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THE INFLUENCE OF WORK STATUS ON
THE WORK OUTCOMES AMONG PART-TIME WORKERS
IN THE SERVICE INDUSTRIES OF
HONG KONG

by
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A thesis
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ABSTRACT

The influence of work status on
work outcomes among part-time workers
in the service industries of
Hong Kong

by

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Master of Philosophy

This research examined the influence of work status on attitudes and work outcomes. The two attitudes of perception of psychological contract violations, (violation of employment promise by employers) and fairness perception (fair treatment at work) were studied. This research examined the relationship between attitudes and work outcomes (organizational commitment, e.g. loyalty; organizational citizenship behavior, voluntary action done by employees for the sake of organizations and turnover intention). Individuals with family responsibility are attracted to work part-time voluntarily. Corporate downsizing has often forced individuals to go into part-time work involuntarily. Voluntary and involuntary work status had moderating effects on attitudes and work outcomes. The people that part-time workers chose to be compared with when they evaluate their fairness situation were also examined.

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. Respondents were asked about their perceptions towards their employment relationship with employers in the questionnaires. Part-time workers focus groups and supervisors interviews were used to supplement the quantitative methods by suggesting reasons to explain the part-time work issues, for example, on the compared referent selections.

The findings showed that work status had a high moderating effect on the

relationship between perceptions of psychological contract violations and voluntary actions and such interactions were much stronger on voluntary than on involuntary part-time workers. Work status also showed a high moderating effect on the relationship between fairness perception, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior, and such interactions were much stronger in involuntary than voluntary workers. Unexpectedly, work status did not have a moderating influence on the relationship between perception of psychological contract violations, organizational commitment, and turnover intention of involuntary part-time workers. Furthermore, work status showed a moderating influence on fairness perception, and turnover intention, and such a negative relationship was much stronger in voluntary than involuntary workers.

It was also found that the compared referents of voluntary part-time workers were part-time workers working inside and outside organizations. The compared referents of involuntary part-time workers were full-time workers working outside the organizations and their past work experiences.

I declare that this thesis 《The Influence of Work Status on the Work Outcomes among Part-time Workers in the Service Industries of Hong Kong》 is the product of my own research and has not been published in any other publications.

Cheung Fung Yi Millissa
September 2001

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL OF THESIS

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HONG KONG

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background

The replacement of full-time jobs by temporary and part-time jobs has been one of the most prevalent trends in Hong Kong in recent years. Part-time work is a form of contingent work, other types of which include temporary employment, employee leasing, self-employment, contracting out, employment in the business services sector and home-based work (Polivka, 1996). However, in this research, the scope of analysis will be limited to part-time workers only, other types of contingent employment will not be covered.

The use of part-time workers has increased during the recent period of economic restructuring, with employers preferring to use large numbers of part-time workers rather than full-time permanent staff (Smith, 1994; Mosca, 2000). Structural change in the industrial and labor markets has altered the types of jobs available and the accompanying shift in the economy, from manufacturing to the service and retail industries, has generated more low-skill, low-wage, high-turnover jobs. Many of these are filled by contingent workers (Tilly, 1991; Nasar, 1994).

A number of studies of the service industries have been conducted to explain the replacement of full-time workers by part-time staff (Browell and Ivers, 1998). Some have argued that the shift is related to the high cost associated with recruitment, training and benefits, costs which have become increasingly important to companies in all industries (Pfeffer and Baron, 1988; Smith, 1994; Harrison and Kelley, 1993). Employers have found that using part-time workers can provide numerical and financial flexibility, within which they can easily change the number of part-time workers and reduce operating costs according to seasonal changes in business. Furthermore, increased global competition has required companies to use a large number of part-time workers to respond rapidly to fluctuations in demand.

This research focuses on part-time workers working in the service industries in Hong Kong. The concept of part-time work in Hong Kong is not very different from that in the West (i.e. the United States). In Hong Kong, part-time workers are defined

by the Labor Department as those aged 15 and over who usually work fewer than 5 days per week, 6 hours per day or 30 hours per week. In the United States, part-time workers are defined by the government as employees who work fewer than 35 hours per week (Nardone, 1986). However, in terms of benefits and rights, Hong Kong part-time workers receive less protection. In Canada, they enjoy equality of pay, representation, access, rewards (pro-rated for part-time work), and freedom from discrimination (Margrit, 1989). In France, part-time working hours have been shortened to 35 per working week and part-time workers also enjoy a 10% premium for the first 3 hours of overtime (Woodruff, 1999). In the United States, part-time workers receive full medical and dental benefits, albeit on a pro-rata basis (Beth, 1992). However, part-time workers in Hong Kong who work for fewer than 4 weeks continuously, or for 18 hours a week, do not enjoy the same protection as full-time employees, nor do they receive benefits such as statutory holidays, sick leave and compensation.

The use of part-time workers to replace full-time workers is widespread and common among the service industries in Hong Kong. Service industries, unlike the manufacturing industries, require a large number of workers in the front line to provide premium service to their customers. In recent years, service sector companies in Hong Kong have come under increasing pressure to employ large amounts of part-time workers, due to the practice of downsizing. Much of this pressure has stemmed from the economic downturn in Hong Kong after the Financial Crisis in 1997, which contributed to a sharp shrinkage in consumer markets. In the second quarter of 1998, for example, the GDP of Hong Kong decreased by 5.2% and the unemployment rate increased by 5.3% (Anonymous, 1998a). In 1999, the GDP of Hong Kong decreased by 5.1% and the unemployment rate increased by 6.2% (The Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 1999). The number of unemployed workers rose from 30,000 in 1997 to 110,000 in 2000 (Anonymous, 2000a). Given such strong economic pressures, employers in the service industries have increasingly used large numbers of part-time workers in order to survive. Some employers have deliberately set out to employ part-time workers for less than 35 hours a week, with no labor protection, in order to cut operating costs. The labor protection for full-time and part-time staff is summarized in Table 1.1(a). Although Table 1.1(a) shows that part-time workers can benefit from the mandatory provident fund, this only applies if they have worked for

the organization continuously for 60 days.

Table 1.1(a) The differences in protection between full-time and part-time jobs

| Full-time jobs | Part-time jobs |
|---|-----------------------|
| Employees must get paid punctually and the employers cannot withhold the salary | × |
| Employees can get one day leave if they have continuously worked for 7 days | × |
| Enjoy paid holidays, sick leave, annual leave and paternity leave | × |
| Get payment after two years if employees were fired by employers | × |
| Enjoy labor protections if they get illegally fired | × |
| Enjoy retired protections | × |
| Enjoy mandatory provident fund | √ |

* Source: *Ming Pao Daily* (2000a)

Under the conditions imposed by economic restructuring, some employers have closed down branches, reduced the overall size of their full-time workforce and subcontracted part of their services to other low-cost firms (Harrison, 1994; Smith, 1994). Some employers have even adjusted to a lower salary since the Financial Crisis. Under these circumstances, employers can remain competitive by reducing costs, prices, and number of employees, and also by improving productivity (Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Quinn Mills, and Walton, 1984). As well as private employers, the Hong Kong government (for example, the police force) has taken the initiative in relaxing immigration requirements for 14,521 highly qualified technological experts (The Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 1999). The Hong Kong Immigration Department also allowed entry to 54,000 mainland immigrants each year who had been born in China but had the right to live in Hong Kong because of their parents (Anonymous, 1999a). The number of these technologically unskilled mainland immigrants had risen to 200,000 (Anonymous, 1999a), which would have pushed up the unemployment rate to 10% if tens of thousands more were then to arrive (Anonymous, 1999d). Unskilled immigrants are likely to look for part-time work in the service industries, which require minimal technical skills. The government has contracted-out a lot of its work, which has led to an increase in the number of part-time

workers it employs. This has served as a crucial strategy for cutting labor and operations costs.

Part-time workers in the service industries in Hong Kong face many problems. The Western countries have relatively higher numbers of professional part-time workers than Hong Kong, such as those working in hospitals and in academic. Part-time work in the service industries usually requires little skill and a medium to low educational level. Workers do not receive much training from their employers, either because they are not encouraged to improve their skills or because the government does not provide subsidies or quotas to finance such training.

Older and younger (less than 18 years old) part-time workers will be most vulnerable to pay cuts. Pay rates for some American part-time workers have been as low as \$11 per hour, which is far less than other Western countries (Anonymous, 1999b; Anonymous, 2000b; Anonymous, 2000c). According to research by Oxfam Hong Kong, there are over 64 million part-time workers, including women, minorities and new immigrants, who earn less than HK\$14 hourly (Anonymous, 2001b). Part-time workers with less experience and education will have comparatively less bargaining power to negotiate better terms with their employers (Anonymous, 2001a). These part-time workers are usually pessimistic about work and job insecurity because they cannot receive any benefits (Anonymous, 1999a).

Female part-time workers also face problems because the government has not provided enough community centers or childcare facilities, leaving them to balance work with caring for children and domestic responsibilities (Anonymous, 2000b; Anonymous, 2000c). Some female part-time workers are the primary income earners for their household and are being discriminated against by their employers (Anonymous, 1999e). They suffer from both family financial problems and work-related pressures.

Furthermore, part-time workers in the hotel industry are also disadvantaged because they cannot enjoy any benefits, even if they have worked continuously for 4 weeks or for more than 18 hours per week. These workers are particularly vulnerable because they receive no annual leave or labor holidays. Worst of all, their employers

can reduce their overtime salary without their agreement. Some employers in the hotel industry (such as the Mandarin Hotel and the Regent Hotel) have recently brought in a new policy where staffs are required to work continuously for three weeks and have one week of rest. Some other employers in the hotel industry soon intend to compel their part-time workers to work fewer than 18 hours a week. These two actions mean that the staff will receive no legal labor protection (Anonymous, 2001c). In addition to this, part-time workers in the retail industry also face similar problems. One of the largest employers in the retail industry, Wellcome, has recently announced its intention to employ part-time workers for fewer than 18 hours a week (Anonymous, 2001c).

