialisation of their non-Irish-national employees. Once the initial induction process was concluded, all owner/managers or operations managers surveyed ceased to play a significant role in the process and the task of assisting the socialisation of the newcomer was frequently taken up by established non-Irish-national employees.

## **5.6 Summary**

This chapter has presented a discussion of the findings in Chapter Four. It has done so under the following headings; overview of socialisation methods employed in SMEs surveyed, the owner/manager or operations manager as an agent of socialisation, Irish and non-Irish-national employees as agents of socialisation, and the separation of Irish and non-Irish-national employees.

The main findings from this discussion have been that the socialisation methods employed were largely similar across almost all organisations surveyed, consisting of a formal induction process followed by informal processes. The owner/manager or operations managers' influence on the process is considerable. The level of experience which a manager had in managing culturally diverse workforces did not necessarily dictate whether or not the socialisation methods and management styles used in those organisations were adapted as the non-Irish-nationals entered the organisation.

Experienced employees were observed to have played an important role in the socialisation of non-Irish-national organisational entrants. Established non-Irish-national employees played a greater role in the socialisation of non-Irish-national entrants than the experienced Irish employees did. It was suggested that the fact that non-Irish-nationals were socialised by their compatriots meant that they were being socialised into the group of non-Irish-national employees rather than into the organisation as a whole.

Finally, the separation of employees into two groups was examined. The acculturation strategies employed by non-Irish-nationals were deemed to have been a contributory factor to this outcome. The sometimes negative consequences of the social events which were described by respondents may be regarded as symptomatic of the divide between the Irish and non-Irish-national employees which exists in those organisations.

There were several important overall similarities in the process of socialisation of non-Irish-national employees among the organisations surveyed in this study. The influence of the owner/manager or operations manager was important in all organisations from both sectors surveyed. The established non-Irish-national employees played a significant role in the recruitment and socialisation of non-Irish-national entrants in several instances. From these findings, one may conclude that if the processes continue to operate in this fashion in these organisations, with non-Irish-nationals playing such a significant role in socialising their compatriots, then the pattern of separation described will continue and the groups will become increasingly polarised and entrenched. To counteract this, it makes sense that Irish employees should be trained to play a greater role in the socialisation of non-Irish-nationals being employed in their organisations. This is consistent with Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) and Cooper-Thomas and

Anderson (2002) who found that a simple and effective way for management to improve the results of the socialisation process was to train established employees to assist organisational entrants.

The next chapter of this thesis will present the conclusions drawn from the present study. It will also outline the limitations of the present research and make recommendations for future research.

## **Chapter 6: Conclusions, limitations, and recommendations**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The overall goal of this study has been to describe in detail the socialisation of non-Irish-nationals in SMEs. The research has sought to gain an insight into how socialisation of non-Irish-nationals proceeds in those organisations and whether the owner/managers or operations managers of SMEs attempt to exert any degree of influence on the process. This research is also concerned with determining precisely what form this socialisation process took.

An initial review of literature deemed relevant to the present study allowed a specific research question to be formulated. The question was:

To examine how Irish SMEs socialise non-Irish-national employees into their workforces.

How do Irish SMEs socialise non-Irish-national employees into their workforces?

The purpose of this chapter is to present conclusions which have been drawn from the findings of the present study. The limitations of the current research are also identified and examined. Finally, the chapter concludes by making some recommendations for future research in this study's subject area.

### **6.2 Conclusions**

Broadly, the findings of the present study indicated that SMEs do employ methods designed to assist the socialisation of non-Irish-national employees. This study found that non-Irish-nationals are socialised into SMEs through a mixture of formal and informal socialisation processes. The overall socialisation process is comprised of two phases. Firstly, non-Irish-national entrants underwent a formal induction phase which

was directed by management. The second phase was a largely uncontrolled informal process in which the established employees of the organisation played a key role. These induction processes were adapted specially to meet the needs of the entering non-Irish-national employees. This demonstrated that the SMEs surveyed were conscious of the need to alter their management methods to deal effectively with the rapid influx of non-Irish-national organisational entrants. The fact that the SMEs surveyed formulated and implemented induction processes specifically designed to meet the needs of non-Irish-national entrants was an interesting finding as the vast majority of previous research on organisational socialisation had focused on large organisations. Therefore, previous research had provided little indication as to whether or not the SMEs would employ organisational led socialisation tactics in an attempt to influence the adjustment of non-Irish-national newcomers. The present research established that the SMEs surveyed are adjusting their socialisation and HRM methods in response to the changing composition of their workforces.

