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AN INTRODUCTORY STUDY INTO THE CONCEPT OF POLYCHRONICITY, IN RELATION TO EVENTS MANAGEMENT AGENCIES AND THEIR EMPLOYEES

Jack Lee U1151024

University of Huddersfield
Business School
Masters by Research
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

Abstract

**Aim:** This research paper aims to introduce an insight into whether events agencies are more polychronic or monochronic focused.

While striving to achieve the main aim, the research will set out to meet the following objectives

**Objectives:**
- To assess events agency employees’ attitudes towards time management situations
- To identify different perceptions surrounding employee work ethics
- To explore the techniques adopted by employees surrounding workload management

The need for this research to be conducted stemmed from observations from within an events agency organisation. Following personal experiences of working within the situation being discussed, an assumptive need for initial research in to the professional environment became apparent due to the, seemingly, minimal number of similar conducted projects. As will become more evident throughout the research, the concept of polychronicity and monochronicity have been researched throughout the years, with the seminal research surrounding these phenomena mentioned throughout, but the discussion of polychronicity and monochronicity were yet to be mentioned in relation to events management.

With few research papers available for adaptation, the approach to this research was purely exploratory, with the aim of introducing the topic of polychronicity and monochronicity being at the forefront as opposed to producing sound reasoning to support an existing industry problem. Following a mixed method data collection technique, seminal work on polychronic and monochronic self-tests were adapted in order to assess employee attitudes towards time management in relatable situations to agencies. A fresh approach was introduced with a qualitative task, exploring techniques that participants follow in relation to workload management and giving them free rein to advise their best practice with possibilities to contribute further with additional comments. Harmonising with one another, the results are comparable and aid in meeting the final objective of identifying different perceptions surrounding employee work ethics

**Key findings:**
It can be seen from the research discussions that the agency environment can be considered as more polychronic than monochronic. The results are not conclusive enough to confirm whether it is becoming a polychronic-only environment, but they are strong enough to suggest the aim of the research has been met as an introductory relationship between agencies and polychronicity has been discussed with reference to it being more polychronic focused.

Overall, the quantitative results illustrated that the sample was made up of mainly monochrons with an even split falling short by 3%. The polychronicity focus comes from the identification of themes such as working around other people which led to a new concept of forced polychronicity which stemmed from references to “juggling tasks” and literary references of dovetailing due to depending on external parties before completing tasks.

Other themes followed the view on the concept of time, whether tangible from monochrons or flexible from polychrons and the discussion surrounding internal policies and agreements put in place between the organisation and the client. Participants also had the opportunity to contribute to the research with their thoughts and beliefs, with responses such as the environment making the “job feel overwhelming” making them feel “stretched out across too
many projects at one time” and believing working in this environment is “not a sustainable way to work for long periods”.

Limitations:
As the research follows an interpretivist route, the sample size was justified for being small as it allowed for more complex data collection, but the final sample who responded was slightly too small to allow for an in depth and comparative analysis of the results, which also impacted on the representation of the identified categories as they could be deemed as not a fair representation. The final qualitative data collection method, although unique and successful in its own right, did not produce results with the desired depth and would have performed better if following the route of the identified diary method or a more observational method to truly satisfy the qualitative results and gain more input from the respondents themselves. In line with the depth of the results being less than desired, the complexity of the project itself proved greater than originally expected, suggesting this project is better suited when carried out over a longer duration as it would allow for data to be collected on numerous occasions and revisited in order to produce more comparative and reliable results.

Key words: Polychronicity, Monochronicity, events agencies, exploratory, attitudes, behaviour, situation, ethic.
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An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

Table of Contents

1. Introduction .................................................................................................................................................. 6

2. Literature Review ........................................................................................................................................ 9
   2.1 Overview .............................................................................................................................................. 9
   2.2. Situation ........................................................................................................................................... 9
   2.2a Polychronicity .................................................................................................................................. 10
   2.2b. Monochronicity .................................................................................................................................. 10
   2.2c Effects of Time Use .......................................................................................................................... 11
   2.3. Drivers .............................................................................................................................................. 12
   2.3a. Intrinsic and prosocial motivation – Motivator Factors ............................................................ 13
   2.3b Extrinsic movers .................................................................................................................................. 14
   2.3c. Work engagement and job performance ...................................................................................... 15
   2.4. Attitudes ........................................................................................................................................... 17
   2.4a. Behaviour ......................................................................................................................................... 17
   2.4b. Performance ..................................................................................................................................... 19
   2.5. Overall job satisfaction ...................................................................................................................... 20
   2.5a. Job satisfaction and employee turnover ....................................................................................... 20

3. Methodology .................................................................................................................................................. 22
   3.1. Introduction ........................................................................................................................................ 22
   3.2 Chosen methodology production .................................................................................................... 22

4. Data Collection .............................................................................................................................................. 30
   4.1. Overview ............................................................................................................................................ 30
   4.2 Quantitative analysis ........................................................................................................................... 30
   4.3 Qualitative analysis ............................................................................................................................. 34
   4.3a Overview .......................................................................................................................................... 34
   4.3b Abandoned theming ............................................................................................................................ 34
   4.3c Workload management .................................................................................................................. 35
   4.3d Prioritisation .................................................................................................................................... 35
   4.3e Time allocation .................................................................................................................................. 36
   4.3f Organisational constraints .............................................................................................................. 36
   4.3g Additional comments ...................................................................................................................... 37

Jack Lee U1151024
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

5. Conclusion..................................................................................................................38
5.1. Limitations and recommendations .........................................................................39

6. References..................................................................................................................40

7. Appendix...................................................................................................................53
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

Introduction
Academically, there was minimal knowledge surrounding this research topic before the project began. Based heavily on assumption, this research problem originated from observations made from within an events management agency, which saw a constant increase in the demands of the roles, creating an environment with many assumptive similarities to that of polychronicity, but little harmony in the efforts made by the organisations to sustain job satisfaction, putting employee’s motivation in to question and prompting a change in attitudes. This increase in the demands from the roles, and agencies themselves, can be backed by a number of industry publications, regardless of the history of the presence of events management agencies being uncertain due to the lack of literature currently identified. The presence of these companies has increased over the past 20 years, with a surge over the last 10 years, with the top 10 events agencies now turning over more than £3.5billion (C&IT, 2016). Smeral (2010) identified that Business expenditure, mainly Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibition (MICE) was cut in order to save money; as a result of this, internal events teams were diminished, with business expenditure being outsourced to external companies – events agencies (Damster & Tassiopoulos, 2005). The health of the industry is steadily improving as reported by American Express (2016) who, following their 2016 key suppliers survey, predict growth in overall meeting spend of 0.8% in 2017 (American Express, 2016, p.12) which creates a cascade of effects; beginning with an increase in the spend and number of projects potentially being outsourced, leading to an increased workload for events management agency employees (hereafter referred to as agency employees). Backed by these facts and figures, an assumptive need for this research to be conducted occurred, prompting background searches to be carried out to ensure this would not produce a replica of previous studies, which resulted in an identified gap of knowledge surrounding polychronicity in the events industry.

As will become evident throughout this research, there are many discussions on polychronicity as a phenomenon but very little make reference to it within the events industry. As an introduction to the concept of polychronicity, Kirchberg, Roe and Van Eerde (2015) describe it as a trait-like preference as it can be further defined as “an individual’s preference for shifting attention among ongoing tasks, rather than focusing on one task until completion and then switching to another task” (Poposki and Oswald, 2010, p.250), which is one of the most relatable definitions in relation to events agencies due to the, previously mentioned, increased demands and tasks that employees face. A more tenuous link can be made between existing literature on polychronicity and the events industry, when assessing the identical requirements for working in events and hospitality ("How Event Planning And Hospitality Intersect", 2015) where references have been made on numerous occasions by Mustafa Daskin, who believes that the nature of the hospitality industry is demanding and requires engagement in a number of simultaneous tasks from frontline employees (Daskin & Surucu, 2016), along with the identical downfalls of the two industries as detailed by Arasli, Bavik and Ekiz (2006) who believe employees are, on occasions, underpaid, overworked and undertrained, posing the question of why has this not been assessed in relation to events management? As conducting this research based on the events industry, as a whole, would be too wide and diverse due to the numerous typologies available, the selected focus was chosen as to illustrate the root of the observations and assumptions; events management agencies as, without existing literature, arguments would be required to be produced from experiences and input from colleagues and other professionals within this environment.

Bearing the lack of relatable literature in mind, there is an evident need for empirical research that examines the characteristics of employees in events management agencies due to their wide and varied roles, but owing to the lack of discussions and evidence
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

surrounding polychronicity and events management, a project solely dedicated to this phenomenon would be too assumptive and would be open to the possibility of suffering from researcher bias. Following this reasoning, this study is setting out to discuss the relationship between the agency situation, which encompasses the concept of time management, workloads and the introduction of both polychronicity and monochronicity, along with motivations and attitudes of employees and their job satisfaction, as displayed in the conceptual framework below (figure 1), in an attempt to understand the differences amongst different employees. To achieve this, existing literature on the above aspects will be analysed and will be linked to events agencies in order to design general characteristics for agency employees, as well as noting valuable observations while within the agency environment to back up the findings and assumptions. As this scope can still be considered too wide in terms of overall data collection, when taking in to account this is the first project of its kind and is heavily based on assumption, the data collection method and findings have been limited and aim to only assess the agency situation based on workload management, with an introduction in to whether the events agency environment is, generally, polychronic or monochronic, in an attempt to identify whether this assumptive link between polychronicity and events agencies exists. This will be done by assessing employee’s attitudes towards time management situations, as well as identifying perceptions surrounding their work ethics and exploring the techniques adopted by employees surrounding workload management, resulting in the overall aim of introducing an insight in to whether events agencies are more polychronic or monochronic focused.

![Conceptual framework for employee characteristics relationship between polychronicity, motivation and attitudes](image)

*Figure 1 Conceptual framework for employee characteristics relationship between polychronicity, motivation and attitudes*
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

This study therefore contributes to the events industry by providing an insight into aspects that have not been considered as yet, potentially aiding managers in identifying gaps in their resource management and techniques in understanding their employee’s work ethic, therefore ensuring employees are happy and satisfied in their job, introducing the potential for improvement in staff retention. This research also contributes to business management literature by examining the similarities and differences in how employees work in relation to how they think they work and how they want to work, providing a basis for useful guidelines in implementing effective training practices in time management as well as improving job specifications when advertising for a role with a demanding nature.
2. Literature Review

2.1 Overview
When researching event management agencies, there are very few authors who acknowledge them. Existing literature discusses the project management process and the vast number of tasks undertaken to plan an event such as; Silvers’ EMBOK (2016), Shone and Parry (2013), Yeoman (2004) and O’Toole (2002), who all identify the scope of work required, but not paying homage to the use of events management agencies and the growing case of companies outsourcing their requirements. These models only seem to illustrate events as a consecutive process, not highlighting that projects can run simultaneously, requiring multi-tasking to work across numerous projects. For this reason, the planning process of events will not be discussed further as this research is developing through a social and behavioural aspect of how employees manage the demands of the industry as opposed to the structured processes that they illustrate. The literature examined throughout this research consists of modern day authors as well as those who are considered formative in their fields.

2.2 Situation
In order to discuss the social and behavioural aspects of events agencies further, the situation of managing responsibilities should be properly examined, assisting with identifying the different types of employees and how they manage this increase in workload. Due to his stature in his subject, the roots of the situation element were created from following a similar thought process to Hall (1989) who identified ‘time’ as one of the three concepts accounting for the cultural differences among people, managing one’s time is one of the key aspects to succeeding in events agencies, preventing losing control of workload while still meeting deadlines. When looking for new roles within events agencies, there is a recurring mention of ‘managing time’ as an essential or desired skill (appendix 1), but with very little context. Levin (2007) believes that the term ‘time management’ is a contradiction within itself as ‘time cannot be managed!’ (Levin, 2007 p.1) it is continuous and there is nothing that can be done to manage it. Levin continues, discussing how the phrase ‘time management’ is misused as people should work out what they want to do with time as opposed to managing it, introducing the ‘time use strategy’ (Levin, 2007, p.12) a technique used in planning the use of time effectively, which echoes Mintzberg (1978) who believes strategy is key, leading to a ‘pattern in a stream of decisions’ (Mintzberg, 1978, p.935) In most situations, strategy is a perfect aid, but events agencies are an ever changing environment with new tasks being introduced throughout the day, making the planning of time more difficult. This strategy is also ignorant to the fact that people function differently with different approaches to tasks. The volume of projects running concurrently within an agency and the increased concentration levels that they demand, as well as the fluctuating demands in workplaces, have introduced a growing emphasis on employee speed and flexibility and have therefore also made multitasking a necessity in the work of many (Appelbaum, Marchionni, & Fernandez, 2008) which is another recurring desired skill on many job descriptions (appendix 2). Stephens (2007) argues that the general use of the term does not reflect the differences surrounding the different ways people prefer to work across multiple tasks which compliments Ballard, Cho and Stephens’ discussion that the discourse of multitasking has become a ‘superficial catchall’ for getting more done within less time (Ballard et al, 2011, p.23). As the research develops and new generations join the events industry, it seems to be becoming apparent that multitasking as a concept is too generic and different employees structure their days differently and work at different paces which introduces further concepts to be discussed.
2.2a Polychronicity
The concept of polychronicity has been penned by many modern-day authors, but this research stemmed from the original as a way of introduction, as this was first introduced by Hall (1981) with a simple explanation of engaging in several activities at the same time. The phenomena developed over the years, with Bluedorn, Kalliath, Strube & Martin building on Hall’s original discussion, describing polychronicity as the extent to which people prefer to engage in multiple tasks simultaneously becoming strongly invested, leading them to believe their preference is the only way to carry out tasks (Bluedorn et al, 1999, p.207). This definition is favourable in many ways, as it is consistent with many of Hall’s own work (Hall, 1983) but it also allows for further analysis between polychronicity and the behaviour of the polychronic employee (hereafter referred to as a polychron). Some may argue that polychronicity and multitasking are the same; they share some common elements as they both involve being engaged with several tasks simultaneously, but they are differentiated with the orientation of speed; multitasking has both a time orientation and a speed dimension, reflecting the concurrency of tasks and implying that they occur faster (Bluedorn, 2002), whereas polychronicity refers purely to an employee’s preference for sequence whether it is one thing at a time or moving back and forth among several tasks (Vail & Bluedorn, 2003). Being more relatable to agency employees and the inconsistency of the occurrence of their tasks, polychronicity is not about getting more things done nor is it about completing things faster (Vail & Bluedorn, 2003), it allows for time to be strategically planned while still meeting client deadlines and achieving quality results. Within this concept, Bluedorn et al (1992) identified two patterns of behaviour that reflect polychronic time preferences: simultaneity and dovetailing. Simultaneity refers to the production of two things at the exact same time but without the focus on speed, while dovetailing is best explained as the completion of multiple activities over time. Polychrons are also more adaptable to interruptions and last minute changes (Ferdinand and Kitchin, 2017) as the unpredictability of events agencies can see planned activities being interrupted by a client request, pushing allocated time back and possibly requiring a reshuffle of the day’s plan, Cotte and Rattneshwar (1999) illustrate this as polychrons considering time as a naturally recurring element which they use as and when they need to when attending to the many different tasks they face, perfectly complementing the nature of an events agency as, dependant on the time of year, tasks can tend to change on an hourly basis.