If big corporations like this set a bad example, smaller organizations will follow the trend and more part-time workers will suffer. Consequently, the Hong Kong Federation of Trade Unions has proposed an unemployment insurance scheme (Anonymous, 1999c), together with a minimum working hours scheme, to increase the protection for the part-time workers. The proposed minimum wage law (Anonymous, 1999e) has so far not been passed due to the divergent viewpoints of the different parties, without any compromise in sight. The current form of the mandatory provident fund also creates hardship for part-time workers. They are required to contribute a portion to the fund if they have reached a certain level of income in a designated period of time: the breakdown of contributions is shown in Table 1.1 (b) (Anonymous, 2000e). However, some employers have shifted the contribution of the fund onto the workers by paying them less or intentionally employing them for fewer working hours, since in doing so the company avoids increased operational costs by forcing the part-time workers to be in effect “self-employed”. Consequently, the workers enjoy no legal protection at all. Such unfair treatment is bound to harm the employment relationship significantly.

Table 1.1(b) The employers' and part-time employees' contributions to the mandatory provident fund

| Daily (HK\$) | Employer contributions (\$) | Employee contributions (\$) | Total contributions (\$) |
|---------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Less than \$130 | 7.5 | ----- | 7.5 |
| 130 – 259 | 7.5 | 7.5 | 15.0 |
| 260 – 389 | 15.0 | 15.0 | 30.0 |
| 390 – 519 | 22.5 | 22.5 | 45.0 |
| 520 – 650 | 30.0 | 30.0 | 60.0 |
| Higher than \$650 | 30.0 | 30.0 | 60.0 |

Source: Contribution of the Mandatory Provident Fund (2000e).

A large amount of research has been carried out on part-time workers in Western countries. Such work has focused particularly on the psychological contract (Beard and Edwards, 1995); patterns of part-time workers (Feldman and Doeringhaus, 1992); organizational commitment (Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzell, 1997; Jacobsen, 2000; Purcell, 1999); job security (Pearce, 1998); motivations (Allan and Sienko, 1998); work status (Armstrong-Stassen, Al-Ma'aitah, Cameron, and Horsburgh, 1994; Haring, Okun, and Stock, 1984); job attitudes (Krausz, Brandwein, and Fox, 1995); tenure (Gannon and Nothorn, 1971); needs, wants and expectations of different part-time workers in private and public sector organizations (Ryan, 1998) and wage inequity (Goodman and Friedman, 1968).

In comparison, limited research has been carried out on part-time work in Hong Kong. The Census and Statistics Department of Hong Kong has conducted two Household Survey studies on part-time workers, in 1996 and 1997, the relevant results of which are summarized in Table 1.2. The table shows that there has been an increase in the number of part-time workers employed. Part-time workers in 1997 were between the ages of 30 – 49 (60.9%), married (68.1%), with a secondary-level education (49.3%). Most worked in the service industries, usually for more than 4 weeks and for more than 18 hours per week. It can also be seen that there were two common reasons for workers to take part-time jobs; household responsibility (i.e. they wanted to earn additional income whilst still taking care of the family) and inability to find a full-time job. It can therefore be concluded that there is an increasing number of

workers who want to do full-time jobs with longer working hours but who have been unsuccessful in finding such positions (an increase from 18.2% to 23.1%). As a result, they have resorted to part-time work involuntarily. Furthermore, it can also be concluded that there is a decreasing number of workers who want to do part-time jobs because of domestic responsibilities (i.e. fewer workers – 20.8% – who are free from domestic work are taking part-time work voluntarily). The summary report stated that most of the part-time workers had assumed their work status voluntarily (Anonymous, 1998b). Data from the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics also shows that 80.6% of people who work part-time do so voluntarily, while only 19.4% would like to find another type of working arrangement.

The Hong Kong Confederation of Trade Unions has also undertaken research on part-time workers (Anonymous, 2001d). The results revealed that the number of part-time workers who worked for less than 18 hours a week had risen from 3 million to 11 million. The report also suggested that many employers intended to replace full-time employees with part-time ones in order to save the cost of legal protection. In the 2001 Population Census interviews, respondents were only asked about their method of seeking jobs, whether or not they had undertaken part-time jobs, their total income from part-time jobs and total income accrued. However, it is interesting to note that there has been no research in Hong Kong which has focused on the work status - i.e. voluntary or involuntary – of part-time workers.

The present research sets out to fill this gap by investigating the work status of part-time workers in the Hong Kong service industries. The main aim is to understand their needs and expectations, and to further evaluate whether or not they can be described as a homogeneous group or can be segmented into identifiable categories based on demographics and needs. The fulfillment, or otherwise, of the needs and expectations of both parties (part-time workers and employers), and the resulting implications for the employment relationship, is the central focus of this study.

Some research has taken a gendered perspective by looking at the needs of female part-time workers in Hong Kong (The Hong Kong Women Workers Associations, 1994). Other studies have also highlighted the influence of age – for example, a study on the job-attitudes of youngsters (The Hong Kong Youth Associations, 1992). There

has been limited research on part-time workers from a management perspective (Wong, 2000). Such work as has been done has addressed employee casualization, with references to four major strategies used by British and Japanese retail firms. However, there has been no research done in Hong Kong, which has sought to investigate empirically, from the management point of view, the attitudes and behavior of part-time workers, using both questionnaires and interviews.

Table 1.2 Findings of survey on part-time work by Statistics Department of Hong Kong

| | 1996 | 1997 |
|--|-------------|-------------|
| No. of part-time workers | 67,800 | 116,200 |
| Aged | | |
| 30 – 49 | 53.2% | 60.9% |
| Under 30 | 21.7% | 20.7% |
| Over 50 | 25.1% | 18.4% |
| Marital status | | |
| Married | 67% | 68.1% |
| Unmarried | 26.9% | 27.5% |
| Divorced | 6.1% | 4.4% |
| Educational level | | |
| Primary educated | 31.2% | 32.5% |
| Secondary educated | 42.2% | 49.3% |
| Types of industries | | |
| Manufacturing | 21.2% | 0 |
| Service | 19.9% | 27.1% |
| Community and personal services | 31.5% | 26.5% |
| Duration of working hours | | |
| More than 4 weeks and more than 18 hours | 70.8% | 61.3% |
| More than 30 hours | 17.4% | 22% |
| More than 5 years | 16.6% | 16.9% |
| Median monthly income | \$3,500 | \$4,000 |

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| Major reason for doing part-time work (in descending order) | Household responsibility (30.5%) | Could not find longer hours job (24.8%) |
| | Could not find job (18.2%) | Slack work in company (23.1%) |
| | Custom of trade / norms of company (16.1%) | Household responsibility (20.8%) |
| | | |

Source: Hong Kong Statistics Department (1996, 1997).

The attitudes of employees, as Burchell and Rubery (1990; Burchell and Rubery, 1994) have observed, tend to be assumed rather than systematically investigated. Inferences are frequently drawn from analysis of the practices and policies of employers. Most surveys of part-time workers have also failed to systematically address their characteristics, attitudes and perceptions. Furthermore, the heterogeneous nature of contingent workers has been highlighted by Hunter, McGregor, MacInnes, and Sproull (1993) and Ryan (1998). Eberhardt and Moser (1995) studied both employer and employee labor use strategies in part-time work. Indeed, it has been proposed that differences in part-time working arrangements might not only attract groups of workers with different demographic profiles, but also lead to differences in attitudes and behavior (Feldman, 1990). Horrell, Rubery and Burchell (1994) pointed out that “the perceived ability or willingness (of employees) to comply with different types of working-time arrangements” is an even less well-studied area of working-time research. More recent work by Armstrong-Stassen, Al-Ma’ aitah, Cameron and Horsburgh (1998) and Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1995) has also suggested that voluntary and involuntary schedules might be important. Furthermore, previous research has been carried out mainly by comparing part-time workers as a group (Scholl, Cooper, and McKenna, 1987; Ambrose and Kulik, 1988; Ronen, 1986): there has been limited study of intra-group differences. The present research will fill these gaps by studying the differences in attitudes and behavior among different types of part-time workers, and further by comparing on the basis of work status.

The present research will extend the work of Feldman (1990) and Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzel (1997). Feldman (1990) tested only a few hypotheses on the attitudes and behavior of part-time workers, such as the differences in satisfaction, turnover and commitment between temporary / permanent and voluntary / involuntary

part-time workers. Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1997) also tested several hypotheses about the effects of demographic factors, relative equity and work status (second job / only job, voluntary / involuntary, congruent / incongruent, full-time / part-time), focusing on organizational commitment. Very little additional research on part-time employees has been done since the publication of Feldman's work in 1990. However, even these studies did not test other job-related attitudes and behavior which may have a significant effect on the relationship between part-time employees and employers, such as the perception of psychological contract violation, fairness in treatment, compared referents and linked behavior, intention to leave the organization and organizational citizenship behavior.

The idea for the current research framework comes from the work of Feldman (1990) and Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1997), although these studies did not test other job-related attitudes and behavior. Furthermore, there has been no research done as yet on the differences in compared referents between different types of part-time workers. After the research framework had thus been established, Beard and Edwards (1995) increased its validity by relating the concept of perceived violation of the psychological contract to part-time workers. Such ideas had not been explored before in the context of part-time work.

As Hunter McGregor, MacInnes, and Sproull (1993) pointed out, previous studies on part-time work are inadequate. Most research information on part-time workers (for example, labor supply) has been derived exclusively from the demand side by research conducted from the perspective of employers. It therefore cannot be used to confirm the reliability or validity of the employees' perceptions and beliefs. Indeed, the central focus of existing studies has been essentially the demand (employers) rather than the supply (employees) side of the employment relationship, leaving the attitudes and preferences of employees largely unexplored. The present study, then, focuses on the supply side – the perspectives of part-time workers. Their attitudes, preferences and behavior will be examined in detail. In order to get a full picture, nevertheless, employer perspectives will also be included, so as to better understand part-time work from all angles.