This study also found that owner/managers or operations managers played an important role in the socialisation process. The influence of the owner/manager or operations manager was seen to be particularly important in the early stages of the socialisation process. The decisions about what types of induction methods to employ, or indeed whether to employ any at all, ultimately rested with the owner manager. In the majority of cases, the owner managers elected to translate their induction materials for the benefit of non-Irish-national entrants. However, the role of the owner/manager was limited to an extent as their planned input lasted only through the initial stages of the entrants' socialisation process. After the conclusion of the induction process, the influence of the owner/managers tended to decrease.

This study also found that established employees played an integral role in both the recruitment and socialisations of non-Irish-national employees. The findings showed that non-Irish-nationals played a relatively more influential role in the socialisation of non-Irish-national newcomers than Irish employees. This was due to the fact that all organisations surveyed used recommendations made by experienced non-Irish-national employees to recruit further non-Irish-national employees. In addition, because many of the organisations surveyed recruited non-Irish-national employees in groups as opposed to individually, these newcomers may have tended to cluster together and

influence each other. It is likely that the SMEs surveyed would have found it difficult to exert any meaningful influence over such a group of non-Irish-national recruits.

Finally, this study found that the socialisation of non-Irish-national entrants had not always been entirely successful. Some SMEs had suffered from a reduction in organisational cohesion as the workforces of several of the organisations had not coalesced into a single unit. They had instead separated into two relatively distinct groups; Irish and non-Irish-national employees. While all owner/managers or operations managers praised the abilities and strong work ethic of the non-Irish-national entrants, the loss of organisational cohesion due to separation was a recurring problem. Therefore, this researcher recommends that Irish employers should place greater emphasis on the role of Irish employees in the organisational socialisation of non-Irish-national entrants. To this end, employers should implement training programmes for their Irish employees in order to prepare them for the arrival of non-Irish-national employees and to assist in the integration process.

### **6.3 Limitations of the current research**

The present study had several limitations. The first and perhaps most important of these was the fact that only a small number of SMEs were surveyed during the study. This study's potential for generalisation to a wider population is, therefore, limited.

The sample used in the primary research component of the present study was drawn from a relatively small geographical area, the South East of Ireland. This may also have limited generalisability as it is entirely possible that different results would have been obtained had a more widely dispersed sample been used.

The study also surveyed more manufacturing than services organisations; five manufacturing and two service organisations. The examination of equal numbers of SMEs from each sector would have strengthened the comparative analysis of the sectors. This relatively low number of service sector organisations in comparison with manufacturing organisations was partly caused by the fact that greater difficulty was encountered in identifying suitable services. An Enterprise Ireland database of manufacturing organisations was used to identify suitable manufacturing organisations.



However, Enterprise Ireland does not have a corresponding database for services organisations. The cooperation of the service organisations surveyed during this study was secured through the use of personal contacts.

A further limitation of the present research was the fact that it was all the primary data used in the present study was gathered over a short period of time and each respondent was interviewed only once. This did not allow the longer term effects of the socialisation methods employed to be assessed.

The primary data gathering process focused entirely on the owner/managers or operations managers of those organisations. This decision to interview only the employers was also influenced by the fact that this study's research question was primarily focused on the actions taken by the owner/managers or operations managers of SMEs as opposed to non-Irish-national employees. However, this focus on the employer as information source limited the study to relying solely on the points of view of owner/managers or operations and excluded those of the organisation's Irish and non-Irish-national employees. Organisational research which relies on the points of view of employers and excludes those of employees has been criticised by Goss (1988) who stated that it tends to produce one-sided results.

Previous research has found that employees frequently have a moderating effect on the socialisation process due to their adoption of proactive socialisation tactics (Morrison, 1993; Grumman, Saks, and Zweig, 2006). This moderating effect is particularly strong in the case of culturally diverse entrants to an organisation (McMilan-Capehart, 2005). Gaining an insight into the points of view of non-Irish-national employees would have been useful in assessing both their perceptions of the socialisation process in general and their reactions to the socialisation methods employed. The use of multiple sources of information would therefore have allowed a more complete picture of the socialisation of non-Irish-nationals into SMEs to be presented.

#### **6.4 Recommendations for further research**

Based on the limitations outlined in Section 6.3, there are a number of recommendations for future research. The first recommendation for such research is to broaden the scope

of the study. This could be done by conducting a larger scale quantitative study on a national basis. Such a study would also incorporate enterprises from a wider range of sectors than the current study and would allow comparisons to be drawn between these sectors. The larger sample size would also produce findings which would be more generalisable than those of the current study.

This topic also presents an opportunity to focus on the issue from the point of view of non-Irish-national entrants. Such a study would draw upon the work of Jones (1986) who measured the effects of socialisation tactics on entrants as well as their impact on the process. This proposed study would differ from Jones' research in that it would focus specifically on culturally diverse organisational entrants while Jones focused on homogenous entrants. A template could be drawn up to survey the effects of the tactics on non-Irish-national entrants. Such a template could be used in both SMEs and Multi National Enterprises (MNEs).