2.2b Monochronicity
In comparison to their counterparts, monochrons generally prefer to focus on one task at a time and are unfavourable to interruptions, as they tend to affect their concentration on the current task (Hall and Hall, 1990). The use of timesheets is becoming more widely used across events agencies as a way of tracking the time allocated to a client and their project. Although mundane and, in itself, time consuming, they provide much of the classification and control required for modern organisations (Bowker and Star, 1999). The concept of timesheets is very monochronic, as monochrons consider time as linear, seeing it as tangible and therefore able to be broken up, becoming consistent with an economic approach to time (Hall and Hall, 1987). This concept of linear time is at the heart of many events agencies, as it is for many industries and has been since the industrial revolution. In the shift towards measuring productivity, clocks were introduced to measure the amount of work done allowing companies to pay people for the amount of time they work, or in this case; charging clients for the amount of time an organisation's employees work, emphasising the metaphor that “time is money” (Hassard, 1999). The use of monochronic time emphasises planning and the implementation of schedules, with increased effort being put in place to maintain said established schedules. Schein (2010) expanded on his original conversation that, from an economic perspective, organisations take monochronicity for...
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

granted as they assume it is the most efficient way to get things done, with a management view of it being a more efficient procedure to control and co-ordinate employee’s behaviour and work patterns, he also believes that it is well suited to the management of large organisations.

Within a fast paced and diverse agency culture, monochrons can become very impatient and frustrated when working alongside polychrons, Schein (2010) uses the examples of management who often give attention to several employees at the same time or clients managers re-arranging a meeting due to another appointment appearing, there can also be occasional misunderstandings as the monochron typically does not understand the multiple demands faced by the polychron, introducing a very high potential for inaccurate attributions such as perceiving the polychron as lazy or inefficient.

2.2c Effects of Time Use

Among the other differences between monochrons and polychrons, one of the most subjective perceptions which vary between the two is thought to be centred around an aspect of time known as “structure” (Bond and Feather, 1988). Structure acts as the representative for time related to the aspects of planning and scheduling. As discussed, time can be perceived by polychrons as a continuous flow whereas monochrons perceive it as structured and purposive. It is considered that an employee’s awareness of their personal time style, whether monochronic or polychronic, affects their approach to their overall time use, perceptions of pressure associated with time and the amounts of time spent on tasks including the order they’re spent in (Gross, 1987). Work structuring actions are typically focused on prioritising activities and deliberately concentrating on the prioritised actions until they are completed, leading to a plan of work using the prioritised structure as an organisation tool (Slaven and Totterdell, 1993). Early discussions focus on goal setting which from a managerial perspective is still very much appropriate, but more contemporary approaches ask for a deeper thought process, requiring employees to assess the importance of the activities identified for their day (Alderman, 1995) which in an agency is very important when met with similar deadlines across a number of different projects. Puffer (1989) believes that the prioritisation of tasks is often hindered by an employee’s emotional reaction, whether a monochron or polychron, to the task in hand, as they mainly focus on the ease of completion, spending time on unimportant tasks which are still classes as urgent but are easy to complete, resulting in important but less urgent tasks that require more concentrated time to complete being neglected (Sorohan, 1995). Some may argue that this is the best way to work as the urgent tasks should be completed first therefore making more time for the larger and more demanding tasks, but in an events agency environment, time is never certain as clients are the factor which eventu ultimately dictates employee’s time as a task which originally was not classed as urgent can change unpredictably. Clients changing their mind is only one of many interruptions that agency employees face. Within an immersed environment with a back catalogue of suppliers and clients, phone calls, meetings, new briefs and other tasks can make themselves apparent very unexpectedly and although these cannot always be anticipated, Pollock (1994) believes that blocking out some time for unexpected activities is recommended and appears to be a realistic strategy. As Ferdinand and Kitchin (2017) discussed, polychrons are adaptable to interruptions due to their lack of fixed strategy planning, whereas Hall and Hall (1990) believe that monochrons are unfavourable to interruptions as they have the potential to “destroy plans, alter deadlines, and devastate projects” (Romeo, 1993). A similar thought process relates to activities which are considered to waste time but are considered important to the organisation such as team meetings. However, when managing others such as clients, interruptions can be deemed as necessary and may have to be managed, rather than eliminated.

Jack Lee U1151024
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

Robinson and Godbey expand on Sorohan’s earlier thoughts by introducing ‘time deepening’ (Robinson and Godbey, 1996, p.48) which involves both monochronic and polychronic behaviour of trying to speed up a task, risking the quality dropping, task substitution based on completion duration, doing more than one activity at once and working on a task monitoring the amount of time that it takes. Quite frequently, especially during the busy periods where events are back to back, employees believe that they feel rushed to do the things that have to be done due to the sheer volume (Godbey and Graefe, 1993). Jones et al (2007) expand on this point referring to it as role overload due to having numerous incompatible demands. This often misconstrued by employees as emotional exhaustion which prevents them from speaking to managers about their workload due to a negative connotation with an inability to cope with the demands of their role (Singh et al, 1994) which leads to a feeling of depersonalisation, resulting in their feeling of personal accomplishment being diminished (Babakus et al, 1999), affecting their overall job satisfaction as they feel they are not good enough. Frei et al (1999) believe that polychrons are less likely to feel the stress of a role due to their greater tolerance in being engaged in multiple tasks and are more accustomed to task switching, whereas due to their preference of fixed structure and preference of to plan their time, monochrons can struggle with the stress of a role and the tasks in hand. This may also be due to them considering time as a tangible aspect; the tasks are visible and are associated with blocks of time that they can witness running out. Farris (1995) addresses this issue and links it to the overuse of time planners, as employees can over-organise to such an extent that the spontaneity required in an unpredictable environment such as an events agency and the ability to react to changes are sometimes eliminated.

The concept of stress being triggered by an unfamiliar situation therefore impacting an employee’s performance in any given situation was also discussed by Delbridge (2000 cited in Daskin, 2015) with regards to stress tolerance. The literature shows that polychrons are more stress tolerant than monochrons and are better at managing the feeling of urgency due to the time pressures experienced in a multitasking situation which supports a study conducted by Jang and George (2012) who reported that polychronic employees are more satisfied with their jobs. But these theories can also work backwards as at quiet times when tasks are less frequent and easier to manage, monochrons are more likely to be more satisfied than polychrons attending to just one task, as it may result in boredom and possibly impacting their overall performance (Zhang et al, 2004).

2.3 Drivers
For monochrons and polychrons to be satisfied during the scenarios highlighted above, they must be personally driven to avoid becoming stressed or bored. Jones and George (2004) believe that within a work environment, motivation is best described as the psychological forces directing an employee’s behaviour, effort input and the levels of persistence when faced with obstacles; obstacles such as interruptions and setbacks that agencies face on a daily basis when working with clients and suppliers. Such psychological forces can stem from within a person, intrinsically, or from external, extrinsic, factors. The concept of motivation in the workplace is one that has been researched and discussed heavily, especially during the mid-twentieth century in the height of the industrial age. With this age being a key time for industries, the discussions around the literature had to pay homage to the key authors to reiterate the validity of the events industry and how it fits within the social constructs of philosophers such as Abraham Maslow who introduced the ‘Hierarchy of Needs’ (Maslow, 1943), Alderfer (1972) who penned the existence, relatedness and growth theory and Douglas McGregor who developed the ‘X-Y theory’. These theories provide sound talking points for this research and although they may be referenced throughout this section, their models will not be the focal point as the behavioural and social aspects are better related to Herzberg’s Hygiene and Motivation Factors as he differentiates how both
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

aspects affect an employee’s overall satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959). He believed that there are few problems more important to industries than the understanding of an employee’s motivation to work (Herzberg, 1959). This statement is very true in many ways as a demotivated employee is harmful for performance and therefore turn over for any agency, but in understanding the motivation of an employee, the employee themselves also needs to be understood which, in itself, is a very difficult prospect as it tends to be that the employees do not understand themselves and what they are wanting from a role, stemming from their human potential and their process of fulfilling that potential.

Maslow’s (1959) comments stating that human motivation is based on employees seeking fulfilment compliments this perfectly as he believed that the concept of motivation is based on employees seeking their own personal fulfilment and growth. He believed that an employee is always striving to become something and never remains static, harmonising with deCharms’s idea that employee’s motives are origins of their own behaviour rather than pawns of others’ (deCharms, 1993, p.187). Maslow described this process as the growth of self-actualisation (Maslow, 1962) which can be best illustrated as the measurement of achieving peak experiences. He believes that these peaks occur when a person experiences the world for what they believe is total, bringing feelings of euphoria, joy and wonder. Although this sounds complete, it gives the impression that organisations would not need to do anything further to motivate the employee as their peak is reached and therefore they are completely content, but Hoffman intervenes with the important point that self-actualisation is a continual process rather than a euphoric state an employee can reach for a happy ever after (Hoffman, 1988, p.), as once the peak is reached, a new peak is identified as they look for their next challenge. To make matters more difficult for employers, Kenrick et al (2010) reiterate that each employee is unique and the motivation for self-actualisation can lead them in different directions as they all have a unique peak to reach. In an agency environment, this can prove more difficult as although the roles of individuals can be titled the same, their tasks and projects can alter and their ‘peak experience’ may change once something considered to be more exciting appears. Tasks are distributed based on resourcing and capacities of employees which may result in an employee missing out on the task which would help them reach self-actualisation, which links back to the polychronic and monochronic cultures as a monochron would assess their workload strategically and if minimal time was available, they may decline the opportunity possibly leading them to become demotivated due to missing out on ‘their’ chance. Polychrons may be more insistent that their capacity is greater enabling them to procure ‘their’ chance, running the risk of work overload. All scenarios revolve around what motivates the employee to make their decision which in turn relies on whether they have identified the peak for achieving self-actualisation.

2.3a. Intrinsic and prosocial motivation – Motivator Factors
Following Herzberg’s (1959) model, the intrinsic motivations of employees are being referred to as the ‘motivator factors’ as these intrinsic aspects are those that contribute to the satisfaction at work (Miner, 2005) and therefore are also contributors towards motivation and an employee’s growth in self actualisation. Herzberg (1959) identified five factors; achievement, recognition, the work itself and its level of challenge, responsibility, and advancement/growth. Although still relevant, the communication systems have developed since Herzberg penned this theory stating that recognition was a verbal aspect and was possibly only relevant to management, but with the high levels of communication that agency employees have with clients on a daily basis, clients should also be considered a contributor to increasing motivation through recognition and gratitude as well as through the use of email. Intrinsic motivation is best known as existing within the employee, but it can also exist with regards to the relationship between employees and their tasks. People can be
intrinsically motivated to carry out some tasks but not others and not everybody is intrinsically motivated for the same tasks or for the same reasons (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

To develop this idea further, the comments surrounding exciting tasks becoming available in the agency is being revisited as not every employee will be as interested as others, Deci and Ryan build on this by explaining that this scenario has prompted some authors to define intrinsic motivation differently. Skinner (1953) created the Operant conditioning theory which defines intrinsic motivation in terms of the task being interesting, for which the reward was the activity itself, most relatable to an incentive trip to an international destination, allowing the employee to travel with the group and encounter new experiences, while other authors such as Hull (1943) define it as the satisfaction a person gains from the intrinsically motivated task engagement, providing satisfaction towards innate psychological needs such as the potential of advancement through delivering high quality results and exceeding client expectations. In an attempt to further understand human motivation, the literature written around Self-Determination Theory can be introduced as it focuses on the issues surrounding personality development, self-regulation, psychological needs, aspirations, energy and vitality, the relations of culture to motivation and the impact of social environments on motivation and behaviour (Deci and Ryan, 2008). While other literature seems to only differentiate motivation as intrinsic and extrinsic, SDT is the distinction between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation (Deci and Gagne, 2005). Dworkin (1988) describes autonomous motivation as an employee endorsing their own actions at the highest level of reflection, engaging in an activity because they find it interesting and solely by their own choice, which encompasses many of Herzberg’s motivator factors as well asDeci’s research based primarily upon the behavioural measure of free choice, allowing employees to make their own decisions on how they work and what they work on which can lead to demotivation if, due to the resourcing aspect discussed previous, a manager decides the employee cannot work on their preferred project due to their workload capacity.