1.2 Research Objectives

The present research aims to provide an initial empirical test of the theoretical framework proposed in the study of Feldman (1990). Feldman studied the impact of different types of part-time work arrangements on attitudes, behavior and chosen frames of reference, using part-time workers in service industries. Significant differences across various types of part-time workers were found. This research will examine the following issues in the context of the Hong Kong service industries: -

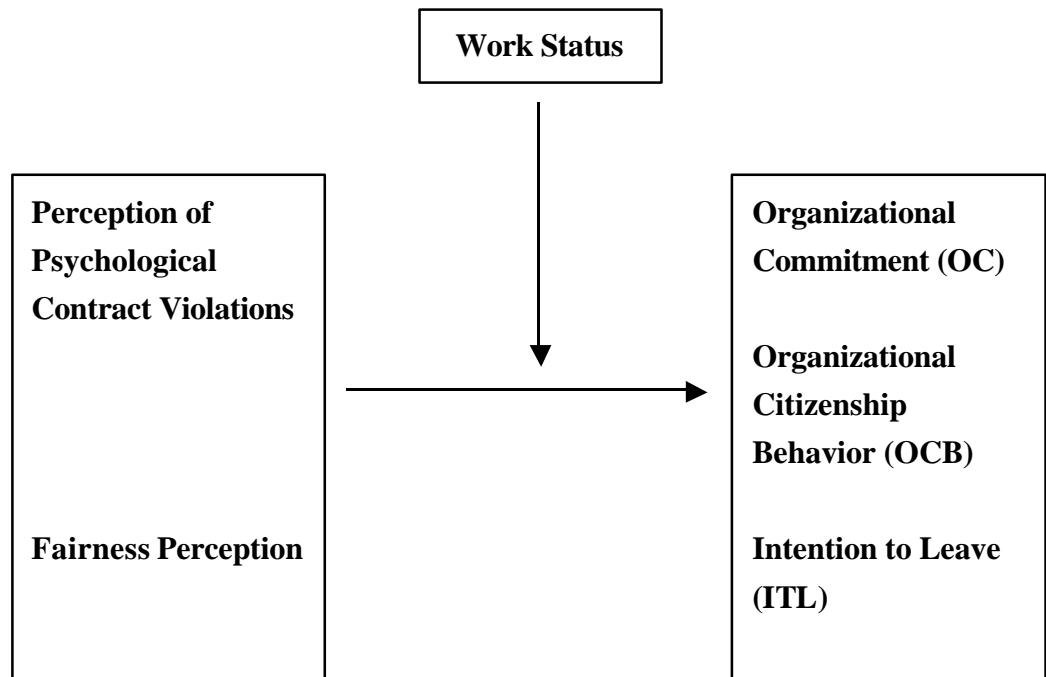
- (1) The relationship between job-related attitudes and work behavior of part-time workers;
- (2) The degree to which work status has a moderating effect on the above;
- (3) The differences in compared referents between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers and the criteria for choosing them.

The above objectives will be achieved by using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The discussion of objectives 1 and 2 will be based on results from a questionnaire study and focus group interviews involving part-time workers. To achieve objective 3, the information on compared referents obtained from these two sources will be augmented by data from interviews with supervisors and part-time workers.

1.3 Research Framework

The research framework is divided into three parts. The first consists of the job-related attitudes of the part-time workers, i.e. their perceptions of psychological contract violation and fairness. The second looks at the moderating role of work status (voluntary and involuntary work schedules). The last incorporates work behavior, which is in turn composed of organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and intention to leave the organization. The research framework is summarized in Figure 1.3.

Figure 1.3 Research Framework



Some of the terms used in this study will now be defined. The independent variables include the perception of violations of the psychological contract and of fairness. The terms ‘voluntary and involuntary work schedules’ will also be explained, as will the three working behavior of part-time workers: organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and intention to leave.

Perception of the psychological contract (job-related attitudes)

A psychological contract is a set of unwritten but reciprocal expectations, beliefs, promises and / or perceptions that characterize both mutual behavior within the employment relationship and implied obligations or promises between each individual employee and the organization (Sparrow and Cooper, 1998). If the gap between the sense of obligation and the fulfillment provided by the employer is large, a strong perception of psychological contract violation is indicated. Conversely, a small difference indicates a weak perception.

Fairness perception (Job-related attitudes)

The fairness perception can affect workers’ feelings of satisfaction (Adams, 1963).

It is based on whether or not employees believe they are being fairly treated by their employer, when they compare with their chosen referents. Part-time workers may compare the rewards and benefits of current part-time job with what they received in previous full-time employment. They may also make comparisons between themselves and other part-time or full-time workers in the same or other organizations. Such comparisons with a self-selected group become the basis for their perception of how fairly they are being treated (Adams, 1963). The fairness perception may influence a person's judgment about their employer's fulfillment of their obligations and thus determine the degree of perceived violation of the psychological contract.

Work status (voluntary / involuntary)

According to Feldman (1990), the five types of work status include voluntary and involuntary. Voluntary part-time work is that sought by the workers' own volition, whereas involuntary part-time work refers to the situation of those who are unable to secure their preference of full-time employment.

Work outcomes

This study focuses on examining three work outcomes: organizational commitment, organizational citizenship and intention to leave the organization. Organizational commitment refers to a person's affective reaction to his/her employer (Mobley and Hollingsworth, 1978). Organizational citizenship describes individual behavior, which is not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system (Organ and Konovsky, 1989), such as assisting other colleagues when needed or helping new colleagues to settle in. Intention to leave the organization refers to the intent of the workers to leave the working organization (Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, 1978).

1.4 Limitations and Assumptions

The followings are the limitations on, and assumptions of, this study: -

1.4.1 This study relies on documentary evidence from secondary sources, and

empirical results from qualitative and quantitative methods, to explore and evaluate the moderating role of work status (voluntary / involuntary) on the relationship between job-related attitudes and behavior of part-time workers.

- 1.4.2 The part-time workers and employers in this study participated voluntarily. All the information that they revealed was self-reported and confidential.
- 1.4.3 This study uses answers from individual respondents in the service industry as a whole. It assumes that the respondents had access to accurate information concerning the topic of part-time work and were able to convey their opinions accurately through the interview format. It was also assumed that the information derived from this sample was characteristic of both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers and so could be generalized to the service industries (retail, hotel, telecommunication and food) in Hong Kong as a whole.
- 1.4.4 In terms of instrument validity, a pilot study was done to validate the quantitative research instruments used. It was assumed that this would ensure the reliability and validity of both the qualitative and quantitative instruments.

The following measures were taken to minimize the above limitations: -

The sample was drawn from the key market leaders in the service industries in Hong Kong. Three to six firms from each service industry were approached in order to reflect the opinions of part-time workers at different levels. Additionally, part-time respondents for the focus groups were obtained from different branches and districts in order to minimize the prospect of obtaining similar answers by relying on the same branches and companies throughout.

Furthermore, secondary information, such as newspaper cuttings, microfilm, books, journals, the internet, survey results from labor unions and government departments, was updated periodically in order to remain up-to-date and incorporate changes to the legislation. In order to increase the reliability of the research framework, three stages of pilot testing were carried out. The first stage involved 10 pilot tests with

part-time workers, focusing on the factors or situations influencing their relationship with their employers. This was intended primarily to set up the initial research framework by generating enough support.

In the second stage, 40 formal pilot tests were conducted. The main aim of this phase was to test the comprehensiveness of the codes and the clarity of the questions. Modifications could then be made based on the comments received and the results obtained, especially on issues such as the length, clarity of questions and instructions to participants. These amendments improved the focus on relevant issues, increasing the validity of the research framework.

In the final stage, 5 focus groups with part-time workers and 5 interviews with supervisors were carried out to further refine the validity of the research framework, by ensuring that the questions asked directly addressed the issues of interest. The purpose of these pilot tests was therefore to assess the precision of the instructions and questions and the comprehensiveness of the options in the open-ended questions. The tests helped to ensure that the analysis performed would be meaningful.

1.5 Significance of the study

The present research explores the elements neglected by Beard and Edwards (1995) and Walsh and Deery (1999), using the findings of Feldman (1990) as a theoretical basis to explain the changes in, and differences between, attitudes and behavior of part-time workers in the context of downsizing and restructuring. In other words, it will explore whether or not there are differences in part-time workers' attitudes and behavior based on whether or not they are able to work to their preferred schedules, or on the results of economic restructuring. It will use both qualitative and quantitative methods.

In addition, this research aims to empirically extend the work of Feldman (1990) by focusing on whether other situational variables (such as work status) can moderate the relationship between job-related attitudes and work behavior of part-time workers. It is expected that this study will contribute to a better understanding of whether part-time workers are, or characterize themselves as being, a homogeneous or

differentiated group, as indicated by prior research. It will also be of interest to explore whether or not part-time workers can be segmented into identifiable groups based on needs and demographics. Furthermore, the findings of this research will be significant because of the limited work previously done on part-time workers in Hong Kong: as well as exploring differences in attitudes and behavior through the survey, the underlying reasons will be examined via interviews and focus groups.

An additional benefit of this work is that it will test attitudes and behavior empirically rather than making assumptions, as in the previous research by Burchell and Rubery (1990); Burchell and Rubery (1994). The data will be crosschecked by using the combination approach, that is, both qualitative (focus group and interviews) and quantitative (survey) methods will be used in order to increase the reliability and validity of the results. Thus the study will fill the gaps in previous research on part-time work, which have relied solely on either qualitative (case studies) or quantitative (survey) methods or have assumed part-time workers to be a homogeneous group. This study will therefore enable employers in Hong Kong to get access of a more detailed picture of part-time workers' perceptions of employers, their preferences regarding work schedules and their own reactions towards these views.

This research originated from the work of Beard and Edwards (1995) who examined the relationship between part-time workers' attitudes (the form of the psychological contract) and behavior (job satisfaction, job involvement, commitment and well being) in a longitudinal study. However, this research will incorporate additional variables by also testing the relationship between the perception of fairness (attitude) and working behavior. However, this differs from the type of behavior studied by Beard and Edwards (1995), who focused on organizational commitment, organizational citizenship and intention to leave the organization. Instead of testing the relationship between attitudes and behavior in isolation, this research also factors in the moderating influence of work status.