It is also suggested that a study similar to the present one be conducted on a longitudinal basis. The full effects of a socialisation process can only be measured over a period of time. It is therefore proposed that such a longitudinal study be undertaken. This process would involve interviewing the same subjects several times over the course of the study and would allow the effects of the socialisation tactics employed to be examined.

Finally, the lack of data triangulation due to reliance on a single source of information from within each organisation surveyed was a particular limitation of the current study. It is therefore suggested that a study similar to the present one be conducted which would draw upon multiple sources from each organisation surveyed. Such a study could incorporate the perspectives of owner/managers, non-Irish-nationals and also indigenous employees. Such a study would greatly enhance internal validity.

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# Appendices

## Appendix A: Covering letter

Damien Ryan,  
Centre for Entrepreneurship,  
School of Business,  
Carriganore Campus,  
Waterford Institute of Technology,  
Waterford,

Date

Waterford,  
Ireland

Dear

Thank you for agreeing to participate in an interview as part of my MBS studies.

The title of my research project is: An examination into how Irish SMEs socialise non-Irish employees into their workforces.

The research comprises of interviewing operations managers, or owner/managers of Irish SMEs who employ both Irish nationals and non-Irish-nationals.

As a research participant, you are assured of complete confidentiality and will not be identified individually. Also, your company will not be identified in the research. If requested, you will be provided with the opportunity to view the sections of the interview which are to be included in the final thesis.

Participation in the interview process is entirely voluntary.

I will be in contact within the next week to arrange for an interview time that will suit your availability

Yours faithfully,

Damien Ryan

**Appendix B: Consent form**

Damien Ryan,  
Centre for Entrepreneurship,  
School of Business,  
Carriganore Campus,  
Waterford Institute of Technology,  
Waterford,

XXX,  
Waterford,  
Ireland

Dear

Thank you for agreeing to participate in an interview as part of my Masters by research studies.

All information disclosed during the course of this interview will be treated in the strictest confidence. The contents of the interview will be available only to myself, and my supervisor. Excerpts from the interview may be used in my research, but under no circumstances will your name or any identifying characteristics be included in the thesis.

Researcher Signature:..... Date:.....

Participant Signature:..... Date:.....

## **Appendix C: Interview Schedule**

Introductions and brief explanation of purpose. (This will already have been explained but will be gone through again at this point and any clarifications necessary will be made. Assurances on confidentiality will be repeated.)

1. What is the nature of your business?
2. What is your role in the organisation?
3. In terms of the structure of this organisation, how many layers does it have?
4. How are decisions made in this organisation?
  - Does the manager make all decisions unilaterally?
  - Are decisions made in consultation with staff?
5. How many people, overall, do you employ?
6. How many of those are non-Irish-nationals?
  - From what countries do these employees come from?
  - How are they recruited?
7. What jobs are the non-Irish-nationals performing?
8. At what levels of the organisation are non-Irish-nationals employed?
  - At operational levels?
  - At supervisory levels?
9. Why did your organisation decide to hire non-Irish-nationals?

- Was it for cost reasons?
- Was it for another reason?

10. Do new employees undergo an induction or orientation programme designed -to help them adapt to their new roles?

11. Is this programme formal in nature?

- That is, do newcomers partake in a programme designed explicitly to assist in his/her adaptation to the role?
- Does this take the form of separating newcomers from the rest of the employees for induction sessions before they start work?

12. Or is it more informal in nature?

That is,

- Do you allow the newcomer to join the workgroup immediately?
- Do you also encourage existing employees to provide assistance and information to the newcomer as they adjust to their new role?

13. Can you give me any further details on what the orientation programme consists of?

- Are induction packs provided to entrants?

14. Whose responsibility is the design and implementation of this induction programme?

15. Why were these types of orientation methods selected?

16. Are any different measures taken to assist the adjustment process of non-Irish-nationals as they enter the organisation?

For instance,

- Is any provision for assistance with language proficiency made?
- Have non-Irish-national employees been able to avail of any state provided assistance in the area of language classes?

17. Whose responsibility is the provision of training for employees?

18. Is training in this organisation conducted in a formal fashion?

19. Or is it conducted in a more informal fashion?

20. Is there any provision for externally provided training or is it conducted entirely in-house?

- Why?

21. How long, on average, do Irish employees tend to remain with this organisation?

22. How long do non-Irish-national employees tend to remain with this organisation?

23. If there is a difference, why do you think this is so?

24. Does this organisation require high levels of flexibility on the part of all employees, both Irish and non-Irish-national?