The other side of SDT contrasts its predecessor as the employee’s decisions are controlled, resulting in actions stemming from a sense of pressure and a sense of having to engage in the actions (Deci and Gagne, 2005). Through previous research, it has become apparent that extrinsic rewards are often used for inducing controlled motivation, an action that partially internalises the situation, swapping motivator factors for those such as approval motives, avoidance of shame and ego-involvements from colleagues (Deci and Gagne, 2005). Although controlled motivation takes the employees away from the autonomous traits of intrinsic motivation, it is still not to be confused with causing demotivation as the employee will still wish to participate in the project but their motives will be different to those displayed through willingness. Demotivation can be discussed through cognitive evaluation theory which focuses on the external factors that impact on intrinsic motivation. Agency culture is home to a number of these factors including; deadlines (Amabile, DeJong, & Lepper, 1976), evaluations (Smith, 1975) and surveillance (Lepper & Greene, 1975) all of which can diminish the feelings of autonomy and along with the introduction of tangible rewards can incur a change in the perceived locus of causality (Heider, 1958) from internal to external which undermines the concept of intrinsic motivators causing the employee to feel less achieved and potentially less competent.

2.3b. Extrinsic movers
Although intrinsic motivation is evidently a very important form of motivation for employees to continue performing, most of the activities carried out by people are not, generally, driven by intrinsic motivators (Deci and Ryan, 2008). Putting Herzberg’s hygiene factors in to words, extrinsic movers are those that occur whenever an activity is done in order to achieve a form of separable outcome. In addition to Herzberg’s hygiene factors, Vroom (1964) developed
the Expectancy Theory which is based upon four assumptions; employees joining
organisations with expectations concerning their needs and motivations based on past
experiences, an employee’s behaviour stems from their conscious choices, employees enter
an organisation wanting different things which all revolve around Herzberg’s hygiene factors
such as salary and security and the assumption that all employees will make a choice
among alternatives optimising their own personal outcomes (Lunenburg, 2011). From these
assumptions Vroom detailed three elements on how an employee who is driven by extrinsic
movers tackles tasks; the employee is motivated due to the thought that they believe their
effort will firstly lead to acceptable performance (known as expectancy), which will secondly
cause their performance to be rewarded (known as instrumentality), leading them to believe
that finally the value of their reward is highly positive (known as valence) (Vroom, 1964).
Although this theory does not detail what motivates employees driven by extrinsic movers, it
provides a process to understand how they consider certain tasks, Herzberg labelled these
people as hygiene seekers and identified them as being risky for organisations as their
motivation tends to last only a short amount of time and constantly seek extrinsic rewards
therefore not being reliable in a crisis (Herzberg, 1966) which can be incredibly important to
employers within events agencies due to the fast paced nature of the environment where
colleagues and managers are required to rely on each other to intervene and assist on a
project at any time. With every industry being diluted with hygiene seekers, the events and
hospitality industries, especially agencies, suffer due to controlling high turnover rates and
paying low wages (Arasli & Daskin, 2012). Similar to the hospitality industry, it is important
for events agencies to keep employees in their organisation for a long period of time
because of the daily communication with clients, (Chebat et al., 2002) be it face-to-face or
over the phone, a relationship and trust is built introducing a level of comfort and ease for the
client. The main hygiene factor that attracts most attention and that employees seek more, is
pay due to the increased workload expected within events agencies. Event Magazine (2016)
identified the role of event coordinator at the fifth most stressful job in 2016 with 83% of
survey participants stating that they believe stress to be a significant problem within the
events sector (Deighton, 2016). With this, it could be argued that a pay rise is not hygiene
seeking, but a fair expectation; Beutell and Wittig-Berman (1999), amongst other, have
noted a causal relationship between salary and job satisfaction, where an increased salary
resulted in increased job satisfaction and a stronger engagement with their work.

2.3c. Work engagement and job performance
To Kahn (1990), engagement is a unique and important motivational concept: It revolves
around the employee’s full self in terms of physical, cognitive, and emotional energies being
fully immersed in the role with regards to work performances. May et al (2004) expand by
suggesting that engaged employees have higher levels of energy and enthusiasm
surrounding their work as opposed to those who are not, they are fully immersed in their
work, so much so that time seems to go faster. Existing literature focuses on researching the
performance reasons that emphasise the affect or the motives behind an employee’s
physical persistence in tasks, but they focus on this as a singular theory, whereas Kahn
(1992) identifies that, in line with the autonomy that employee’s desire from a role, they can
freely choose how much of their cognitive and physical energies are invested in to their own
performance, creating something that is fundamentally distinct. This thought process is
supported by Schaufeli et al (2002) who presented their results from a qualitative survey of
employees who scored highly on the Utrecht work engagement scale. The results showed
that employees with high engagement levels also displayed higher levels of energy and
efficacy which not only impacted their work life, but also influenced certain events in their
personal lives. Building towards their self-determination and their intrinsic motivators, the
positive attitude and increased activity levels result in the engaged employees creating their
own success through positive feedback, recognition and appreciation as external parties can
recognise the additional level of effort going in to the tasks. They still feel the effects of working hard such as tiredness, but the feeling can be described as a pleasant feeling as it is associated with their positive accomplishments (Schaufeli et al, 2002).

As important as it is for employees themselves to be engaged, it is equally important for organisations to ensure their employees are engaged as since the economic recession began in the early 2000s, employee engagement has become one of many critical drivers for organisational success in the competitive business environment (Bates, 2004), which for events agencies seems to be increasing due to the crowded market; the possible links that engagement has to an extensive range of business outcomes such as financial performance, stakeholder return and even retention (Baumruk, 2004) is key for standing out and succeeding. The Corporate Executive Board illustrated this with their 2004 statistics stating that engaged employees are 87% less likely to leave an organisation (The Corporate Executive Board, 2004). For employees to become engaged, they require two vital aspects to be fulfilled; Job resources can be seen as both intrinsic motivators such as social support from colleagues, skill variety, autonomy and learning opportunities (Albrecht, 2011) but can also refer to extrinsic movers such as pay, whereas personal resources are solely intrinsic consisting of positive self-evaluations linked to resilience and referring to an employee’s sense of their ability to have an impact as well as successful control (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003). To further hypothesise this, Demerouti et al (2001) introduced the ‘Job demands-resources (JD-R) model’. Following Albrecht’s working, Demerouti identifies the same base principles but refers to personal resources as job demands which he expands on stating that this is the factor which results in physiological and/or psychological costs. Sometimes misconstrued as negative factors, they may appear as stressors to the employee with regards to the high effort required to meet the high demands. This is a regular occurrence in events agencies, with feelings of time pressure, emotional dissonance and physical workload being common examples of job demands (Lee and Ok, 2015).

Job resources emphasise the need for a healthy balance between intrinsic motivators and extrinsic movers as in contrast, these are the physical, psychological and social factors that help employees to reach their work-related goals, reducing the severity of the psychological and physiological consequences from the job demands, stimulating personal growth and their personal learning and development. These factors are drawn from social relations and the work itself, including supervisory support, client feedback and job autonomy and empowerment (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). This model suggests that the two work characteristics prompt two types of psychological processes; motivation process and health impairment process (Demerouti, et al, 2001). Demanding clients and demanding projects within an agency require high job demands, this along with a poorly defined brief requiring more work can mentally and physically exhaust employees. Lee and Ok, 2012) label this as emotional exhaustion as the task in hand will be very emotional labour intensive. On the other hand, job resources prompt the motivational process through personal growth and development leading to goal achievement, which all achieve a higher performance and lower levels of disengagement (Bakker, 2004), suggesting that work engagement as a result can only be achieved through the employee and organisation working in harmony. Employees with high work engagement are not to be confused with being workaholics as they do not work hard because of a strong inner drive, they do so because for them working is fun and they are able to separate their work from their social life outside, whereas workaholics find it difficult to separate the both, introducing Engelbrecht’s qualitative research findings that engagement translates in to behaviour (Engelbrecht, 2006).
2.4 Attitudes

Being such a vast and concentrated subject, it would not be conceivable to create a strong link between attitudes and this research without diverting the project on to a course different to that intended. Therefore, the literature examined has been kept to a minimum as, although a very important and relevant factor to consider in the social sciences, there are many social constructs and authors to discuss which would over power the exploratory nature of this project. Although dated, Secord and Backman’s (1964) definition of attitudes is still very much relevant and is used to illustrate how adaptable the research on attitudes is, as they explain it as the certain results created by the combination of an employee’s thoughts (affective component), feelings (cognitive component) and predispositions (behavioural component) to act towards an aspect of their environment. The affective and cognitive component’s mentioned are arguably the results of the situation and driver aspects discussed above, resulting in the predispositions to act, being referred to as the behavioural component. Attitudes are evaluative and have the potential to be harmful to both the employee and organisation as they reflect a person’s tendency to feel, think or behave positively or negatively towards the subject of the situation, be it a project, person (manager/client/colleague) or overall workload.

Ajzen (2001) highlight that the apparent evaluative dimensions of an employee’s attitudes are comparable and include good–bad, harmful–beneficial, pleasant–unpleasant and likeable–dislikeable. Every individual is similar in the way that attitudes are held which are usually attached to an evaluation towards perceptions of people and things in the surrounding environment (Ajzen and Fishbein, 2000), but the difference lies in the level of strength as some people hold some attitudes stronger than others, which lies in the individual variable of the strength of the tendency to evaluate which lies within an individual’s personality (Jarvis and Petty, 1996). This variable is also taken in to consideration when noting the differences between the three aspects, as overall behaviour is not always the result of both affective and cognitive components, as an employee’s level of evaluation towards one of these components may outweigh the other, resulting in behaviour being influenced more by affect than cognition, or vice versa (Schlett and Ziegler, 2014), dependent on how they feel in that moment (Millar and Tesser, 1989). Arnold (2016) provides an example, which relates closely to the tasks of agency workers, based upon the effectiveness of a computer; the affective component prompts a physiological response which may see the employee become angry at a computer crashing causing blood pressure to rise; the cognitive component refers to their perceptions and what they believe about the object, if this is has happened before, the employee may believe the computer is unreliable and has a slight expectancy that it will crash while carrying out certain tasks; the behavioural component is then reflected in the observable behaviour towards the subject of the attitude which in relation to the comments by Jarvis and Petty (1996) may see the employee base their behaviour on the affective component and furiously clicking until it works again, or their behaviour could be tilted more towards the cognitive component where they sit patiently or carry out another task while they wait as they were expecting this situation to happen.

2.4a. Behaviour

The connection between attitude and behaviour is close-knit, but it can be argued that attitudes only matter if they have a direct influence on behaviour. In both instances of positive and negative attitudes, Arnold (2016) considers how employees who say they like their job will not necessarily work harder or more efficiently, contribute more hours or have better client relationships than those employees who say they do not like their job, potentially making surveys conducted in workplaces based on attitudes irrelevant as the behaviour to follow may not be correspond with the employee’s thoughts. Examining this relationship further to understand where employee’s behaviour decision stems from, Ajzen and Fishbein
(1980) developed the theory of reasoned action which was then later adapted by Ajzen and Madden (1986) and renamed the theory of planned behaviour (figure 2). This adapted theory allows for consideration of the concept of perceived behavioural control, illustrating the extent to which an employee believes that they can action the desired behaviours in a certain situation, affecting both their intentions and the extent to which this intention transitions into actual behaviour.

![Figure 2. Theory of planned behaviour](source: Ajzen and Madden (1986))

Although widely useful for all industries, Ajzen (1991) makes some very valid points in relation to agency employees and how they function; behavioural control is important, employees must be self-efficient and must make quick decisions which in itself is a form of behaviour; if they believe that they are in control of a situation and are confident, then this strong belief will result in the decision being made, whereas, if they were originally confident but are later doubtful or mistaken, then no amount of additional belief will transition the intention into a behaviour which could be costly. This concept may stem from the self-belief and empowerment mentioned within the intrinsic motivators discussion. Ajzen also discusses the influence of subjective norms, such as colleagues and managers, believing these are often quite weak and that some people may be more responsive to their own perceptions rather than the opinions of other people. Although this is a valid point and is true in terms of strong willed employees, some others are more docile, resulting in their intentions being questioned or doubted and in turn not leading to an actioned behaviour.

As a form of damage limitation in situations such as this, an employee will adopt the use of impression management in an attempt to maintain and protect their image held by colleagues and managers (Rosenfeld, Giacalone, & Riordan, 1995), this includes apologies and justifications, defensive tactics and forms of self-promotion. Apologies and justifications can be seen as damage control following a negative event. Existing studies on this have found that they have a generally positive effect in reducing the blame in relation to failure (Crant & Bateman, 1993), which when dealing with high profile events requiring trust from clients and management, are beneficial in improving management confidence in future ability to avoid failure (Wood & Mitchell, 1981), thus limiting the possibility of identity damage (Schwartz, Kane, Joseph, & Tedeschi, 1978). In addition, apologies tend to have a positive connotation with the perceptions of likability (Gordon, 1996) and, when used effectively, have the potential to increase the likelihood that they will be considered as likable and high performing by management and colleagues (Frantz & Bennigson, 2005) as their mistake has been realised, limiting the loss of any trust and therefore limiting the reduction in role autonomy through future task supervision. It is suggested by Bolino, Daniels and Klotz
(2014) that supervisors may respond differently to initial attempts of impression management than they do to multiple attempts; overuse may lead them to question an employee’s competence. Apologies and justifications are often followed by the use of ingratiation such as flattery, favour-doing and opinion conformity (Jones & Pittman, 1982) which have been identified as positively influencing for career success and overall likability (Judge & Bretz, 1994).