1.6 Structure of the Dissertation

In this chapter, a brief overview of the research has been presented, including a discussion of the research context, the central questions guiding the research,

assumptions, a brief discussion of the research framework, research objectives and a comment on the study's significance. Chapter Two will go on to present a review of the literature that anchors the research, focusing on theories and empirical studies which cover the violation of the psychological contract and the perception of fairness. Chapter Three is devoted to methodological issues including data collection, analysis, piloting, research instruments and methods as well as issues relating to the limitations, reliability and validity of the fieldwork. In Chapter Four, the results of the quantitative investigations will be presented and analyzed whilst in Chapter Five, the qualitative results are considered. Chapter Six is devoted to a discussion of the implications of the findings. The final chapter will summarize the conclusions, recommendations, future research directions and limitations of the study.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Having presented a brief overview of the background to this research, this chapter provides a detailed review of previous studies. The material is organized into six sections. The first section describes previous research on part-time workers. The second reviews what is known about the effect of work status on the attitudes and behavior of workers in general whilst the third focuses on this issue in terms of part-time workers specifically. The fourth part concentrates on theoretical and empirical studies of job-related attitudes, the fifth on work outcomes for part-time workers and the final section presents the hypotheses developed from the foregoing review.

2.1 Previous research on studying part-time workers

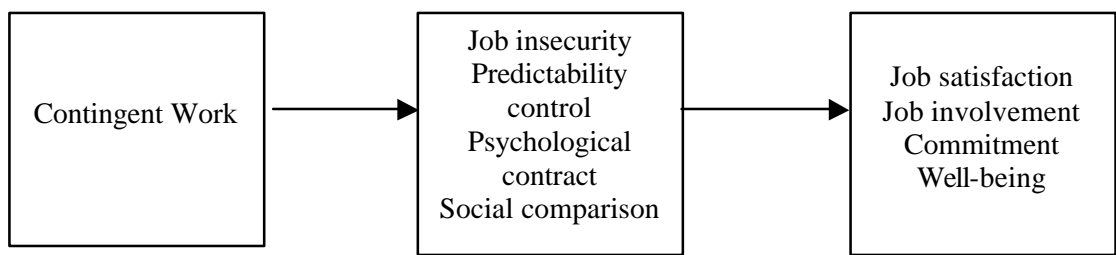
Feldman (1990) was the first researcher to highlight the importance of studying part-time workers. He examined their job attitudes and behavior, the compared referents they used to make equity assessments, and their demographic status. Feldman (1990) also suggested that future research should focus on the differences between various types of part-time work arrangements (for example, temporary part-time versus permanent part-time, voluntary versus involuntary, etc). He argued that there were vital differences between these different types of work arrangements which led them to attract different types of people and that they had differential impacts on motivation and satisfaction. However, he failed to provide any theoretical basis for these differences. Furthermore, there was a lack of variation in his sample: for example, voluntary vs involuntary part-time workers, organization-hired vs agency-hired part-time work, those in sole-employment jobs vs moonlighting jobs and in year-round vs seasonal work. Despite this, very little additional research on part-time work has been done since the publication of Feldman's work. In fact, the most prominent study has been that carried out by Feldman himself (Feldman and Doeringhaus, 1992). However, Feldman and Doeringhaus' focus was solely on demographic characteristics: they did not test differences in attitudes and behavior in their sample of part-time workers. In addition, they did not provide any theoretical basis for the differences they uncovered.

In this research, the impact of different types of part-time work arrangements, the type of compared referents used to make equity assessments, demographic variables, and part-time workers' reactions to their jobs will be examined.

Eberhardt and Moser (1995) subsequently studied the impact of different types of part-time work arrangements on various attitudes, behavior and chosen frames of reference. They found significant differences across different types of part-time workers. However, the findings were inconsistent concerning the frames of references used. Permanent part-time employees tended to use full-time rather than part-time employees as referents, as had been found by Feldman and Doeringhaus (1992). Previous research had assumed that the attitudes and behavior of part-time workers were a result of the job (Hom, 1981). It is questionable whether the attitudes and behavior of the part-time workers in Eberhardt and Moser's study were due solely to the job and not any other factor. Although Eberhardt and Moser argued that there were no differences in attitudes and behavior between different types of part-time workers, it is still questionable whether they found significant differences between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers.

Beard and Edwards (1995) studied the effects of downsizing and restructuring on the attitudes and behavior of the contingent workforce. They also explored the consequences of these changes for employees and organizations in a longitudinal study relating to a broader context of psychological and organizational behavior. This enabled them to relate attitudes (the form of the psychological contract) to behavior, for contingent workers. Although the model they proposed did incorporate variables with information about the organizational context and individual differences, which would likely enhance the explanatory power of the model shown in Figure 2.1 (Mitchell, 1979; Cappelli and Sherer, 1991; Mowday and Sutton, 1993), this model has not been empirically tested.

Figure 2.1 Model suggested by Beard and Edwards (1995): The psychological contract experience of contingent workers



Walsh and Deery (1999) used three large-scale surveys to study contingent workers in the service sector, looking at the bank, retail and hospital industries. They found considerable diversity of work orientations and expectations within the peripheral workforce. The research also highlighted a divergence between contingent workers' preferences regarding work status and employers' working time initiatives. However, the project only used survey methodology and did not include any exploration of compared referents.

2.2 Effects of work status on attitudes and work behavior of staff

Although organizations have hired an increasing number of part-time workers (Howe, 1986; Nollen and Axel, 1996; Pfeffer and Baron, 1988), relatively little is known about how work status influences the attitudes and behavior of people at work (Beard and Edwards, 1995). Research on this issue has taken three general directions.

The first research strategy has focused on the relationship between job-related attitudes and behavior for full-time workers. This includes; extra-role behavior (Farh, Earley, and Lin, 1997), job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Williams and Anderson, 1991; McClurg, 1999), intention to leave or remain (Ferris and Rowland, 1994; Kraut, 1975), organizational fairness (Dubinsky and Levy, 1989), perception of equity (Dittrich, Couger, and Zawacki, 1985), and perception of psychological contract violation (Turnley and Feldman, 2000; Turnley and Feldman, 1999; Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Robinson, 1996).

The second research strategy has examined differences in job-related attitudes and behavior between full-time and part-time workers. In a study of contingent and regular

engineers and technicians in an aerospace firm, Pearce (1993) found no differences in supervisor-rated cooperativeness or affective commitment. In fact, she found significantly higher levels of self-reported extra-role behavior in contingent workers than in regular workers. Other recent research has also failed to show any differences based on work status. Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) found no differences in self-reports of organizational commitment, amount of work, quality of communication and quality of care between contingent and regular employees in nursing departments. Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1995) also reported no differences in the affective commitment of contingent and regular employees in nursing and hospital support staff positions. Finally, Kidder (1995) found no differences in self-reported extra-role behavior between contingent and regular nurses.

The third research strategy has compared job-related attitudes and behavior for different types of part-time workers. However, relatively little work has addressed potential differences in attitudes and behavior between different types of part-time workers (Feldman, 1990). The studies of Feldman and Doerphinghaus (1992), Phelps, Downey and Allen (1992), and Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1997) confirmed that people employed in temporary part-time jobs tend to have a different work orientation and demographic profile from those in permanent part-time jobs. More recent work by Armstrong-Stassen, Al-Ma'aitah, Cameron & Horsburgh (1994) and Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1995) has suggested that work status congruence and voluntary / involuntary schedules might also be important issues. Studies comparing different types of contingent employment have shown inconsistent results when linking work status to behavior. Some have found no significant differences between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers on job satisfaction, turnover, chosen frame of reference, and organizational commitment (Eberhardt and Moser, 1995; Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel, 1997). However, some have found significant differences between employees of different work status with regard to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel, 1995; Krausz, Brandwein, and Fox, 1995; Lee and Johnson, 1991). However, this research has mostly been done in Western countries with only limited investigations of Asian countries. More importantly, most of the research referred to above lacks a theoretical basis and is inconsistent (Lee and Johnson, 1991; McGinnis and Morrow, 1990).

2.3 Effect of work status on the attitudes and behavior of part-time workers

The preceding sections have discussed the effect of work status on attitudes and behavior for full-time workers and between full-time and part-time workers. This section highlights the literature on different types of part-time workers. Due to limits on time and resources, this study focuses only on voluntary versus involuntary part-time work in terms of the downsizing and restructuring economy. The characteristics of the attitudes and behavior of voluntary and involuntary part-time workers will be discussed in the forthcoming sections.

From the perspective of social exchange, it may be expected that involuntary workers will adopt a more transactional view (a short-term relationship characterized by mutual self-interest) of worker-firm relations under the conditions of excessive labor supply. On the contrary, voluntary workers would adopt a more relational view (long-term relationships set in the context of a unitary organization and built on flexible and dynamic relationships among individuals) (Dyne and Ang, 1998). Social exchange refers to an exchange of contingent tangible and intangible benefits in which “the precise services the workers will be obligated to perform are not specified in detail in advance” (Blau, 1964: 93). It is therefore expected that involuntary part-time workers will be less attached to their working firms and have less positive attitudes and behavior than voluntary part-time workers. These expectations are consistent with the norm of reciprocity (a key concept in social exchange theory), which “imposes obligations only contingently, that is, in response to the benefits conferred by others” (Gouldner, 1960: 171). As a result, the attitudes and behavior of part-time workers can be perceived as contingent responses to the tangible and intangible benefits they receive on the basis of their work status.

Part-time worker-firm relationships can manifest themselves in two ways: attitudes and behavior. The present research looks at two attitudes – perception of violations of the psychological contract and the fairness perception – and three work behavior – organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention. In the following sections, the reasons for focusing on these variables will be explained.