- For instance, is flexibility in terms of working hours required?

- Also, is it required that employees be able to fulfil a variety of roles within the organisation and be able to move from job to job as required?

25. If such flexibility is required, have non-Irish-national employees had any problems fitting in with this requirement?

- If so, what was the nature of these problems?

26. Is a human resource management specialist employed by this organisation?

27. What types of human resource management policies are in place in the organisation? (For all employees, both Irish and non-Irish-national.) For instance with regard to:

- Hours worked,
- Work practices,
- Performance appraisal,
- Are formal, written contracts of employment utilised in this organisation?

28. Does this organisation have formal, written disciplinary procedures in place for all employees?

29. Does this organisation have formal, written grievance procedures in place for all employees?

- If so, can you explain a little about these procedures?

30. Briefly, can you tell me about your background? – (Your education level and prior experience)



31. Have you, or any of your management team, had any prior experience of managing groups of employees which included non-Irish-nationals?
32. If yes, can you describe what that experience was?
- How did it help to prepare you to manage a diverse group of employees?
33. Have Irish employees been provided with any instruction on how to respond to and help to socialise the non-Irish-national employees?
34. Have Irish employees been provided with any training on how to respond to and help to socialise the non-Irish-national employees?
- What type of training?
35. Have you assigned a mentoring role to any particular Irish staff members and instructed them to assist the non-Irish-national members in their adaptation processes?
36. Have non-Irish-nationals entered this organisation one at a time or in groups?
37. Have you encountered any difficulties in integrating non-Irish-nationals into the organisation which might not have occurred with Irish employees?
- Have there been any language problems?
  - Have there been any cultural issues? (For instance misunderstandings or mistranslations of humour.)
  - Have there been any issues arising from attitudes relating to work ethic?
  - Have any issues arisen concerning attendance?
  - Have any other issues arisen?

38. If so, what particular steps been taken to address these issues?
39. Have non-Irish-national employees been accepted by Irish employees? Have Irish employees conveyed any misgivings directly to management? If so, how has this been overcome?
40. Have non-Irish-National employees integrated with Irish employees on a social level or have two or more distinct groups formed?
- For instance, do non-Irish-national employees commonly take breaks in the company of Irish employees? Or,
  - Do non-Irish-national employees tend to sit with other non-Irish-national employees?)
41. Are any social events organised for all staff?
- When do these events take place?
  - Who organises such events? Management or staff?
  - Are non-Irish-national employees invited to such events?
  - Do non-Irish-national employees attend such events?
  - If not, why not?
42. Do non-Irish-national employees attend more informal social gatherings with Irish staff?
43. Is there much direct communication between management and non-Irish-national employees?
44. Is it possible for non-Irish-nationals to give you feedback on issues which may arise?
45. If yes,

- Have non-Irish-national employees given you any feedback on how well they feel they have integrated into the organisation?
- If so, what has been the nature of non-Irish-national employees' feedback on their integration into the organisation?

46. If no,

- Are there any plans to introduce any form of mechanism to allow for such feedback?

46. As non-Irish-nationals have settled in to the organisation, have you noticed that they tend to accept the way the company operates largely unquestioningly?

Or,

47. As non-Irish-nationals have settled in to the organisation, have you noticed that non-Irish-nationals have sometimes questioned the way the company operates?

- Have non-Irish-national employees suggested any new or different ways of operating?

48. Did you anticipate these types of responses?

### **Conclusion**

In closing, I would like to thank you for your valuable time and participation.

Is there anything further you wish to add?

## **Appendix D: N-Vivo nodes**

1. Acceptance and feedback
2. Awareness of resentment in broader community
3. Background of owner/manager or operations manager
4. Community developing
5. Culture or language
6. Culture specifically
7. Decision making
8. Dedication of manager
9. Differences among migrant workers
10. Empathy of manager
11. Engagement with manager
12. Evidence of integration
13. First wave socialising second
14. Flexibility
15. HR Policy
16. HR Specialist
17. Individualised or group
18. Induction methods
19. input of Owner/manager or operations manager
20. Language specifically
21. Loyalty
22. Mentoring role
23. Nature of Business
24. Negative consequences of poor language
25. Structure of Organisation
26. Non-Irish employed
27. Problem 1 Irish outnumbered
28. Problem three resentment
29. Problems two time off
30. Rationale
31. Recruitment
32. Recruitment and selection vs. socialisation
33. Response 1
34. Role of Interviewee
35. Role of Irish employees
36. Roles and levels
37. Self efficacy with language
38. Separation
39. Short term planning
40. Social events and breaks
41. Tenure
42. Total employed
43. Training details
44. Unexpected methods
45. Unattractive work