2.4b. Performance
In order to allocate an employee to the correct projects and to understand their working styles further, it can be beneficial to the employer to assess their individual attitudes and behaviours during the early stages. Graen and Scandura (1987) produced their dyadic theory of role emergence which details how the relationship between employee and manager evolve. According to their explanation, the relationship is developed through three stages; role taking, role making, and role routinisation (Graen and Scandura, 1987). During the initial stage of role taking, managers will observe employees in order to understand their abilities, motivation and working style. Managers actively carry out this assessment, which causes impression management, namely ingratiation and self-promotion, to be increased in order to build a stronger relationship and create a more positive impression on their competence. Role making increases the definition of the relationships between managers and employees and the influence of impression management is reduced as managers make more informed assessments based on the employee’s actual performance. In the final stage of role routinisation, the employee’s behaviours have become more stable and there is a mutual understanding of the respective role. At this stage, managers will have a clearer impression of the employee’s likability and performance and will be less susceptible to impression management. Without this process being carried out, it may be harmful to the understanding of the employee’s working culture and time orientation, whether polychronic or monochronic. Revisiting Hall’s (1990) explanation on monochronic and polychronic time, Monochrons may struggle if they have to deal with many things at once, becoming disorientated and reducing motivation and job satisfaction as they feel less competent, whereas there may be a potential boredom aspect associated to a polychron being allocated a mono-task activity, resulting in them filling time with admin tasks such as checking emails (Darden, 1999). These instances may lead to the common behaviour of procrastination. Scarborough and Lindquist (1999) believe that monochrons are more likely to procrastinate than polychrons as this behaviour follows a structural thought process of "I put off things which can be done at a later time", whereas polychrons are known to enjoy handling more tasks simultaneously, demonstrating less putting off behaviours. For monochrons, this behaviour can have both positive and negative connotations as it can be the result of deliberate thought processes in determining what activities can be done later and independently of each other, whereas it can also be down to difficulty of the task in hand (Puffer, 1989). Puffer also dictates how procrastinating can be down to boredom of the task, which compliments Darden (1999) as polychrons faced with a monotonous and linear task can be more likely to become bored.

Emphasising the need for careful job design in relation to harmonised relationships and amounts of influence employees have in the workplace based on their decisions, the employee may reach psychological empowerment, increasing confident decision-making behaviours as well as enriching their working lives (Liden, Wayne and Sparrow, 2000). Exhibiting the importance of aspects previously discussed; self-determination, competence, impact and meaningfulness assessments of behaviour (Spreitzer, 1995), empowerment has the potential to positively influence the outcomes benefitting both employee and organisation (Liden and Tewksbury, 1995). As an interactional approach, empowerment also results from the assessment of social aspects in the workplace; assessments of an employee’s work
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

tasks combined with other contextual factors such as the effort inputs from superiors and colleagues (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990) and the interactions with colleagues (Turner and Lawrence, 1965), which are all also key elements of work behaviour required for job enrichment (Liden and Tewksbury, 1995). Employees believing their inputs are meaningful and that their efforts will have an impact on others, inside and outside of their organisation, derives commitment to the organisation and thus motivates them towards an increase in positive work behaviours for performing well, leading to an overall increase in job satisfaction.

2.5 Overall job satisfaction
Job satisfaction has been widely discussed, with Locke (1976) being a popular name amongst researchers and therefore a good foundation for development of the subject. He detailed job satisfaction as the positive emotional state which has resulted from a personal appraisal of an employee's job or job performance. It has commonly been identified as an attitude influenced by pay, managers, colleagues and working conditions (Arnold, 2016). Since Locke, literature on job satisfaction has widely developed with authors breaking it down into expectation-based and performance-based job satisfaction, examining the employee's original expectations and the extent of personal satisfaction with their own performance (Avery, Smillie & Fife-Schaw, 2015). But Judge, Ilies and Zhang hypothesised that it displays more properties of a trait, as the dispositional nature of a positive or negative frame of mind is gained through experience or inherited from genetics, referring to the experience of a family member (Judge, Ilies & Zhang, 2012). This emphasises the earlier discussions of the importance of the employer making it their aim to understand each employee individually, as Judge et al's work implies that attempts to change a role or working conditions in the same way for every employee would not ensure satisfaction for all. O'Reilly and Caldwell also discuss satisfaction in terms of the result of influence. They examine the trait from a social perspective, believing that satisfaction is constructed from the experiences and behaviours displayed by colleagues (O'Reilly and Caldwell, 1985). In turn, they believe that it is the end result of the evaluation conducted by colleagues of what goes on; if they are displaying a positive attitude, then the employee themselves is more likely to have a positive outlook. This is common practice in events agencies due to the strong team work nature across projects and the stressful environment, which introduces a cognitive information approach discussed by Arnold, arguing that the satisfaction of an employee is often influenced 'directly by the characteristics of their job' (Arnold, 2016, p.223) and how these characteristics match those that the employee expected from the job itself.

2.5a Job satisfaction and employee turnover
Employee turnover has received a lot of attention from researchers over time, with many focusing on the impacts that it has on the hospitality industry, in which events agencies is closely linked. Losing employees has many obvious effects on the employer such as the direct monetary impact (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000), but it can be argued that the biggest effect comes from the indirect cost of loss of production and reduced performance levels which other team members have to rectify, leading to a lower morale and higher stress levels (Pizam & Thornburg, 2000). Not only does the loss of an employee directly impact the employer, the clients also feel the effect as their main contact could now change, potentially impacting the quality and overall outcome for their event. Racz (2000) puts this thought in to figures by detailing that background figures, such as client dissatisfaction and the reduced productivity from the terminating employee, constitutes to 70-85% of the associated costs of employee turnover which supports Carbery, Garavan, O'Brien and McDonnell (2003) who believe that employee turnover is one of the biggest challenges in the hospitality industry. In the hospitality industry especially, job satisfaction has been found to be a very important determinant when predicting employee turnover (Blau & Boal, 1989). The unique working
environments, such as fluctuating hours, pay and stress have been suggested as being direct influencers in dissatisfaction leading to employees leaving a company (Birdir, 2002). Linking this discussion back to the focus of the polychronic nature of events agencies, Jang and George produced a hypothesis (figure 3) examining the correlation between polychronicity, job satisfaction and employee turnover (turnover intention).

As previously identified, polychronic employees seem to be more likely to be satisfied in a role in events agencies due to the nature of uncertain situations and levels of managing different projects simultaneously. This is also identified by Jang and George in part one of their hypothesis, believing polychronicity to be positively associated with job satisfaction (H1). Polychronicity and employee turnover is linked by the subcategory of personal-job fit theory, which considers how well an employee matches the job (Kristof, 1996), this is echoed by Carless (2005) whose study displayed that an employee’s fit to a job role plays an important role in reducing employee turnover. Relating back to previous conversations, employees with higher levels of polychronicity will feel more comfortable in a high-pressured role with increased workload, whereas monochronic employees may struggle. This is also relevant if the opposite occurs; polychrons may struggle with a reduced and more structured workload due to boredom, whereas monochrons may feel more comfortable, these situations can lead to both a satisfied and dissatisfied employee, generating the turnover intention. Following this, Jang and George hypothesised that polychronicity is negatively associated with employee turnover (H2). Job satisfaction is a renowned determinant in explaining employee turnover (Hwang & Kuo, 2006), many researchers have conducted studies resulting in the negative relationship between the two factors including Yang (2010) who discovered that satisfaction is closely linked to commitment and loyalty; the more satisfied an employee, the more likely they are to stay with their company and vice versa, therefore, Jang and George concluded that job satisfaction is negatively associated with employee turnover (H3). The presented hypothesis provides a strong foundation for stating that polychronicity is a key variable in discussing overall job satisfaction in relation to the nature and characteristics of events agencies and their employees.
3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Evidenced in the literature review, the amount of existing work surrounding events agencies is very minimal, with authors discussing the events industry as a single entity, while also referring to it under the umbrella of the hospitality industry. This could be for several reasons including a lack of experience in agencies themselves, the oversight that event management is the same across all disciplines of the industry or due to the concept of event studies only being in existence since 2000 where, although discussed, authors such as Getz questioned the longevity of its status as a discipline in the research field (Getz, 2008). Getz continued by explaining how event studies was an ‘unnecessary and perhaps irrelevant idea’ until academics had published a high enough number of papers and generated enough interest in the theory (Getz, 2008, p.405), from which a framework for knowledge creation was produced to aid in systematically studying the events industry. This thought process embodies a positivist research method which Getz and Page explain as a view where reality is assumed as objective, with the final answer/theory being discovered by ways of a scientific method which they believe to be the most dominant and the most accepted way of conducting analysis in event studies (Getz and Page, 2016). When referring back to the literature review above, it is evident that there are many more social constructs that make up the events industry than have seemingly been identified by other authors, it has also become apparent that research in social sciences such as attitudes and behaviours, although increasingly discussed in papers, has minimal research linking it to the events industry.

Taking this into consideration, a gap and a possible need for this research project and a different approach to collecting data has appeared as, although the need for understanding the impacts of events and their attendees is important, understanding the people who produce the events and the organisations that they represent is equally as important. This project was developed with the aim of introducing an understanding in to an events agency environment along with the characteristics of their employees, with a focus on the agency situation in terms of workload management and an introduction to polychronicity and monochronicity. It hopes to touch upon an understanding of the balance that employees face consisting of; the pressures of the role, including the management of the increasing workloads, and the intrinsic needs of the employee required to fulfil satisfaction within their job.

3.2 Chosen methodology production

Due to the minimal amount of previous research conducted on events agencies, the opportunity to refer back to similar findings from other authors is increasingly difficult, causing the basis of the early stages of this project to rely on assumptions. It could be argued that assumptions are too basic and exist due to an individual’s opinions and therefore may not be echoed by others. The idea of them being basic is agreed to by Leedy and Ormrod (2014), but they also consider the fact that without them, ‘the research problem itself could not exist’ (Leedy and Ormrod, 2014, p.62), insinuating that all research problems, regardless of the number of times they have been researched, stemmed from assumptions. With this in mind, this project has taken the route of ‘exploratory research’ as it is merely setting out to explore the research questions, which Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) discuss, adding that a project of this type does not intend on discovering final or conclusive solutions but is produced with the aim of tackling new problems with which ‘little or no previous research has been done’ (Brown, 2006, p.43). Although flexible and effective in producing the groundwork for future studies (Neuman, 2014), exploratory research needs to be considered carefully as it usually uses a more modest number of samples which may not fully represent the subjects of the research, it also relies quite heavily on qualitative data, from which the interpretation of the results can be subject to bias as the problem in question
is based on an initial assumption (Dudovskiy, 2016). In order to provide additional structure and weight to the research, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill’s (2007) Research Onion was considered throughout as a way of creating a more reliable and reasoned process which can be developed upon following the completion of the project.

As identified previously, the majority of research in event studies follows a positivist view which follows the belief that only “factual” data collected through observations is reliable, it also relies heavily on quantifiable information leading to statistical analysis with no room for human interests within the study (Collins, 2010). In line with the exploratory research process, this project is one of interpretivism as it focuses on collecting data through social systems such as language, shared meanings, and agents (Myers, 2008). It is constructed on multiple social aspects and allows for weak prediction and a push for understanding as opposed to explanation which positivists aim towards (Pizam and Mansfeld, 2009), harmonising with the basis of assumption, which Hudson and Ozanne (1988) echoes as they explain how the interpretivist research usually begins with some insight of the proposed context, but it is thought to be insufficient if the aim is to develop a fixed design. The process is complex, and consists of multiple unpredictable natures of reality. As this project has the aim of creating an understanding as opposed to an overall explanation, interpretivism allows for new knowledge to be created throughout the study, developing with input from the informants (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988). This collaborative approach is consistent with the flexibility of exploratory research as it too follows the belief that researchers have the ability to adapt with the project, and that no one can gain prior knowledge of the social realities being identified. This process is also a good fit as it allows for researchers who are interdependent and interactive with their project sample, (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988), suiting this project as the subject being researched relies heavily on colleagues and similar employees from a number of similar organisations to carry out the chosen data collection technique, also allowing for a smaller and focused sample with more in-depth questions focused on qualitative results (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012) creating opportunities for more trustworthy and honest data which is more important for this project in order to justify the reasoning behind the original assumptions (Dudovskiy, 2016). In line with the potential disadvantages of exploratory research, this process has the potential to be heavily impacted by personal viewpoints and values. Reliability and representativeness of data can be undermined and can become victim to researcher bias, therefore the design of the collection method for this project cannot allow for generalised data and the questions will be generic and not positioned towards the work of one agency over another, giving the sample the chance to disagree and provide their viewpoint on the situation, embracing the concept of collaboration which in turn creates more grounds for discussion and future research.