2.4 Job-related attitudes of part-time workers

In this section, the attitudes of interest to the current research will be defined and explored.

2.4.1 Perception of violations of the psychological contract

The perception of the psychological contract is included as one of the key worker attitudes because it is one of the most fundamental aspects of employment relations (Rousseau, 1997) and represents the viewpoints of workers regardless of their work status.

The psychological contract refers to the beliefs that employees hold regarding the terms of the informal exchange agreement between themselves and the organization (Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau, 1990). Violations of this agreement therefore refer to the discrepancies between these beliefs and one's actual experience. When the psychological contract is perceived as having been violated, employees may experience reduced organizational commitment, stronger intention to quit, and other dissatisfactions (Guzzo, 1994; Schein, 1980). This may change over time as experience accumulates, employment-related conditions change and employees reevaluate and renegotiate their psychological contracts (see for example Rousseau and Parks, 1993). The psychological contract is highly subjective and specific to each employee. Furthermore, the concept is inherently based on individual perception, meaning that others may not share the same understanding of its nature.

There are two types of psychological contract – relational and transactional. The relational contract refers to long-term, flexible and dynamic relationships among individuals. The transactional contract describes short-term relationships that are characterized by mutual self-interest, where responsibilities are precisely defined and consequently static.

Two theories – social exchange theory and control theory - have been widely used in the empirical research on violations of the psychological contract. This body of knowledge helps to explain the theoretical framework of the present research by using

these two theories to understand how psychological contracts develop and why perceived violations occur.

Social exchange theory is the key theory underpinning the psychological contract. It refers to the exchange that exists between the individual and organization (Homans, 1961). These relationships are comprised of the voluntary actions that each party engages in, with the belief or understanding that their actions will be reciprocated (Blau, 1964). Turnley and Feldman (2000) have applied social exchange theory to the relationships between violations of the psychological contract and three types of employee behavior (intention to quit, neglect of in-role job duties and organizational citizenship behavior). They found that these were mediated by unmet expectations and job satisfaction for full-time managers. Robinson, Kraatz, and Rousseau (1994) also applied social exchange theory to an exploratory, longitudinal study of business school alumni in the first two years of post-graduation employment. The employees perceived that they owed less to the employers and felt, in fact, that their employers owed them more. Employers' failure to fulfill this commitment was significantly associated with a decline in some types of employee obligations. However, research done using social exchange theory has usually focused on full-time workers, and the theoretical framework provides only limited support for the empirical research. Turnley and Feldman (1999) used a combination of theoretical and empirical work to show that psychological contract violation was both more frequent and more intense among full-time managers working in downsizing or restructuring firms, particularly in terms of job security, compensation and opportunities for advancement.

Control theory also provides a useful perspective on understanding an employee's likely responses to violations of the psychological contract (Carver and Scheier, 1982; Wiener, 1948). Employees have attitudinal or behavioral responses whenever they perceive discrepancies between what they were promised by their organization and what they were given in the social exchange relationship between themselves and their organization. Control theory states that employees are motivated to eliminate such imbalances. Hirschman (1970) used control theory to show that employees experiencing violations of the psychological contract would control the imbalances by increasing levels of exit, voice and neglect behavior, and reducing their loyalty to their firms. Lee and Mitchell (1994) suggested that workers would control the imbalances

rather than leave adverse situations if they felt their present circumstances were uncomfortable, while Farrell (1983) proposed that employees experiencing violations of the psychological contract would respond by participating in “lax and disgraceful” neglect behavior. Organ (1988) found that employees would put less energy into performing organizational citizenship behavior as a reaction to psychological contract violation. Rusbult, Farrell, and Manius (1988) also suggested that employees experiencing psychological contract violation would engage in voice behavior in an attempt to have their concerns addressed by supervisors and higher-level managers.

There has been little empirical research addressing violations of the psychological contract or the types of psychological contracts experienced by part-time workers. The present research has been undertaken to fill these gaps, firstly by using a theoretical framework (social exchange theory and control theory) to support the research framework and secondly by testing the concept of the violation of the psychological contract empirically, using qualitative and quantitative methods.

2.4.2 Fairness perception

The perception of fairness also influences the employment relationship because it focuses on part-time workers’ perceptions of their conditions relative to those of their chosen compared referents. Comparison with a self-selected group becomes the basis for the part-time worker’s perception of how fairly he / she is being treated (Adams, 1963). These fairness or equity perceptions thus influence the person’s attitude towards the organization. Adams (1963) postulated that a low fairness perception would result in changes to input and thus to outcomes, such as cognitively distorted contributions or rewards, leaving the field (i.e. absenteeism and turnover), attempting to change the input or changing the comparisons. Other researchers have proposed that workers would respond to inequity by trying to eliminate “reciprocal deviance” by increasing theft. There is strong support for a close relationship between theft and feelings of being underpaid (Hollinger and Clark, 1983). If their employers treat workers inequitably, they will convert the resulting feelings of unfairness into anger, distress or resentment, or will simply leave (Carrell and Dittrich, 1978; Miner, 1980).

Three theories – equity theory, frame of reference theory and relative deprivation

theory – have been used to develop the theoretical framework of the present research. Based on relative deprivation theory and the social comparison process, it is helpful to understand more thoroughly whom part-time workers compare themselves with when assessing whether or not their employers are treating them fairly, and why they would do so.

Equity theory refers to employees comparing their job inputs and outcomes to those of others. Workers perceive what they get from a job situation (outcomes) in relation to what they put into it (inputs), and then compare their outcome-input ratio with that of others in relevant circumstances. From the perspective of equity theory, deprived parties would be likely to reduce the tension by restoring equity (Adams, 1965). Equity theory emphasizes that employees will compare themselves with those who possess similar skills and make comparable productive contributions. Roberts, Coulson, and Chonko (1999) applied equity theory to an empirical investigation and indicated that both internal and external equity were significant factors in explaining organizational commitment and turnover intention. Dubinsky and Levy (1989) also used equity theory to explain the relationship between organizational fairness and overall job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance for retail workers. Dittrich and Carrell (1976) related the perception of fairness to absenteeism and turnover for professional and industrial employees, again using equity theory. They found that employees who felt they were receiving fair treatment had lower levels of absenteeism and turnover. Ambrose, Stepina, and Brand (1986a) also used equity theory to examine the relationship between job facet comparisons and employee reactions. Workers in inequity situations had lower general satisfaction and higher turnover.

The research referred to above was mostly done on full-time workers. The present study aims to extend the application of equity theory to part-time workers. In summary, the previous work cited here used equity theory to explain only a limited range of workers' negative behavior and reactions (job satisfaction, turnover and organizational commitment) without evaluating other behavior such as organizational citizenship behavior and intention to leave. However, this research will test and link the applications of equity theory to these other aspects.

A further refinement to equity theory was suggested by Feldman (1990) and Miller and Terborg (1979), namely the compared referent that an employee selects. This forms the basis for the frame of reference theory. The available evidence in equity theory indicates that the referent chosen is an important variable. An employee can make four major comparisons; self-inside (comparing the current situation with his or her experiences in a different position in the same organization), self-outside (comparing one's own experiences outside the organization), other-inside (comparing with another individual or group in the same organization) and other-outside (comparing with another individual or group outside the organization). Researchers have used frame of reference theory to explain attitudinal differences between full-time and part-time workers (Feldman, 1990; Miller and Terborg, 1979). However, this work did not investigate the differences between groups of part-time workers, as the present study will do.

Relative deprivation is based on the comparison of rewards. It emphasizes equity and need in actual pay policies, as well as the prevalence of such norms in pay fairness judgments. Thus we would expect employees to be sensitive to pay differentials with other dissimilar groups and to average trends in pay. There are two main types of deprivation – egoistic and fraternal. Egoistic deprivation arises when the individual compares him- or herself to a referent in the same group. Fraternal deprivation occurs when an individual identifies him or herself with a particular cultural group and compares that with another group. Martin and his colleagues (1981) examined the fairness reactions of occupational groups (secretaries and blue-collar workers) relative to a set of comparative referents. They found that individuals were more likely to experience egoistic than fraternal deprivation. Little research has been done into what and whom the individuals actually compare themselves with when they feel deprived. This research will provide more information on which factors influence the comparisons made by part-time employees in this position.

Frame of reference theory involves evaluating oneself against a referent on some relevant dimension (Festinger, 1954; Adams, 1965; Goodman, 1974; Ambrose and Kulik, 1988). Few studies deal directly with the actual social process of comparison (based on relative deprivation and equity theory). In the previous research, the emphasis was on whom the full-time workers compared themselves with in terms of

different aspects of the job. More recently, researchers have tended to focus more on whether full-time employees compare themselves with a single class or multiple classes of referents in evaluating their pay equity. Limited research has been done to examine the actions of part-time employees – with whom, according to what factors and why they might compare themselves – in the assessment of equity situations. This research will address this by separating participants into differentiated groups and carrying out a number of assessments; firstly, whether or not different types of part-time workers have the same compared referents; secondly, what factors they use as a basis for comparison; thirdly, the reasons for choosing the compared referent; and fourthly, whether or not different types of part-time workers will use single or multiple classes of referents to evaluate their equity. Previous empirical research will be drawn upon to help understand the issues in the context of part-time workers.

Several studies have examined the relationships between employee reactions and key categories of comparative referents. Oldham (1982) showed that employees were most “internally motivated” when they perceived their jobs as comparable in complexity to the jobs of their referents and were least satisfied when they perceived their jobs as relatively less complex. Oldham (1982) also suggested that employees who used self-future referents (i.e. themselves at a future point in time) were those most likely to withdraw from the organization permanently. This was because they usually had high achievement motivation and were frustrated by competition for performance, which was expressed by higher absenteeism and turnover than those employees who used past or present referents. Stepina and Brand (1986) extended this work to examine the association between a variety of employee reactions and the comparative referents used in four job facets (job complexity, compensation, supervisor behavior and security). Their results demonstrated that the more self-future referents used by employees across the four facets, the lower their satisfaction and the higher their turnover and absenteeism. With regard to specific results for the four job facets, employees who used self-future compensation referents were more likely to leave than those who used self-present referents. Similarly, individuals who used self-future job complexity referents exhibited higher absenteeism and turnover than those who used past or present referents. Individuals who used self-future job complexity referents also performed at lower levels than individuals who used present referents.

Past research on pay referents selection has included possible comparisons with others (Goodman, 1974; Heneman, Schwab, Standal, and Peterson, 1978; Hills, 1980). Finn and Lee (1972) evaluated internal (others in the company) or external (others outside of the organization) comparisons of pay referents. The results showed that the respondents tended to use a mix of both internal and external referents. Goodman (1974) asked individuals to answer open-ended questions regarding the type of referents they used. He found that only 23% of his sample used a single class of referents in evaluating their pay. Heneman, Schwab, Standal, and Peterson (1978) also asked individuals to rate pay comparisons on the basis of importance, so as to determine which referent each individual favored. They found that there was a strong indication that individuals make multiple comparisons. Scholl, Cooper, and McKenna (1987) applied the concept of differential equity to full-time employees from financial institutions. They tested equity perceptions with respect to seven different referents (job, company, occupation, age, education, system, and oneself) and compared their inter-relationships to pay satisfaction, intent to remain with the company, and frequency of extra-role behavior. The results revealed that individuals did differentiate between their responses to special referents and further that some forms of inequity were strongly associated with one outcome and not others. Ronen (1986) investigated the role of reference groups inside and outside the organization within the framework of equity theory, using attitudes towards pay as the basis for comparison. The results indicated that the outside reference group was more important than the inside group in explaining job attitudes and behavioral propensities.

The above research reviewed the compared referents of full-time employees but did not test whether they made single or multiple referent comparisons when assessing their equity situations. An early issue to be resolved is that of to whom part-time workers are likely to compare themselves and whether there are any differences in compared referents among part-time workers (eg. other contingent workers vs. the other core employees doing the same assignment). Contingent workers are more likely to work alongside non-contingent employees, performing the same or similar tasks, as they are usually hired to fill gaps in the permanent workforce (Pfeffer and Baron, 1988; Caudron, 1994). Research has suggested that proximity is an important factor in the choice of a referent other (Oldham, Kulik, and Ambrose, 1986). As a result, most

previous research has suggested that it is more likely for part-time workers to take core workers as their referents (Eberhardt and Moser 1995; Beard and Edwards, 1995; Goodman and Friedman, 1971; Adams, 1963). On the other hand, some work has suggested that they tend to use other part-time workers in their organization as referents (Feldman and Doerpinhaus, 1992). However, there has been little empirical research on this issue linked to a theoretical framework and comparing different types of part-time workers. The present research will address this issue.

2.5 Work outcomes of part-time workers

In this section, three work outcomes relating to part-time workers are defined and the relevant research evaluated.

2.5.1 Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment has a behavioral dimension regarding the employee's intention to stay and the level of loyalty to the employer (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Morrow (1993) states that organizational commitment is important to organizations and to the development of human resources practices for part-time workers. The concept has also been closely tied into behavioral outcomes such as absenteeism, turnover and reduced employee efforts (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Mowday and Porter, 1979).

According to Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth (1978), organizational commitment consists of a strong belief in and acceptance of an organization's goals and values and both willingness and a strong desire to exert considerable effort on its behalf. However, very few studies of part-time workers have directly examined organizational commitment (Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel, 1997). The results of the work that has been done have been inconsistent. Still's (1983) longitudinal study of part-time and full-time retail salespeople found no differences between the two groups' organizational commitment. Lee and Johnson (1991) found that permanent full-time employees working to their preferred schedule had higher organizational commitment than permanent part-time employees not working according to their preferences. These full-time workers could choose to work either full- or part-time. The organizational commitment of permanent full-time and part-time workers did not

differ when they were unable to work to their preferred schedule. The research therefore showed that people able to achieve their preferred work status would increase their organizational commitment more than those who had been unable to do so. This finding is crucial to the development of the hypotheses to be used here, which propose work status as a moderator in the relationship between job-related attitudes and behavior for part-time workers.

2.5.2 Organizational citizenship behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior has been chosen as one of the behavioral outcomes for this research because organizations cannot specify all desired behavior and are therefore increasing their emphasis on prosocial employee behavior such as citizenship (Organ, 1988). Most scholars have studied organizational citizenship behavior in respect of full-time workers (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Katzell and Yankelovich, 1975; Wells and Machinsky, 1985; O' Reilly and Chatman, 1986). Few studies of part-time workers have directly examined its construct and dimensions. Furthermore, the concept has been applied to part-time work only in a very limited way. One of the goals of this research is to extend the concept of organizational citizenship behavior to part-time workers.

Organ (1988) defined organizational citizenship behavior as the discretionary nature of organizational citizenship. He was referring to the sort of constructive behavior not included in an employee's formal job description, such as assessing co-workers' ability to cope with a new working environment, helping peers to learn a new task, volunteering to do things that benefit the work group, and orienting new workers. Since these types of behavior are not actually required by the employer, there are no formal sanctions for failing to engage in them. Thus organizational citizenship behavior can be viewed as a behavioral indicator of workers' response to their employment. Katz (1964) recognized its importance for organizational effectiveness.

The concept of organizational citizenship behavior is based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Social exchange theory generates an expectation of some future return for contributions even though the exact nature of that return is unspecified. This is similar to the nature of organizational citizenship behavior inasmuch as it is

voluntary in nature and cannot be reciprocated. Besides, social exchange relationships are based on individuals trusting that the other parties to the exchange will discharge their obligations in the long term (Holmes, 1981). If the employer treats part-time workers fairly, they will accrue higher trust in the employment relationship. As a result, they are likely to perform voluntarily with their role, which is beneficial to the organization.

The development of organizational citizenship behavior theory has progressed rather slowly. Organ's (1988) social exchange interpretation was a theoretical advance and some subsequent empirical studies examined various aspects of that interpretation. For instance, Folger and Konovsky (1989) demonstrated that procedural, not distributive, justice predicted trust in supervisor, one of the key components of social exchange (Blau, 1964). However, most of the research on organizational citizenship behavior has been conducted largely without a theoretical framework, often making reference to the concept but failing to systematically explore it. The literature seems to conclude only that issues such as trust are crucial to the development of social exchange relationships (Organ and Konovsky, 1989). The present research extends the concept of organizational citizenship behavior by specifying more exactly how and why issues such as fairness are crucial to the development of social exchange relationships when different types of part-time workers are compared.

Some previous research has been done on organizational citizenship behavior. Its antecedents for full-time workers (William and Anderson, 1991; Witt, 1991) have been explored and its levels amongst contingent workers compared with full-time ones (Linn and Ang, 1998). Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) extended the concept of organizational citizenship behavior cross-culturally by using modernity, tradition, and gender to moderate the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior, showing that the latter two were significant.

Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) also examined the etic and emic aspects of Chinese organizational citizenship behavior. Table 2.5.2 compares the five dimensions of the organizational citizenship behavior scale with those identified by Organ (1988) and later operationalized by Poksakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter, (1990). This reveals the similarities and differences between Western and Eastern countries and

also between different Eastern countries. The work of Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) enhances the significance of the present study because they examined whether or not the organizational citizenship behavior scale they had developed in Taiwan could be applied to part-time employees in the Hong Kong service industries. Table 2.5.2 also shows that dimensions of identification with the company, altruism toward colleagues and conscientiousness are similar to those reported by Organ (1988) and in fact appear to be etic dimensions. While both scales include compliance with company regulations and policies and better-than-expected attendance records, the Taiwan scale also includes items that are somewhat more proactive, such as “willing to take on challenging assignments” and “willing to self-study to improve one’s work performance”. Sportsmanship and courtesy, two dimensions in the Podsakoff scale, are not present in Taiwan’s citizenship behavior scale but appear only in Western organizational citizenship behavior, while interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources do not appear in Podsakoff’s scale. The presence of interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources in the Chinese organizational citizenship behavior scale can be attributed to their cultural roots.

There has been little research addressing organizational citizenship behavior in the part-time workforce other than the cross-cultural work described above. The present research aims to demonstrate a difference in results due to work status when comparing Western and Eastern countries.

Table 2.5.2 The comparison of Western and Chinese (Taiwan and Hong Kong) organizational citizenship behavior scales

| Etic dimensions | | |
|---|---|---|
| Western | Taiwan | Hong Kong |
| <i>Civic virtue</i> | <i>Identification with company</i> | |
| Discretionary behavior that indicates that one responsibly participates in, is involved in, or is concerned about the life of the organization, e.g. attending important but nonmandatory meetings; keeping abreast of changes in the organization, reading company memos and announcements and performing functions that help the company's image. | Very similar to civic virtue in definition. Items here also emphasize the willingness on the part of the employees to spread positive company news to outsiders; to defend company reputation; to make suggestions for improvement. | |
| <i>Altruism</i> | <i>Altruism toward colleagues</i> | <i>Altruism toward colleagues</i> |
| Discretionary behavior that has the effect of helping others around him or her (mostly peers, clients, supervisors) with an organizationally relevant task or problem. | Identical to Western altruism in definition; very similar item contents. | Identical to Western altruism in definition; very similar item contents. |
| <i>Conscientiousness</i> | <i>Conscientiousness</i> | <i>Conscientiousness</i> |
| Discretionary behavior by an employee that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organization in the areas of | Identical to Western conscientiousness; very similar item contents. | Self-motivated acts to protect the organization, and to enhance efficiency at work and in the organization generally. |

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| attendance, obeying rules and regulations, taking breaks, working hard, and so forth. | | |
| Emic dimensions | | |
| <i>Sportsmanship</i> | | |
| Willingness of an employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining; to avoid complaining about petty grievances and railing against real or imagined slights. | | |
| <i>Courtesy</i> | | |
| Discretionary behavior by an employee aimed at preventing work-related problems with others from occurring; being mindful of the effects of one's behavior on others; not abusing others' rights; preventing problems with other people. | | |
| | <i>Interpersonal harmony</i> | |
| | Discretionary behavior by an employee to avoid pursuing personal power and gain with detrimental effects on others and the organization. | |
| | <i>Protecting company resources</i> | |

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| | Discretionary behavior by an employee to avoid negative behavior that abuses company policies and resources. | |
| | | <i>Interpersonal harmony</i> |
| | | Negative discretionary behavior by an employee to harm and abuse company policies. |

Source: Farh, Earley and Lin (1997).