The process for data collection had the potential to follow two of the four paradigms that Burrell and Morgan (1992) produced; radical humanist and interpretive. Radical structuralist and functionalist approaches were rejected in the early stages due to their close links to positivism and the defined measurable results that they result in. Due to the sample used being busy during their work days, minimal disruption was required when collecting the data which provided a strong argument towards using an interpretive approach. The radical humanist approach is similar to that of an interpretive approach, but is better suited to the follow up research after this initial project as it centres itself around demanding a solution to the situation – a solution which has yet to be established due to currently being based on an assumption. For this purpose, the radical humanist approach was also rejected and the collection method was designed around an interpretive approach which is designed solely for allowing for discussion and questioning of assumptions (Burrell and Morgan, 1992). The approach to producing the collection methods was simple for this project as there was only one approach that really suited its foundation. Deductive research bases the
development of a hypothesis upon a pre-existing theory, leading to the formation of the research approach to test it (Silverman, 2013). Deductive research is better suited to projects following a positivist approach (Snieder & Larner, 2009), which makes up part of the reason as to why it wasn’t chosen for this project, but it has been known to be useful for qualitative research which is why the decision needed to be considered more carefully as a more informed decision was required. The decision to reject this approach was heavily influenced by its characteristics of being a general to particular development whereby the general theory and knowledge is pre-established from existing literature and previous experience with the problem, against which, the particular knowledge discovered from the research process is then tested (Kothari, 2004). Due to the basis of the project stemming from assumptions, the deductive approach would not be successful as, once again, there is little to no pre-existing information on the observations. Best suited to the research was the inductive approach which forms the project starting point from the observations made by the researcher, allowing patterns to be looked for in the data (Beiske, 2007), establishing a specific to general characterisation (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This embraces the exploratory view of research as there is no initial framework informing the data collection, allowing the focus to be decided upon during and after the data has been collected (Flick, 2011). As all approaches and theories are, inductive research is disadvantaged by the fact that the data collected cannot guarantee its conclusions due to the fact that it relies heavily on observation for information collection, therefore if a wide enough sample is not observed then it is not certain to produce results with enough depth, causing it to be faced with the possibility of becoming a fallible approach. To avoid this, careful consideration must be placed on deciding upon the delimitations which are discussed later in this section. When conducted thoroughly with close observation to reducing fallibility, inductive research can be deemed as an advantage towards keeping the flexibility of the exploratory research. An initial theory, generally used to inform the research process, is absent which therefore benefits the project in the form of a reduction in the potential for researcher bias when data is being collected (Bryman & Bell, 2011) as there is less to base informed decision on when design the collection method.

The research strategy of this project had the potential to follow a number of routes due to its nature. The strategy which, from first glances, would seem to provide the best fit is; experimental research as the problem itself has not been fully identified and this strategy gives the impression that thoughts and theories are tested, resulting in a more solid approach in which to take the project. As explained by Saunders (2007) it can be used in relation to all aspects of research, taking a number of factors in to consideration allowing the researcher to compare the results of the relationship between the factors and the expected outcome. With the project being heavily based on assumptions, there is no expected outcome as, if one was introduced, it would increase the possibility of researcher bias as the problem will begin to be created around what is desired as opposed to what actually exists, therefore, experimental strategy was avoided for this stage of the project but could be revisited once the problem has been realised. Grounded theory is the most common strategy for research focusing on social sciences (Bryman, 2012), making it the ideal route for this project to take as it draws on the inductive approach which it has adopted. Once analysed, the data creates patterns resulting in preconditions for the study itself (May, 2011), complementing the exploratory and assumptive style whereby the actual problem will not be realised until after this initial study has been conducted. Taking this in to consideration, the results of grounded theory need not only describe but should also explain in order to provide a deeper understanding (Corbin and Strauss, 1990), strengthening the relationship with qualitative research techniques as the results produced, and potential statements made by the participants during the data collection, can be used directly towards developing the identified problem and deepening the scope of what is to be researched. Corbin and Strauss continue by explaining the ‘procedures and canons’ (Corbin and Strauss, 1990, p.6) that
drive grounded theory, which this project followed closely due to its exploratory nature. They believe that sampling should begin on theoretical grounds, looking at the concepts and dimensions as opposed to basing it on certain groups or individuals. Stemming from experience within an events agency environment, this project’s theory began by observing the work of agency employees in their professional environment and not the employees themselves; taking note of the incidents and on goings that denote the work of an agency employee, as well as sampling the interruptions and the conditions that prevent their work. By following this theoretical sampling, representativeness and consistency amongst conditions are produced, allowing for a deeper understanding of the environment in which there is assumed to be a problem.

Baring a close likeness to this theoretical sampling method, ethnography is also a commonly used strategy in inductive research with results produced from close observations of people and the assessment of the meanings of cultural interactions (Bryman, 2016). Lofland (1995) best describes this in relation to this project by describing as an attempt towards producing generic proposed answers for the social life questions which have prompted the assumed problem. In line with the social sciences, this process has more characteristics than generic quantitative analysis and produces closer associations with the study setting and, in the case of this project, sees participation with the setting and subjects being researched (Brewer, 2000). Ethnography as a term has two definitions amongst authors in research, with Wolcott (1973) identifying it as a perspective taken on research as opposed to a way of carrying it out. This project takes on the definition presented by Burgess (1982) who discusses ethnography as ‘ethnography understood as fieldwork’ which in itself becomes a way of conducting qualitative research. Burgess agrees that it is the practice of observing people in their everyday settings, involving the study of real life situations, but they develop the understanding by introducing the prospect of an unstructured and open-minded method, presenting wider and more representative results. Although true and relatable to this project, the use of ethnography varies slightly in the capacity that the results are used to assist in identifying the initial problem which will then be researched using further methods, compared to being used to examine the problem itself, making this method less prominent in this study. The incorporation of both ethnography and grounded theory research, pose potential disadvantages that need to be addressed due to the high participation levels in the study environment. The personal embeddedness in the study as a result of personal experiences and links, has the potential of obscuring the collection and interpretation of the data (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007), therefore the methods for data collection will include a number of open questions across broader categories, encouraging more honest answers from participants, increasing the reliability in the project. This technique is also faced with limitations, as introducing more open questions tends to produce large amounts of data which can often become difficult to manage, therefore the method will be more structured allowing for answers to be grouped.

As the constructs of this project generally face an increased threat of researcher bias, the data collection choices had to consist of more than one method. The use of mono-method research opens the project up to mono-method bias (Trochim, 2006), with reference to its measures and observations, as the construct validity is questioned due to the belief that a singular condition cannot provide enough evidence to prove that a situation is truly being measured, with critics suggesting that only part of it is covered (Cook and Campbell, 1979), therefore not providing enough scope to be reliable. Mixed method proved the overall best fit for the project as it complemented the other choices made towards the foundation of the research, including the interpretivist nature which, although focuses on qualitative research, consists of smaller samples and more opportunities for in-depth research. The mixed methods choice makes use of two methods of research which result in both qualitative and...
quantitative results, which are then analysed and combined to create a single dataset (Flick, 2011), as opposed to the choice of multi method which uses a wider selection of methods focusing on different segments of the problem which are collected as singular specific datasets and eventually analysed using either quantitative or qualitative techniques (Feilzer, 2010). Although a multi method approach generally provides more depth and introduces a different perspective on the situation being studied, or a different lens as described by Sandelowski (1995), it could be argued that it is too developed for this stage of the study as the current research is being carried out based on assumption as opposed to an existing problem, therefore not ruling out the potential positive result that it could have in this study, but positioning it within a later stage once this initial research has been conducted.

Mixed methods are often discussed as a flat concept, with little mention to the dominance of one method over another, but as this project has a strong link with the social sciences, there was a requirement for a qualitative focused approach. Using Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner's 'Graphic of the three major research paradigms, including subtypes of mixed methods research' (Figure 4), this project was aimed towards a 'qualitative dominant' approach as it focuses on a qualitative process, while understanding the benefits that the addition of quantitative data is likely to add to a project of this assumptive origin (Johnson et al, 2007, p.124). Using this approach also avoids the main limitation of mixed method research as presented by Bazeley (2004) who believes that quantifying qualitative data can cause it to lose its flexibility and depth as it converts the multidimensional reach in to one-dimensional fixed data.

When considering the time horizons employed by the project, the situation arises, whereby, both options suit the nature of the research as they are believed not to be limited by the chosen approach or methodology (Saunders et al., 2007). A longitudinal study had the potential of introducing the aspect of change and development due to the nature of repeatedly collecting data over an extended period. In the case of this project, it could prove as a good fit as it allows for the change of a prominent factor of the research, in this case; polychronicity, to be further examined (Goddard & Melville, 2004), allowing for more
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

comparison and deeper analysis of the severity of the research problem, further ridding the project of the possibility of being victim to researcher bias, based on assumption, as the data collected could be different after every analysis. It also provides the researcher with the ability to exercise an additional measure of control over the project variables (Adams and Schvaneveldt, 1991), allowing for slight method amendments on every attempt, focusing on the most relevant factors linked to the problem resulting in more reliable and detailed analysis. Although Saunders et al, state that time horizons are not restricted by the chosen methods or approach, a longitudinal study can be considered as too in depth for this preliminary study as this project is based on assumption and exploratory research with minimal existing data, therefore, a cross-sectional time frame has been utilised. Referred to as the snapshot time collection by Flick (2011), this framework sees data collected at a certain point. Saunders et al (2009) believe cross-sectional studies compliment the use of qualitative research where the aim of the research is to explore and describe the extent of a phenomenon and how they are related across organisations, harmonising with this research’s concept of polychronicity across events agencies. Further reasoning agrees with Saunders et al’s comments of producing a description as opposed to an explanation, but counteracts their earlier beliefs that time frames are not impacted by the choice of methodology. A cross-sectional study is better suited to the interpretivist approach used, which was earlier identified as pushing for understanding, whereas, if the project had taken the route of positivism, the aim would have pushed for explanatory results where, paired with a longitudinal study, the research may not have produced results sufficient enough to meet the initial aims and objectives.

Throughout this project, the fact that there is little literature in existence in relation to events agencies has been prominent, therefore, the only data collected that would produce results that prove to be valid and reliable in any form is primary data as the analysis of secondary data relies solely on the work and opinions of other researchers (Newman & Benz, 1998). Although first hand sources from other researchers can be utilised during the analysis stage, this project is heavily reliant on primary data collected from respondents solely linked to this project due to the lack of relatable data available. Existing data which can prove beneficial to this project is the access to employee numbers of the agencies who take part in the data collection process as these can be related back to, creating an opportunity to compare a selection of organisations in the industry and resulting in a glimpse of how this may make a difference to the problem in question.

As the project follows an exploratory research design, its scope is very wide with the potential of addressing a number of aspects while exploring the assumptive problem. To allow for boundaries to be defined and the scope to be narrowed slightly, delimitations were carefully considered. As Simon (2011) states, the process of identifying delimitations began before the project itself with the initial stage of narrowing the scope, presented from the observations of the event agency environment, resulting in the remaining problem which forms the basis of this project. Other related problems could have been chosen but were screened and rejected before official research began, including; ‘research of the pressures of polychronicity; intrinsic or extrinsic motivation?’ and ‘research on whether changing attitudes due to polychronic pressure effects loyalty factors’. Once the literature review had taken place, other delimitators were identified in the form of research questions, research variables, the theoretical perspectives which have been discussed above and the sample in which were going to be used during the data collection. To fulfil the quantitative data aspect of the mixed methods strategy, a questionnaire to identify whether participants were more polychronic or monochronic was chosen. Using an adaptation of the ‘Monochronic/Polychronic Self-Test’ produced by Guillory (n.d), (appendix 3), participants are faced with a Likert scale test which uses a selection of fixed choice responses designed
to measure their attitudes and opinions (Bowling, 2014) towards certain polychronic/monochronic situations that can occur in an events agency, measuring their agreement/disagreement with each. This test seems popular amongst other time management researchers and organisations, with very few others being in circulation. The original questionnaire produced by Guillory is a general self-test made up of 16 questions, where not all are relevant to this project such as question 8; “With respect to your valued possessions, you:” therefore, it has been adapted with the more generic questions being removed as they do not provide substantial weight to the data being collected and the wording of remaining questions being amended to be more adaptable to this research (appendix 4), the adaptation also ensures the test focuses on producing results more focused on meeting the project aims and objectives – the scoring system has also been adapted to shadow the amendments, which can be seen in appendix 5.

To satisfy the qualitative dominant approach adopted by the research, this data collection design was split in to two methods, with a number of ideas explored and rejected due to feasibility. All ideas followed the same principle of testing the participants within their own environment, but the procedure had to take their busy lifestyle in to consideration, avoiding disrupting their schedule and being potentially forgotten. The initial concept stemmed from the study conducted by Kirchberg, Roe & Van Eerde (2015) who asked 93 participants to log diary entries in the mornings and evenings for 5 consecutive days, from which, the results demonstrated multitasking behaviour, opportunities, interruptions, and unplanned work, as well as well-being and self-rated performance. Although thorough and in line with both the ethnographic sampling method and the objective of exploring workload management techniques, this task would not be in line with the exploratory design and could also have the potential of becoming an interruption to the participants’ day resulting in it being forgotten and putting the results in a vulnerable position due to unreliability through not being completed or invalidity through being made up. With the premise following the same concept, the second step to this project’s data collection was split in to two stages, with the first presenting participants with a to do list based on general responsibilities undertaken within an agency environment as well as approximate durations (appendix 6), which ensures meeting the objective of exploring techniques is still a prominent focus. The number of tasks were purposely greater than the number of hours in a working day in an attempt to capture the true actions that the participants would take to manage them, asking for explanations as to why they prioritised the tasks as they did and why they may not have completed others. This task allows the participant full control over their answers in order to avoid any researcher bias or influence from researcher opinions, as well as providing insight in to the objective of identifying work ethics. Upon completion of part 1, the task introduced a number of disruptions and unplanned events (appendix 7) in order to understand, without amending the table from part 1, how the participants would manage them based on how they organised their to do list, adding further weight towards the objective of exploring how employees manage their workloads. Presenting a quantitative questionnaire followed by a qualitative task should allow for an interesting comparison between whether participants’ actions match their attitudes, or whether the likert scale presents an ideal self with their qualitative results demonstrating a different portrayal.