2.5.3 Intention to leave the organization

Research has suggested that turnover intention is a key predictor of actual turnover (Hom and Julin, 1981; Mobley, Horner and Hollingsworth, 1978; Mowday and Porter, 1979). Thus, turnover has been considered as one of the most important indicators of organizational well-being (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). In other words, turnover intention will be a reliable predictor of personal approach towards the organization inasmuch as the person will have either strong or weak intention to leave.

Extensive research has looked at influences on employee turnover or intention to leave among full-time workers. Van Yperen, Hagedoorn, and Sabine (1996) investigated full-time blue-collar workers in a Dutch metal manufacturing plant and confirmed that the perception of fairness is related to intention to leave and to actual absence. However, relatively little attention has been paid to other potential moderators (such as work status) on the relationship between attitudes and intention to leave in the context of part-time work. Jennifer and Gareth (1996) have shown that value attainment and positive mood can moderate the relationship between attitudes (job satisfaction) and turnover intention. Some researchers have used another moderator, namely career commitment, to investigate the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention among full-time business researchers in Korea (Chang, 1999). Far less attention has been paid to the potential influences on turnover intention in part-time work. McBey and Karakowsky (2000)

examined the influences on turnover among part-time workers. They suggested that the factors which influence turnover among full-time employees might not be equally influential for part-timers. The current study will make a contribution to knowledge by exploring the moderating influence of work status on the relationship between job-related attitudes and turnover intention in part-time work.

To summarize, based on the above review of previous research findings, the objective of this study is to examine: -

- (1) The attitudes of different types of part-time workers (voluntary and involuntary);
- (2) The differences in employment-related attitudes and behavior for different types of part-time workers (voluntary and involuntary);
- (3) The moderating role of work status on the relationship between job-related attitudes (perception of psychological contract violation and of fairness), and behavior (organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to leave);
- (4) Whether or not involuntary part-time workers have significantly less positive attitudes and behavior than voluntary;
- (5) Whether or not there are differences between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers in terms of compared referents.

2.5.4 The development of hypotheses

In this sections, the research hypotheses are discussed and examined in terms of the inter-relationship of the issues discussed above. These relationships are illustrated in Figure 2.5.4.

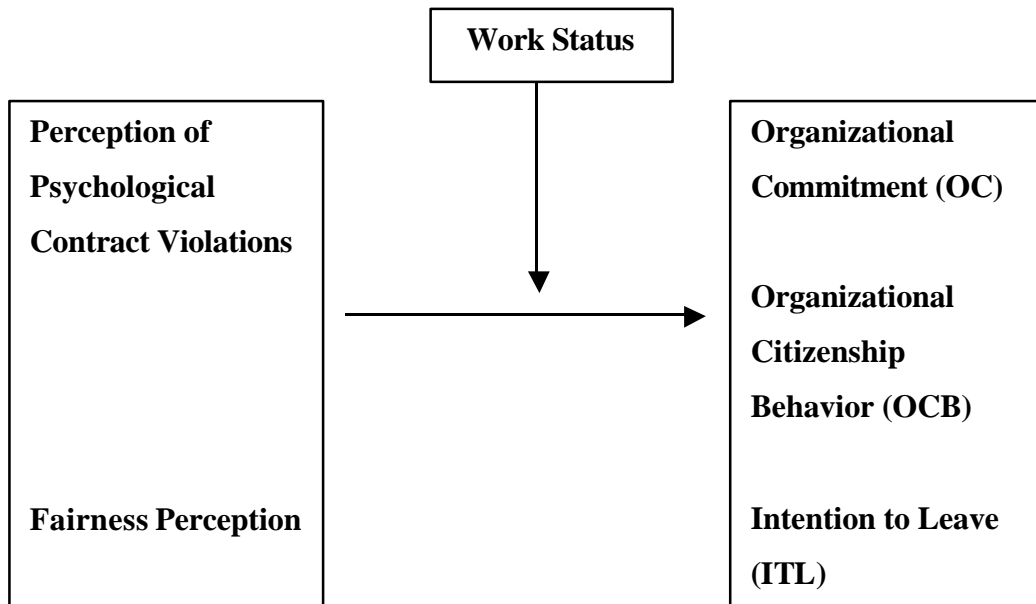


Figure 2.5.4 The proposed research framework

2.5.4.1 Psychological contract violation and the relationship to behavior

Psychological contracts define the terms of social exchange relationships (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961) between individuals and organizations. Previous research has suggested that employees should seek to maintain equity between the cost and benefits of such relationships (Adams, 1965). Thus, employees that experience a sense of violation in the psychological contract would, in turn, decrease the contributions that they make to their workplace (Robinson, Kraatz, and Rousseau, 1994; Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Turnley and Feldman, 2000). The framework of Robinson (1996) has been widely used to examine three distinct forms of employee contributions that are critical for determining organizational effectiveness (Katz, 1964; Katz and Kahn, 1978); namely, commitment (Rousseau, 1995; Turnley and Feldman, 1999), organizational citizenship behavior (Robinson, Kraatz, and Rousseau, 1994; Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Turnley and Feldman, 2000), and lessened intention to leave (Robinson and Rousseau, 1994). Consistent with previous research in this area, it is therefore proposed that:

H1a: Violations of the psychological contract will be negatively related to the organizational commitment of part-time workers.

H1b: Violations of the psychological contract will be negatively related to the organizational citizenship behavior of the part-time workers.

H1c: Violations of the psychological contract will be positively related to intention to leave for the part-time workers.

In the preceding section, the link between job-related attitudes and work behavior was discussed. The ways in which a part-time employee actually responds to a violation of the psychological contract are likely to be strongly influenced by the situational context (the availability of full-time work and the extent of the choices offered to the part-time workers). Several researchers (see for example Rousseau, 1995) have suggested that situational factors are likely to moderate employee responses to psychological contract violation. However, there has been no empirical research in this area other than that done recently by Turnley and Feldman (1999) and Dyne and Ang (1998). Turnley and Feldman (1999) suggested that situational factors such as the availability of attractive employment alternatives moderate the relationship between psychological contract violation and exit. Dyne and Ang (1998) used work status to moderate the relationship between the perception of the psychological contract, organizational citizenship behavior, and affective commitment. The current research examines the impact of one situational variable (work status) which, it is hypothesized, will moderate the ways in which part-time employees respond to psychological contract violation.

2.5.4.2 Fairness perception relating to behavior of part-time workers

Fairness perception is judged by comparison to self-selected groups, which form the basis for an assessment of how fairly the part-time employee feels he / she is being treated (Adams, 1963; Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel, 1997). These perceptions strongly influence a person's attitude to the organization, which in turn influence behavioral outcomes. It is logical to suppose that part-time workers may be more likely to exhibit positive behavioral outcomes when they are treated fairly. On the contrary, part-time workers may be more likely to show negative discretionary behavior if their employer treats them inequitably. Previous studies have shown a

strong and positive relationship between fairness perception and organizational commitment (Roberts, Coulson, and Chonko, 1999 and Dubinsky and Levy, 1989). A positive relationship has also been found between fairness perception and organizational citizenship behavior (Deluga, 1994; Dittrich and Carrell, 1979; Organ, 1988a; Organ, 1990; Scholl, Cooper, and McKenna, 1987; Scholl, Cooper, and McKenna, 1987). On the contrary, other studies have indicated a negative relationship between fairness perception and intention to leave (Dittrich and Carrell, 1979; Dittrich, Couger, and Zawacki, 1985; Van Yperen, Hagedoorn, and Sabine, 1966). Therefore, it is further hypothesized that for part-time workers: -

H2a: Fairness perception will be positively related to organizational commitment.

H2b: Fairness perception will be positively related to organizational citizenship behavior.

H2c: Fairness perception will be negatively related to intention to leave.

2.5.4.3 The moderating influence of work status on the relationship between perception of psychological contract violation and behavior

If the part-time worker chooses this option, this indicates a personal preference for less work involvement in exchange for more flexibility. This preference could be based on family responsibilities, educational goals and / or lifestyle choices that emphasize flexibility. If people choose to work part-time willingly and receive more than they were promised by their employers, they will be more satisfied and willing to enter into an exchange with the organization (Becker, 1960). Thus, they will have stronger feelings of obligation or responsibility to remain (Meyer and Allen, 1990). Furthermore, they are likely to be more psychologically attached to the employing organization through a sense of belonging, affection and loyalty (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich, 1993). The situation will be reversed if people are forced to work part-time against their preferences (due to the lack of availability of full-time jobs in the existing labor market) and also if they perceive that they have received less than they were promised by their employers. This leads to the next hypothesis: -

H3a: Work status will moderate the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational commitment, such negative relationship is much stronger for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers.

Bishop, Ofori-Dankwa, and McKether (1993) have suggested that a gap between desired and actual work status will play a major role in influencing workers' attitudes and behavior. Other researchers have argued that employees who have not achieved their desired work status are likely to be more dissatisfied with their jobs than those who have obtained their preference. The psychological contract consists of beliefs about the company's obligations. If the employee perceives that his / her employer has violated this contract, such feelings of dissatisfaction may easily lead him or her to reciprocate by reducing the contribution made.

On the other hand, voluntary part-time workers have been found to be more satisfied than involuntary ones (Krausz, Brandwein, and Fox, 1995). There is a close relationship between employee satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Puffer, 1987; Witt, 1991). In summary, voluntary part-time workers, if they are comparatively more satisfied than involuntary, will be more willing to engage in organizational citizenship behavior by contributing more to their working organization. Thus: -

H3b: Work status will moderate the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior, such negative relationship is much stronger for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers.