In line with the adopted interpretivist method, the sample size for this research will be smaller than typical research projects, to allow for a more focused and in-depth study. The delimitators for the sample size are minimal as the problem has not yet developed sufficiently to identify whether it effects a certain group more than others, therefore, the sample will be open in terms of geography, age and gender but will focus solely on events agency employees within event management teams. To allow for future research to introduce more delimitations, the data collection method will collect age ranges and gender,
creating the opportunity for further comparison between the participants and for the scope to be further narrowed and the research more focused. To avoid becoming too much of an interference with regards to work schedules, the questionnaire and task were sent to participants during the Summer months with a two-week time frame for completion as, although still busy, this is thought to be a quieter time for the events agency side of the industry due to school holidays and corporate events occurring at a decreased rate over this period.
4. Data Collection

4.1. Overview

Using a platform designed especially for events management professionals, along with existing industry contacts and colleagues, the data collection activity was distributed to 25 participants who signed up to take part, consisting of a mix of male and female employees ranging from 18 - 45 from small to large agencies with 1 – 300+ employees. From the 25 who opted to take part, 17 responses were received with the remaining 8 participants asking to withdraw due to heavy workloads and busy schedules which, in its own form, provides some backing to this research and insight into the objective of exploring workload management, as when first signing up they believed their workloads would allow them to take part but over the course of two weeks additional pressures forced them to withdraw. With the 68% of completed responses, the data was analysed individually and then again, together, allowing for comparison and further scrutiny of the answers and the collection technique itself, in order to assess the overall success rate. With all responses being completely original and being separated from the beliefs and assumptions of the researcher, the following analysis provides interesting findings towards the project in hand.

4.2 Quantitative analysis

Using an adapted version of the scoring system from the likert scale produced by Guillory (n.d) (appendix 5) the answers provided to each question by each individual were added together, producing the results which can be found in the overall scoring graph below (figure 5).

From looking at the lowest score of 40 and the highest of 65, it is evident that there is a comparable difference between the participants and their attitudes towards time management situations, albeit not dramatic, they are both mid-way in different categories with one demonstrating characteristics of a monochron and the other of a polychron. The results above illustrate a near-even split, with 47% of participants demonstrating polychronic tendencies and the remaining 53% portraying those of a monochron, introducing an interesting basis for discussion. Before delving deeper into the specific individual answers and characteristics, it is beneficial to gain further insight into how the scores are broken down. When considering the categories that the participants can be grouped in, the data produces results which, in themselves, are an interesting basis for further research, as the male/female split shows that the male contingents can be classed as moderately polychronic.
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

as opposed to their counterparts who are fixed in the moderately monochronic classification (figure 6). Although, it could be argued that the male participants in this process do not form a fair representation with them only totalling 18% of the total sample, but it provides strong grounds for discussion as all of the male results fell within the polychronic tendency, whereas the female sample straddled both classifications, posing the question of; are polychronic and monochronic situations better suited to one gender over the other, adding an interesting argument to the objective of assessing the different attitudes presented by employees in time management situations.

Gender is not the only prominent variation in events agencies, with the employee age gap being fairly mixed. Asking each participant to select their age group, the results are once again compared to see which groups fall in to which classification. With 40 - 45 year olds contributing the smallest group of the sample with 17.6% of participants, they are the only group with all members resulting in moderately polychronic, with an overall average score of 63 (figure 7), while the largest group made up of 25 – 30 year olds (35.4% of overall sample) resulted in the second lowest score of 49.33, with 67% of the age group being deemed monochronic and the remaining 33% achieving polychronic scores, therefore being classed overall as moderately monochronic. The remainder of the age groups (both 23.5 % of the overall sample) also resulted in moderately monochronic, with 18 – 24-year olds scoring the lowest of 48.5, with a 75% monochronic majority compared to the 50/50 split in the 30 – 35-year-old category.
With the overview of results illustrated, it is clear to see that the employees within an events agency are fairly mixed and, with the exception of 40 – 45 year olds, it is difficult to produce any generalisations with regards to employee characteristics as the majority of scores are different with people, who may fall within the same category, having different preferences when choosing their work ethic, which suggests that the objective of identifying different perceptions of work ethics requires the attention of mixed methods to provide suitable weight to the results. To allow for further discussion on employee characteristics and preferred work ethic, a selection of answers from the questionnaire were analysed, to allow for further assessment of the people themselves.

With regards to identifying polychronicity and monochronicity, the main question which assists in painting a picture is question one (appendix 4) as it embodies the definitions of the two phenomena’s themselves as it asks; “When working on a project, you find it most effective to”, which focuses on the fashion that participants prefer to work through tasks. The results of this question are the most interesting as all options were selected at least once (figure 8) with the most selected answer being the more moderately monochronic choice of ‘B’ with 35.3% of the sample choosing it. But this question is interesting for more reasons as the answers to this question provide the clear definitions to both polychronicity and monochronicity as identified by the likes of Kirchberg, Roe and Van Eerde (2015), which could lead the reader to assume that all participants choosing either ‘D’ or ‘E’ which are higher up the polychronic spectrum of the scale, would end the process as polychrons, but in fact 14.3% ended as monochronic which is also the same situation for the monochrons as 12.5% of ‘A’ and ‘B’ answers resulted as polychronic. The two participants who opted for the middle ground, choosing ‘C’, were evenly split as 50/50 polychron and monochron. This comparable data is an important step towards the overall project aim as it demonstrates the ideology that agencies are mixed, with a majority monochronic.

![Figure 8 Results from question 1](image)

While continuing to further analyse the results in respect of employee characteristics, the earlier discussed literature can be revisited to add further context. The work by Ferdinand and Kitchin (2017) is important as they believe that polychrons are more adaptable to interruptions and last-minute changes, compared to the monochron who prefer to focus on one task at a time and are less favourable to interruptions (Hall and Hall, 1990) and are therefore slightly less adaptable. By linking these definitions to questions two and nine, a
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

more thorough understanding of work ethics can be identified and can be used to assess the validity against the two definitions. Question two provides an interesting insight as from first glance at figure 9 it is evident that Hall and Hall's definition may not be relatable to employees of today or is not transferrable across disciplines as it would be expected that all monochrons would have selected either ‘A’ or ‘B’ where they are “seldom interrupted by and rarely interact with others”, but only 11.8% of respondents (2 participants) chose an answer below C, with one of them having overall results portraying them as a polychron.

This could be due to the idea of the events industry being a more social environment, where projects are often worked on as part of a team, therefore requiring interaction with other employees. The most popular answer selected was ‘C’, with 52.9% of the sample selecting it which could be down to the daily variation of tasks and workloads, as some days tasks will require increased concentration with minimal interruptions, whereas other days tasks are easier and can be completed with interaction with other employees.

To gauge the validity of the definition of polychronicity provided by Ferdinand and Kitchin, question nine can be examined as it assesses the business style of the participants. The polychronic end of the scale refers to the concept of being ‘adaptable’ which is one of the key words in the definition being related back to. By following the definition, it could be expected that the polychronic respondents would opt for a majority of ‘D’ and ‘E’ answers, but figure 10 shows that, in fact, only 17.65% of the sample selected ‘D’, with this being the highest end of the scale being selected, moreover, one of the respondents choosing ‘D’ was identified as an overall monochron, creating a conflicting view on that of the questionnaire and scale itself.
With events agencies, no matter the overall preference on way of working, employees must be adaptable to an extent as tasks change daily and interruptions are rife, no matter how unfavourable. This belief is backed by the number of respondents who chose ‘B’ and ‘C’ (41.18% and 35.29%) being both monochronic and polychronic, as being adaptable and flexible does not necessarily mean you cannot be orderly and sequential and vice versa, it just requires additional logic when adapting your workload when you’re faced with new tasks and interruptions. Providing valuable insight and interesting comparisons in to the objective of assessing attitudes towards time management situations, the results from question 9 pose the question of whether adaptability can be classed as a trait of polychronicity or whether this is a personal preference, which also adds further insight in to the overall aim of the research as agencies tend to ask for adaptability when searching for new employees.

With the quantitative results demonstrating that there are more overall monochrons in the approached agencies, the efficiency of this questionnaire is questioned. The results produced were reliable as they were not victim to any researcher bias upon answering and they were comparable, allowing for thorough analysis in to the social aspect of work traits and the overall research aims, producing a number of interesting arguments when paired with definitions that exist within literature. But when assessing the practicality of the activity, with reference to the overall aim, it could be argued that these results are not strong enough to carry the research on their own as respondents are in a different mind-set when completing this as it is a simple multiple-choice task with no opportunity for development of answers from respondents, possibly prompting them to choose answers that represent an ideal self as opposed to their actual self. To further develop the answers from this questionnaire and to meet the mixed methodology route of the research, the qualitative results will be scrutinised and will be discussed with reference to the quantitative results, with the aim of achieving the overall objectives set.

4.3 Qualitative analysis

4.3a. Overview
In line with the interpretivist philosophies that this project embodies, the desired outcome of qualitative results was not to explain but to understand and gain an insight in to the workings of an events agency, with the final aim of introducing discussions in to whether agencies are becoming polychronic only environments. The method was designed so that the results were not predictable as it gave respondents free rein when answering the open questions while allowing them to justify their choices, making them personable and reliable. With the task being carried out in the participants’ own time with little communication between themselves and the researcher, along with a generous deadline, the results were safe from being influenced or becoming victim to researcher bias as they have evolved from raw individual thoughts and beliefs. Although positive, this does open the method up for criticism in terms of validity as some respondents started the task and then revisited it when they had more time meaning they would have longer to consider their answers, therefore, posing the question of whether the representation of the participants’ work preference is realistic or whether they have possibly created another version of their ideal self.

4.3b. Abandoned theming
Taking this in to consideration, the results began to be analysed with a number of routes being considered. As mentioned, the analysis method would follow the route of theming and exploring as this best suits smaller samples within a more complex study. The original theming attempt examined the individual responses to each task, in an attempt to understand employee’s motives and how they felt about carrying out specific tasks, identifying similar patterns of priorities. Although the results were seemingly promising with
different participants introducing fresh approaches and views while also creating interesting arguments, attempting to compare these to the quantitative results proved difficult due to a lack of similarities, they also caused the research to slide away from the overall aim as their focus was weighted heavier towards the practicalities of prioritisation as opposed to the overall social construct of the agency environment. Although adaptable to potential future projects to follow, this resulted in the first analysis attempt being abandoned for this project, and the theming technique to be revisited to find the best route in creating comparable results and achieving the desired aim.

4.3c. Workload management

Following a similar principle to the abandoned technique, the next attempt examined the process which respondents used when prioritising their workload, but as a whole as opposed to individual tasks. A key theme that is repeated throughout the answers is the concept of working around other people. This can be further broken down to consider the types of people that agencies deal with on a day to day basis. Firstly, many respondents refer to the belief that “clients come first”, with a majority of 11 out of 17 client calls being positioned within the first four tasks on their to do list, which creates a strong reference back to their work ethics as they are putting an external party first. Again, this can be further broken down in to two additional themes; the first being the action of making the client feel valued and ensuring they are priority. This is common practice within organisations, with managers instilling this in to the way you work from day one. But it could be argued that when completing a task where you asked to plan it ahead, it is simple to put people first. To explore this deeper, an additional questions was later asked to see whether the participants would accept an unexpected call from the client following up on a query that existed on another event which did not appear on their to do list. Out of the 11 respondents who prioritised the original client call, 4 said they would not accept the call or they would push the client back to a later date. The lack of adaptability towards the interruption works in harmony with the fact that all 4 of these respondents were deemed as moderately monochronic in their initial likert scale test, prompting a question in to their ethics as when the time comes to it, they did not put the client first. The remaining 7 respondents stated that they would take the call and would stop doing other tasks, with the likelihood they would “park one of the other tasks”, making them very adaptable to polychronic work traits and harmonising with Ferdinand and Kitchin’s (2017) discussion on polychrons being adaptable to last minute changes.

4.3d. Prioritisation

The second theme of prioritising clients stems from the anticipation of additional tasks being added to workloads following the call. Although polychronic in the sense that the respondent is adaptable to potential additions and new tasks being introduced, it is also a monochronic thought process as they are anticipating the change and are already planning ahead in case the situation arises that they require a reshuffle of their workload, introducing a fresh insight in to the exploration of workload management as they plan towards expecting the unexpected. This concept of planning time around people also relates to those external parties, which introduces the second aspect of the overall key theme; suppliers. Being part of an agency sees their employees working as the middle party, waiting for information from other parties on both sides. For further assessment, large tasks; such as project reconciliations can be referred to, as the large quantities of data required to complete the tasks are generally not always received at the time of starting. To help explain this further, participants have commented on how agency employees often have to “juggle and time management can go off course” due to external parties causing delays, resulting in the employee chasing missing pieces to allow them to continue. The starting and stopping of a task and not completing it before beginning another follows the polychronic concept of
dovetailing as introduced by Bluedorn et al (1992). Whether this way of working is a preference or not, this situation introduces the idea of *forced polychronicity* as the employee may not feel comfortable with these actions, but has no choice on how to prevent the situation arising.

### 4.3e. Time allocation

An interesting theme which occurred following the discussion from Cotte and Ratneshwar (1999) regarding the concept of time for polychrons and Hall and Hall (1987) who discuss this from a monochron perspective, is the allocation of time to each task by each respondent. Polychrons are thought to consider time as a naturally recurring element which they use as and when they need, whereas monochrons see it as more linear and tangible with the potential of being broken up. The allocation of time throughout the results analysis saw a majority of polychronic tendencies as although estimated task durations were allocated to the activity, they were very loose fitting and allowed participants to interpret them how the saw fit, giving the impression that their answers are not fixed and are representative of an idealistic priority ranking as opposed to a tight schedule, allowing the participants to carry out tasks when they required and with what time they have available, adding a sense of flexibility to the objective of exploring workload management techniques. This theme would not have originally been noticed if not for a number of monochronic participants as, the monochronic minorities to this polychronic heavy theme, saw participants listing exact times that these tasks would be started and completed, with one participant planning their day extensively, down to the allocation of a lunch break as they “need to take a break”. Other variations of the monochronic minority is the less strict time schedule where exact times have not been allocated, but the tasks have been split over a number of days which allows for flexibility during the day but introduces a monochronic sense of forecasting. While introducing a comparative view to the adaptable, flexible results mentioned above and adding a fresh approach towards the objective of exploring workload management techniques, the assumptive polychronic nature of events agencies rarely allow for this monochronic tendency as one of the monochrons explain how they usually “have to drop one or two tasks (or move them to another day)” as a result of disruptions and not being able to complete the tasks, which when paired with the previous theme, create a link towards the overall project aim as they give the impression that a polychronic environment is beginning to appear.

### 4.3f. Organisational constraints

As more themes emerge, the aim of this research is becoming more prominent that there is a sense of polychronicity stemming from the agency environment itself, regardless of the traits and work preferences of their employees. From the data, it appears that certain tasks which occur within most agencies can also spur a need for polychronic working, which seem to stem from organisational constraints such as “SLAs” (Service Level Agreements). By placing a deadline for action on certain tasks, the employees are bound to meet them to avoid disciplinary action. Contextualising this with the use of the research task, comments surrounding the delegate management piece had a recurring mention of SLAs as attendees of upcoming events must be responded to within a timeline which is “likely to be a 24-48 hour” turn around. With the nature of this task being disruptive due to a constant flow of emails and phone calls, employees find themselves stopping their current task in order to make necessary actions or responses. Although seemingly polychronic, a number of participants demonstrated an attempt to practice a monochronic process, by allocating certain times and durations throughout the day “in both the morning/afternoon” to check event inboxes and incoming queries which, although works in theory, proves difficult when dealing with a large number of event attendees. While the majority of participants accept that this is a polychronic task and adapt it to their workload, a select few believe their
monochronic way of working is best and that tasks such as this should be managed in such a way that they are treated as a “half day/day project” with full concentration. While completing other tasks and to avoid disruption, they also noted to going to such lengths as turning email notifications off and visiting the inboxes in the morning to ensure it is clear to avoid event attendees waiting longer. The latter of these themes is a good example and introduction in to the power of the employee character and strengthening the discussion surrounding their work ethic and workload techniques, as although the polychronic nature of the task/environment is prominent in this situation, the beliefs and actions of the employee are strive to change what others believe is formality and create their own way of managing people while adapting them to their workload.

4.3g. Additional comments
To add additional weight to the research, participants were presented with the opportunity to disclose additional comments and personal beliefs on the situation of the industry. Heavily contributing to the qualitative aspect of the research, the beliefs and thoughts of the respondents provided positive arguments towards the assumptive problem of agencies being polychronic environments. Of the twelve participants who left additional comments, eleven (made up of polychrons and monochrons) believed that the to do list represents a “standard day” within an agency environment, which is a big step in agreement towards the assumption of events agencies being polychronic environments and towards meeting the aim of the project as the number of tasks provided, as previously mentioned, were purposely greater than the amount of time available during a working day. The comments of certain participants were built upon, with one respondent stating that the environment of agencies can make the “job feel overwhelming” making them feel “stretched out across too many projects at one time”. This response alone creates a sense of reasoning for this research to be conducted as the participant who noted this feeling was identified as a moderate monochron. In harmony with this comment, one other participant who also identified as a monochron also stated that they believed that the agency situation is “not a sustainable way to work for long periods”. To avoid the research being biased by focusing on the extreme cases from monochrons, comments from polychrons were also collated and were centred around the to do list being manageable and “the amounts of tasks were ok”, but adding that it would need to be a “focused day” to avoid deadlines slipping. These qualitative comments add further weight to the seemingly quantitative objective of assessing employee’s attitudes towards time management situations as feeling overwhelmed and believing that it is not a sustainable way of working as well as anticipating the slipping of deadlines can be positioned as negative attitudes towards the agency environment as they suggest increased levels of pressure. Further conflicts of interest between personal work ethics and the organisational environment stem from a participant comment which can be considered a juxtapose as they identify that the environment requires employees to be adaptable, but their personal work ethic and workload management techniques believe that prioritising “and forecasting is paramount”, which when positioned in the same description creates an oxymoron, prompting a question of which force is stronger, personal work ethic or the organisational environment? Creating an interesting position in relation to the overall aim of the project.
5. Conclusion

In conclusion, it can be seen from the research discussions above that the agency environment can be considered as more polychronic than monochronic. The results are not conclusive enough to confirm whether it is becoming a polychronic-only environment, but they are strong enough to suggest the aim of the research has been met as an introductory relationship between agencies and polychronicity has been discussed with reference to it being more polychronic focused. To assess the full extent of the aim being met and the success of the research, the objectives are to be revisited. Due to the nature of this project being heavily assumptive and exploratory, the conclusions drawn from the results are carefully collated to avoid being victim of researcher bias. Assessing employees’ attitudes towards time management situations was linked heavily to the likert scale polychronic/monochronic self-test, as this assessed participants’ reaction towards certain situations within their work environment. Overall, the results illustrated that the sample was made up of mainly monochrons with an even split falling short by 3%. With these results being the first to be analysed, the aim of the project was put in to question as the impression of a monochronic environment appeared which therefore questioned the validity of this project. This objective which was initially believed to be solely quantitative, also received credit from the qualitative task as comments from the sample gave the impression that agency environments are indeed polychronic, with reference to workloads and situations such as “overwhelming” and “not sustainable” which were further backed by polychrons believing certain days had to be focused to ensure deadlines did not slip which in agency is difficult due to the number of disruptions throughout the day.

When identifying different perceptions surrounding employee work ethics, results were produced from both methods, with the quantitative results acting as backing to the qualitative. The theme of working around other people was introduced, with the initial introduction stemming from the majority of respondents believing that the client comes first. As noted throughout the research the quantitative results could be perceived as illustrating an ideal self as opposed to the actual self, therefore the backing for this theme came from the additional disruptions within the to do list task as participants stated they would stop what they were doing to answer a client phone call and carry out additional tasks, which when partnered with definitions from within the literature review explains the traits of a polychron. The weight for this theme comes from participant comments surrounding “juggling tasks” and literary references to dovetailing due to depending on external parties, which introduced the concept of forced polychronicity and therefore making large reference to the main aim of the research as the situation of depending on other people before finishing tasks is one that is difficult to avoid. While fulfilling this objective and meeting the aim, additional comments from participants prompted a further discussion which could be researched in future; an oxymoron was presented when a response made reference to the adaptability required from the environment, while discussing their work ethic revolving around the importance of prioritising and forecasting prompting the question of which is stronger. When paired with the literature reviewed it is understood that if the polychronic environment proved stronger, a monochron can struggle with the stress of a role and the tasks in hand.

The final objective was set to explore the techniques adopted by employees surrounding workload management. Although there were a number of monochronic tendencies with participants structuring their time rigidly and referring to time as a tangible aspect as discussed in the literature review, the majority of responses (including a number of monochrons) were polychronic, with participants fitting tasks in to their day where possible as polychrons consider time as a naturally recurring element which they use as and when they need to. Further identified themes which surrounded organisational policies once again gave the impression that agencies are more polychronic as certain tasks have fixed
agreements (SLAs) which require responses and actions within a timely manner, which can see certain tasks stopped in order to meet the fixed deadline. Although they have the potential to be worked around, certain tasks with SLAs can produce a high number of disruptions such as emails and phone calls which would prompt a change in activity, once again referring to the introduced concept of forced polychronicity as it is occasionally not the preference of the employee.

5.1. Limitations and recommendations
With the results seemingly pointing towards events agencies being polychronic environments, the limitations of the method have to be addressed to highlight where the project could have been improved and where it may have been less successful than desired. Although the use of a reduced sample size is justified by the adoption of an interpretivist method, the final number of respondents can still be considered too small to be able to represent the vast number of employees that work within events agencies. The sample were employees from a number of different sized agencies, but the total number of participating agencies could have been larger to create a more comparative sample. The small number of respondents also has an impact on the representation of sample categories such as age and gender as there was not a fair split in the numbers who took part, regardless of the results produced being easily comparative and producing interesting results. To ensure the continuation of interesting results as well as the increased levels of comparison, the contingency rates for research dropouts should be increased, to ensure a fair representation is captured.

The qualitative data collection method was unique and created interesting results and allowed for participants to have free rein and express their beliefs and feelings while also meeting the needs of the project objectives, but to produce the desired levels of complexity in what was being discussed it could be argued that the method should have embodied that of the previously identified diary method carried out by Kirchberg, Roe & Van Eerde (2015), as it required data entries on a number of consecutive days which therefore creates a larger quantity of comparative results which would allow for deeper analysis. It could also be argued that to capture the raw qualitative data that this research requires, an observational method could be considered. If designed appropriately and conducted in a timely manner, this could be less disruptive than initially considered and would produce more valid results as the responses and observations would be in real time, avoiding participants putting too much thought into their responses based on their ideal self.

Overall, the complexity of this research was unknown at the initial stage of the assumptive problem occurring, which prompted the choice of exploratory research and the selection of the main aim being focused on introducing and describing as opposed to a fixed result and explanation. As the research developed, the vastness and heightened level of complexity was realised which prompted the idea that the nature of this project was not enough to produce results detailed enough as it should be carried out over a number of years to truly capture a true representation and results with deep enough reasoning. Although the aim of the project was met as the results were successful in introducing insight in to whether events agencies are polychronic environments, they could have been developed further with continual testing and further analysis and interviews with employees to understand their true feelings while witnessing first-hand how they deal with certain workload and time management situations within the agency environment.
6. References


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An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees


41

Jack Lee U1151024
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

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44

Jack Lee U1151024
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees


An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees


46

Jack Lee U1151024
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees


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7. Appendices

Appendix 1

Events management job description – “Managing Time”

Events Coordinator

Job Objective:
To run a wide range of events in support of the Institution’s charitable objective.

Reports to: Director of Communications

Job Purpose:
Working within the Communications and Marketing team, the role of the events co-ordinator is to develop and deliver a range of events such as training/information seminars, conferences, publicity events, dinners and luncheons, seeking opportunities to generate income through sponsorship, attendance, and commercial activities.

Job Specification
The job holder will play a key role in organising a wide range of events including: six to eight topical one day conferences each year; an IHT Awards ceremony; an Annual Luncheon; the WRA Congress (every 4 years) & WRA-UK National Congress (biennial); the WRA Annual lunch; Branch Officers annual conference, Regional workshops for outside organisations (for example HA, DfT); learned society lecture; joint branch events and the national ‘Presidential Conference’, promotional events for the Institution, events for corporate partners and others. This should not be seen as an exhaustive list, but one that may change and develop over time.

Responsibilities The main duties to include:
• To work alongside project planners (normally committee secretaries who in turn work closely with members) to develop plans for events and to attend event steering group meetings • To identify and book locations for the events, liaise with location management for booking, catering and logistical arrangements • Liaise between project planners and the communications and marketing team for the timely production and circulation of flyers and other information relating to event publicity, such as other organisations’ websites, appropriate mailing lists and the media • Contribute actively to decisions on marketing events; compiling databases of likely interest, drafting and circulating emails and telephoning individuals • To set up and manage the delegate booking arrangements as appropriate for each event, up to and including sending out invoices • Find sponsorship and exhibitors for conferences and other events • Compile and send out speaker and delegate information • Assemble and arrange delivery of delegate packs, name badges and exhibition stand and material as appropriate • Manage the booking couriers and timely delivery and return of exhibition stands, computer equipment and documents • Manage the event on the day, including setting up, instructing external contractors and internal staff assistance • Liaise with branches to develop and keep up to date a diary of IHT central office and branch events to limit clashes and conflicts
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

- Ensure that exhibition stands are kept in good working order and event equipment box is well stocked.

**Person Specification**

Education Good standard of general education including Maths and English are essential. It is likely that the job holder will have a degree level education. A demonstrable interest in transportation related subjects, civil engineering, planning or politics would be an asset.

**Experience, Skills and Aptitudes Essential**

- Demonstrable previous experience in event management
- Excellent written English and oral communication skills for drafting and proof reading materials
- Excellent organisational skills, particularly in managing time and tasks
- A keen eye for detail and the ability to produce high quality, accurate work in tight timescales with limited supervision
- Computer literate with at intermediate experience of the Microsoft suite of programmes, particularly MS Word, Excel and Powerpoint
- Technical awareness to set up powerpoint and other simple AV systems when technicians are not around
- The confidence to liaise with speakers and senior officials from Government departments, other professional bodies and learned societies, the media and a diverse range of external contacts
- A welcoming and helpful approach when dealing with members in person at events and over the telephone
- Self-reliance, common sense, trust, integrity, and humour
- Physical strength and flexibility to carry and set up small exhibition stands and materials and av systems in a variety of venues
- The job holder will have, or may need to develop financial awareness to produce and monitor budgets
- Marketing experience and an understanding of the value of direct mail in promoting events to members.

**Availability**
The job involves attendance at events at a range of venues around the UK. The job holder will be expected to be able to travel, and spend nights away from home (sometimes several, consecutively) while supporting these events. Some evening working will be required. Good advance notice will be given, and compensating time off is available through the flexitime system.

**Terms and Conditions**
The job is based at new offices near Old Street underground in London N1. Salary in the range £20 - £23,000 according to experience Flexible working hours (35 hour week) 21 days holiday per year plus bank holidays and 4 other days when IHT is closed (total 33 days) After probation, 6.5% contribution to a personal pension and life assurance.
Appendix 2
Events management job description – “Multitasking”

The finer details...
With plenty to be getting on with, your main responsibilities include:

- Development, production and delivery of projects from proposal right up to delivery.
- Delivering events on time, within budget, that meet (and hopefully exceed) expectations.
- Setting, communicating and maintaining timelines and priorities on every project
- Communicating, maintaining and developing client relationships
- Managing supplier relationships
- Managing operational and administrative functions to ensure specific projects are delivered efficiently
- Providing leadership, motivation, direction and support to your team
- Travelling to on site inspections and project managing events
- Being responsible for all project budgets from start to finish.
- Ensuring excellent customer service and quality delivery

Money, money, money
The all important money question. Typical starting salaries range from £19,000 - £25,000, but it depends on the level you’re working at.

Mid-level salaries, fall between £25,000 and £45,000. While more senior levels applicants with experience (for example for candidates with 10 to 15 years in the role) can earn anything between £50,000 and £70,000.

See what people are earning in this job

The good points...
Job security and plenty of room for career development is a stand-out perk of the job. “Most employers prefer to recruit internally and it’s common for directors to have started out as administrators or coordinators,” explains Tony Rogers of Eventia, the UK’s leading association for the events industry.

“The average role tends to last approximately three years for all the occupations, but then employers have seen some event directors that have worked at the same organisation for 10 years.”

Lower level jobs such as event administrators, coordinators and executives tend to move more frequently, especially if they don’t see an opportunity to progress to the next post.

...and the bad
With so many responsibilities to keep on top of, you’ll need to be more organised than a human octopus.
Is there study involved?
“Unlike many other sectors, the events industry does not yet have clear entry routes or easily identified career progression paths,” says Rogers. “However, events management courses have become increasingly popular in the past 10 years and are a common entry route into the events industry. Many of those now working in the industry have come to it as a second or third career.”

Event management courses can now be found at a wide range of colleges and universities, for a full list visit Eventia.

Need additional qualifications? Find a course at our Learning Zone

OK, I'm interested... But is it really the job for me?
This job is mostly about communication, so if you're not great at speaking to a crowd, motivating people or selling an idea, then it might not be the role for you.

But if you have some of these qualities, it might just be the career for you:

- **Good communicator**
- Ability to lead and motivate a team
- Good with budgets
- Reliable/good at hitting deadlines
- Ability to use initiative
- **Multi-tasker**
Appendix 3

A Polychronic/Monochronic self test


Polychronic/Monochronic Personal Cultural Preferences

Instructions

This instrument is designed to assist you in understanding your personal cultural preferences, and therefore, how naturally adaptable you might be in certain organizations and global regions. You will derive the greatest value from this survey if you answer each statement as honestly as possible, based upon your own thinking and behavior.

Circle the letter that best describes your preferred opinion or preferred behavior in an organizational situation. The two endpoints of the scale, A and E, are defined as written. The midpoint, C, represents the position occurring about equally between the two endpoint descriptions. The designations B and D favor A and E, respectively, though not as strongly in inclination or frequency of occurrence. As best you can, determine where your opinion or behavior would occur most consistently on the scale for each of the situations below.

1. When working on a project, you find it most effective to:

A. Work through each part of the project in an orderly fashion.

B. Work on many different parts of the project at the same time.

2. You work most effectively in an organization when:

A. You are seldom interrupted by and rarely interact with other employees.

B. You are constantly interacting with and interrupted for discussions by other employees.
3. When you are assigned a project that is due at a specific time, you:

A: Establish a specific plan for achieving the project by the deadline, if not before.
B: Create a flexible plan which may or may not accomplish the project by the exact deadline.

C: Informal interoffice verbal communication among employees.
D: Detailed written memos or internal communication systems.
E: Developing each worker and establishing quality relationships among employees.

4. Organizational information is most efficiently shared and disseminated through:

A: Informal interoffice verbal communication among employees.
B: Detailed written memos or internal communication systems.
C: Developing each worker and establishing quality relationships among employees.
D: Establish a specific plan for achieving the project by the deadline, if not before.
E: Create a flexible plan which may or may not accomplish the project by the exact deadline.

5. To be successful, an organization must focus most on:

A: Establish a specific plan for achieving the project by the deadline, if not before.
B: Creating a flexible plan which may or may not accomplish the project by the exact deadline.
C: Informal interoffice verbal communication among employees.
D: Detailed written memos or internal communication systems.
E: Developing each worker and establishing quality relationships among employees.

6. The best project results are produced when everyone agrees:

A: To a detailed plan which is executed and completed according to the original design.
B: To an informal plan that is adjusted as the project proceeds.
C: Establish a specific plan for achieving the project by the deadline, if not before.
D: Creating a flexible plan which may or may not accomplish the project by the exact deadline.
E: Informal interoffice verbal communication among employees.

Jack Lee U1151024
7. When you want to discuss something with a co-worker whose office door is closed, you would probably:

   A   B   C   D   E

   Walk away, assuming he or she does not want to be disturbed.

   Knock, open the door, and ask for a few minutes to discuss your concern.

8. With respect to your valued possessions, you:

   A   B   C   D   E

   Almost never lend them to anyone.

   Lend them easily and often.

9. When you are late for a scheduled appointment, you feel that:

   A   B   C   D   E

   You should apologize for being late.

   You should not apologize, assuming he/she will understand that something important came up.

10. In general, after you no longer serve a valued client, you tend to:

    A   B   C   D   E

    Lose contact with him/her because of your busy schedule and/or you no longer work with him/her directly.

    Stay in communication to know how his/her life is progressing.
11. A sign of a good manager is her or his ability to:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Solicit employee input, but use executive decision making where vital business and policy issues are concerned.</td>
<td>Extensively involve employees in deciding vitally important business and policy-making issues.</td>
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</table>

12. Your business presentation style tends to be:

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<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
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<tr>
<td>Orderly, sequential, and logical.</td>
<td>Flexible, spontaneous, and adaptable.</td>
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13. Businesses run best when job responsibilities are:

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<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fixed and uniquely adapted to each employee.</td>
<td>Constantly changing and overlapping between employees.</td>
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</table>

14. In a fast-paced decentralized information-oriented society, important business matters:

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<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Require immediate and decisive decision making.</td>
<td>Demand sufficient time for discussion, consensus, and deliberation.</td>
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</table>
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15. The most successful business ventures are dependent upon:

A. An in-depth analysis and thorough discussion of all information relevant to the transaction.
B. The people involved and their ability to work together effectively.

16. The most effective way to contribute to an organization is to:

A. Specialize in one area and become an expert on a subject.
B. Accumulate cross-disciplinary knowledge in as many areas as possible.
Appendix 4
Adaptation of Gillory’s self test

**Polychronicity/Monochronicity Scale Questionnaire**
This instrument is designed to assist in understanding an employee’s preferred work ethic, laying the foundations towards determining the extent to how naturally adaptable you must be to succeed in an event agency environment. Please answer each statement as honestly as possible based on your thinking and behaviour.

The two endpoints of the scale, A and E, are defined as they are labelled. The midpoint, C, represents the position of the event occurring equally between the two endpoint descriptions. As best you can, determine where your opinion or behaviour would occur most consistently on the scale for each of the situations below. Your results will be kept private, so please answer truthfully to assist in producing the most realistic results.

Please Highlight the letter that best describes your preferred opinion or preferred behaviour in an organisational situation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. What is your age range? (Delete where appropriate)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. What agency do you currently work in? (This information will not be shared)</th>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>3. Are you male or female? (Delete where appropriate)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. When working on a project, you find it most effective to:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work through each part of the project in an orderly fashion.</td>
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<th>2. You work most effectively in an organisation when:</th>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are seldom interrupted by and rarely interact with other employees.</td>
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</table>
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

3. When you are assigned a project that is due at a specific time, you:

A  B  C  D  E
Establish a specific plan for achieving the project by the deadline, if not before.

4. When being assigned a project, you prefer information to be shared through:

A  B  C  D
Detailed written memos or internal communication systems.

Create a flexible plan which may or may not accomplish the project by the exact deadline

Informal interoffice verbal communication among employees

5. To be successful, an organisation must focus most on:

A  B  C  D  E
Reaching projected goals and accomplishing task objectives.

Developing each worker and establishing quality relationships among employees.

6. The best project results are produced when everyone agrees:

A  B  C  D  E
To a detailed plan which is executed and completed according to the initial brief.

To an informal and flexible plan that is adjusted as the project progresses.

7. When you want to discuss something with a manager whose office door is closed, you would probably:

A  B  C  D  E
Walk away, assuming he or she does not want to be disturbed.

Knock, open the door, and ask for a few minutes to discuss your concern.
An introductory study into the concept of polychronicity, in relation to events management agencies and their employees

8. In general, after you no longer work on an account, you tend to:

A  B  C  D  E
Lose contact with them because of busy schedules and you no longer work with them.

Stay in contact to keep updated on how they are.

9. Your business style tends to be:

A  B  C  D  E
Orderly, sequential, and logical.

Flexible, spontaneous, and adaptable

10. Businesses run best when job responsibilities are:

A  B  C  D  E
Fixed and uniquely adapted to each employee.

Constantly changing and overlapping between employees.

11. The most effective way to contribute to an event agency is to:

A  B  C  D  E
Specialise in one area and become an expert on a process or account.

Build cross-disciplinary knowledge in as many areas as possible.

Thank you for taking part in this survey, your participation is greatly appreciated and will benefit greatly towards the final results of this research. You will now be asked to take part in the next activity which will assess what has been asked in this questionnaire but from a practical perspective.

Please save the completed document as a PDF and return to jack.lee@hud.ac.uk
Appendix 5
Adapted scoring system from Guillory’s self test

Results
Scoring Instructions
For each letter chosen, A, B, C, D, or E, write the number of times it was circled next to the appropriate letter in the spaces below, and multiply this number by the figure shown. For example, if B was circled five (5) times, write “5” in the blank space beside B and complete the multiplication, “5” x 2 = “10”. Finally, add the products in this column to obtain a Total numerical score.

A x 0 = ____
B x 2 = ____
C x 5 = ____
D x 8 = ____
E x 10 = ____

TOTAL ___

Interpretation of Scores
0 - 26 Highly Monochronic = A B range on the scale.
These individuals approach work with specific and detailed plans and schedules, to which they are highly committed. The realization of business objectives is their highest priority, and personal relationships are one dimension among many toward this end. These individuals prefer specialized and unique work responsibilities, private working conditions, and short-term, formal work relationships. They are inclined to communicate impersonally and in low context. Their decision making tends to be individualistic, timely, and based on their position of influence within the organization. The essence of leadership is individualistic vision of the future.

27 - 54 Moderately Monochronic = B C range on the scale.
These individuals demonstrate an organized approach to projects and are committed to their completion on time. They ultimately prioritize the successful completion of projects, and tend to address tasks in an analytical and information-oriented manner. These individuals tend to prefer an isolated and uninterrupted work environment; social interaction has its appropriate time and place. Their significant communications are usually to the point, logical, and written. Though group input is an important element in these individuals’ decision-making process, they ultimately rely on personal judgment to make important final decisions.

55 - 82 Moderately Polychronic = C D range on the scale.
These individuals tend to assign work projects into a general time frame for completion, flexibly approaching project implementation and readily adjusting
its execution when something more important comes along. They prefer performing many activities at the same time and working in teams. These individuals develop many informal, long-term working relationships as their means to realizing goals. Their communication of information tends to be personal and informal, rather than through official channels. They solicit and rely heavily on employee input for most decision making.

83 - 110 Highly Polychronic = DE range on the scale. These individuals multidimensionally approach work projects with flexible, adjustable plans and shared responsibilities. They tend to believe success of business transactions is ultimately determined by the individuals involved and their cohesiveness as a team. Work is founded upon quality interpersonal interaction and long-term investment in community, which takes precedence over all forms of activity. Communication tends to be spontaneous and high context. Decision making is based on extensive group involvement, discussion, and consensus. The essence of leadership is the subtle balance of group consensus and personal vision.
Appendix 6
Qualitative 'To Do list' task

To Do List

Part 1

Using the table on the Microsoft word document, please prioritise the following tasks. How you do this is your decision, with no right or wrong answer. The task durations are guides and can be amended as you see fit, please add a reason to your decisions. If some tasks have not been visited, please explain why

- Post event budget reconciliation for £150,000 (3-5 hours)
- Local 30 person in cabaret meeting venue find - 3 options (2-3 hours)
- Client conference call (30 minutes - 1 hour)
- Delegate management emails for 300 person conference (emails received throughout the day - time allocation to be decided)
- 3 x London - Glasgow flight bookings for travel one month later with confirmations sent to delegates (20 - 30 minutes)
- 3 x London - Dublin flight bookings for travel one month later with confirmations sent to delegates (20 - 30 minutes)
- 30 x Double for single occupancy bedroom venue find in Central London for stay beginning in 6 weeks (1-2 hours)
- Project update meeting with internal staff (20-30mins)
- Chase client for approval for £50,000 event budget and POs (10mins - 1 hour dependant on mode of communication)

Typical hours of operation

Start
09:00

Lunch
13:00

End
17:30
Appendix 7

Additional disruptive tasks

Once task 1 has been completed, please revisit the table taking the below tasks into consideration. Please do not amend the completed table - instead, please answer the 'additional task' questions on the Microsoft Word document. Please answer these questions honestly based on how you would carry out a normal day in the office.

- A client calls for an update on entertainment options for their gala dinner (+25 minutes) - do you take the call?
- The phone rings 1.5 times throughout the day for other colleagues - do you answer in order to help? (+3 minutes per phone call)
- 1 hour in to your day, your manager asks for a meeting to discuss capacity (+30 minutes) do you accept the request?
- A close client of yours sends in a new brief for an executive team dinner (4 people in central London) and asks for ideas to be sent the following day (+1-2 hours) do you carry this out personally or hand over to another team member?
- A preferred supplier has popped in to the office to drop off gifts and do a quick update on their portfolio and asks if you can spare some time (30 minutes) do you accept?