Lee and Johnson (1991) have proposed that the gap between desired and received reward will be smaller for those working to their preferred schedule than those who cannot. In general, Lee and Johnson (1991) contended that a job will seem more onerous if the work schedule is not preferred. Involuntary part-time workers who have been unable to achieve their preferred work status will also view their job as more onerous if the employer has done less than they promised to do for workers in their preferred status. They will therefore have more intention to leave if they have better alternatives. Mikulincer (1987) proposed that freedom to choose (ability to leave the

organization) would affect the work outcomes of part-time workers if their psychological contracts were violated.

However, since voluntary workers are those who have chosen part-time instead of full-time work, it can be assumed that they will be happy to remain in the same employment status. They will be prepared to receive fewer inducements, such as job satisfaction, from their work, further reducing the gap between desired and received rewards. They will view the job as less onerous and have less hostile feelings even if the employers have not done what they had promised. If people are satisfied with their work status, they will be more willing to stay in the same organization and so will have less intention to leave. Therefore, it is hypothesized that: -

H3c: Work status will moderate the relationship between perceptions of psychological contract violation and intention to leave, such positive relationship is much stronger for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers.

2.5.4.4 The moderating influence of work status on the relationship between the fairness perception and behavior

So far, no research has used situational factors such as work status to moderate the relationship between fairness perceptions and behavior for part-time workers.

The fairness perception can easily influence a person's attitude to an organization. Involuntary part-time workers may be more likely to compare their fairness treatment with full-time staff because they were initially looking for a full-time job. As they compare more, they may be more likely to feel that their employers are treating them unfairly. They will be less willing to have further exchanges with, or invest in, their organization because they do not value it (Becker, 1960).

Voluntary part-time workers may not feel deprived when compared with full-time workers because they are prepared to receive fewer benefits in exchange for more freedom and flexibility. According to traditional research on organizational commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990), voluntary part-time workers would be likely to have higher intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction and to perceive higher relative

equity when they choose not to compare themselves with full-time workers. As a result, they will be more willing to facilitate exchange with their organization because they value it more highly. Thus: -

H4a: Work status will moderate the relationship between the perception of fairness and organizational commitment, such positive relationship is much stronger for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers.

Voluntary part-time workers working to their preferred schedule are more easily satisfied. Lawler, Christopher and Bowen (1991) showed that if they were satisfied, there were fewer differences between what was expected and what was actually received. As a result, voluntary part-time workers who have a higher fairness perception will be more willing to contribute extra to their working organization due to their positive feelings about the company. This contention is supported by Organ (1990) who found that employees would engage in organizational citizenship behavior when they thought their organization was treating them fairly.

There is clear evidence that part-time workers receive lower pay and have less interesting jobs (Howe, 1986; Nardone, 1996; Owen, 1978). Involuntary part-time workers may be easily dissatisfied and see themselves as being unfairly treated because they cannot work full-time. It has also been proved that there is a strong relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Puffer, 1987; Organ and Konovsky, 1989). In turn, if part-time workers who wish to work full-time are dissatisfied, they may be more likely to withhold citizenship behavior if they are not fairly treated by their employers. The following hypothesis can therefore be constructed: -

H4b: Work status will moderate the relationship between the perception of fairness and organizational citizenship behavior, such positive relationship is much stronger for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers.

Involuntarily part-time workers unable to work in their preferred employment status might easily feel deprived and frustrated if they were to be treated unfairly in terms of pay, working hours and other working conditions. Such inequities are likely

to increase the intention to leave, if there are better alternatives available. Miller and Terborg (1979) also showed that choice enhances perceived control by allowing the individual more freedom to withdraw from a situation once it becomes unpleasant or intolerable.

On the contrary, voluntary part-time workers who are able to work to a preferred work arrangement are more committed than those who cannot. Moreover, Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1995) have shown that voluntary workers are already more committed. Individuals committed to the organization would be expected to show less intention to leave either because they want to stay (affective commitment), need to stay (continuance commitment), or because they feel obliged to remain with the organization because they are being treated fairly (normative commitment) (Meyer and Allen, 1990; Weiner, 1980). Thus: -

H4c: Work status will moderate the relationship between the perception of fairness and intention to leave the organization, such negative relationship is much stronger for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers.

In this chapter, a thorough review of previous research linking job-related attitudes and work behavior has been presented. It is clear that such work has usually been done on full-time workers. Some research has compared the level of variables between part-time and full-time workers. However, this research will extend the theoretical framework by using and testing the concept of perceived psychological contract violation and fairness perception on part-time workers. It will also go one step further by testing the moderator of work status on the link between job-related attitudes and work behavior of part-time workers. Tests of these hypotheses will help to fill the following gaps in our knowledge: (1) whether or not the concept of psychological contract violation can be applied to part-time as well as full-time workers; (2) whether or not the psychological contracts of part-time workers are frequently violated by the employers in downsizing and restructuring firms; (3) whether or not the fairness perception can be applied to part-time workers; (4) whether, and how far, situational moderators (such as work status) will affect the relationship between job-related attitudes and behavior among part-time workers, and (5) the nature and extent of any differences in compared referents between different types of part-time workers.

Having reviewed the literature on part-time work, Chapter 3 will now elaborate the methods used to test the theoretical framework.

Chapter 3 Methodology

Following on from the comprehensive review of literature in Chapter 2, this chapter introduces the methods used to achieve the initial objectives. The purpose of this chapter is to show which methods and instruments were used in this research and why they were chosen.

The chapter is divided into three sections. The first examines the primary data in the research framework and the second one the secondary data. The third section discusses the validity and reliability of the instruments.

3.1 Primary Data

Primary data refers to information, such as the perceptions and attitudes of employees, which is best obtained by talking to individuals, observing events, people and objects, or by administering questionnaires (Martella, Nelson, and Martella, 1999). In this research, primary data was obtained through quantitative methods – a questionnaire – and qualitative methods – focus groups and face-to-face interviews.

3.1.1 Quantitative methods

Questionnaires are the most frequent and usual way of obtaining quantitative data. They are a convenient, efficient and inexpensive way to proceed (Hartwig and Dearing, 1979). Besides, the data collected can be easily coded and sorted for statistical analysis. The major source of quantitative data in this research was therefore a questionnaire.

3.1.1.1 Survey sample and sampling method

A total of 1,640 questionnaires were sent out to the Human Resources Department of different companies in the service companies. Only 213 sets were returned, of which 13 were discarded incomplete. The response rate was around 13%. In other words, a total of 200 completed questionnaires were used in the analysis. These were deemed a large enough dataset to analyze statistically (Eberhardt and Moser, 1995). Of the 200, 78% (156 sets) were returned in the self-addressed envelopes provided, whilst

22% (44 sets) were obtained through personal networking, using convenience sampling. According to Larry (1984), a convenience sample ranging from 10 to 100 can be used in most circumstances. Convenience samples comprise those individuals or organizations that are most readily available to participate in the study (Remenyi, Williams, Money, and Swartz, 1998). Besides, this is the cheapest and easiest way to conduct research (Cooper and Emory, 1995). The target companies were selected based on the type of services they provided and their reputation in the market. Both listed and unlisted companies were included, although most were listed. Listed companies were more willing to disclose company information to the public while unlisted companies usually declined the invitation to participate for reasons of confidentiality. The selected companies were intended to be similar in nature and level of business, while allowing for some differences (such as a different source of capital and company history).

After securing support for the research from senior management, both English and Chinese versions of the questionnaire (which can be seen in Appendix 1a and 1b), together with covering letters, were sent to the manager of the Human Resources Department in each firm. The English and Chinese questionnaires were obtained by using back translation. Back translation is the technique of translating one language into another, and then a second person independently translating the material back into the original. Because most of the part-time respondents were native Chinese and probably not highly educated, it was advisable to adopt this method. Retranslation back into the original language by a different person ensures that the original meaning has been retained and literal accuracy achieved. Even if the researcher has assumed that equivalence has been achieved when doing the back translation, the exact meaning may be changed due to cultural reasons. This method offers the further advantage of avoiding cultural difference (Punnett and Shenkar, 1996).

In addition to these benefits, back translation helps to ensure no single culture or language dominates a comparative research project (Adler, Brahm and Graham, 1992). According to Sekaran (1992), a good back translation secures vocabulary, idiomatic, grammatical and experimental equivalence. Having the questionnaire translated and edited in Chinese enabled easier understanding of its content and thus reduced the time required to complete it.

A cover letter explained the general purpose of the project, including a hotline number which provided an information service to the participants. The cover letters can be found in Appendix 2(a) and 2(b). A postage-paid, pre-addressed envelope for returning the completed questionnaire to the university was also enclosed. Small gifts were included as incentives to increase the response rate. The questionnaires were distributed to respondents through the manager of the Human Resources Department in each company. A reminder note was sent to each supporting company three weeks later. Part-time employees were allowed to complete the surveys after office hours. Participation was voluntary and confidentiality was guaranteed.

3.1.1.2 Pre-test

The objective of a pre-test is to detect any possible shortcomings in the design and administration of the questionnaire (Emory and Cooper, 1991). The pre-test provides an opportunity to assess the clarity of the instructions and questions, comprehensiveness of the codes chosen for the pre-coded questions, the quality of the evidence, and the ability to perform meaningful analysis of the evidence obtained (Remenyi, Williams, Money, and Swartz, 1998). In this research, 40 formal pre-tests were carried out to test the respondents' understanding of the instructions and wording of the questionnaire. After that, 15 further formal pilot-tests were used to test the returns. The main purpose of this exercise was to predict the trend of the research results.

3.1.1.3 Measures

The variables to be tested in the questionnaire were the perception of violations of the psychological contract, fairness perception, work status, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to leave the organization. These are summarized in Figure 3.1.1.3. The variables to be tested were all selected from previous literature so as to have high reliability alpha values (usually greater than 0.7).

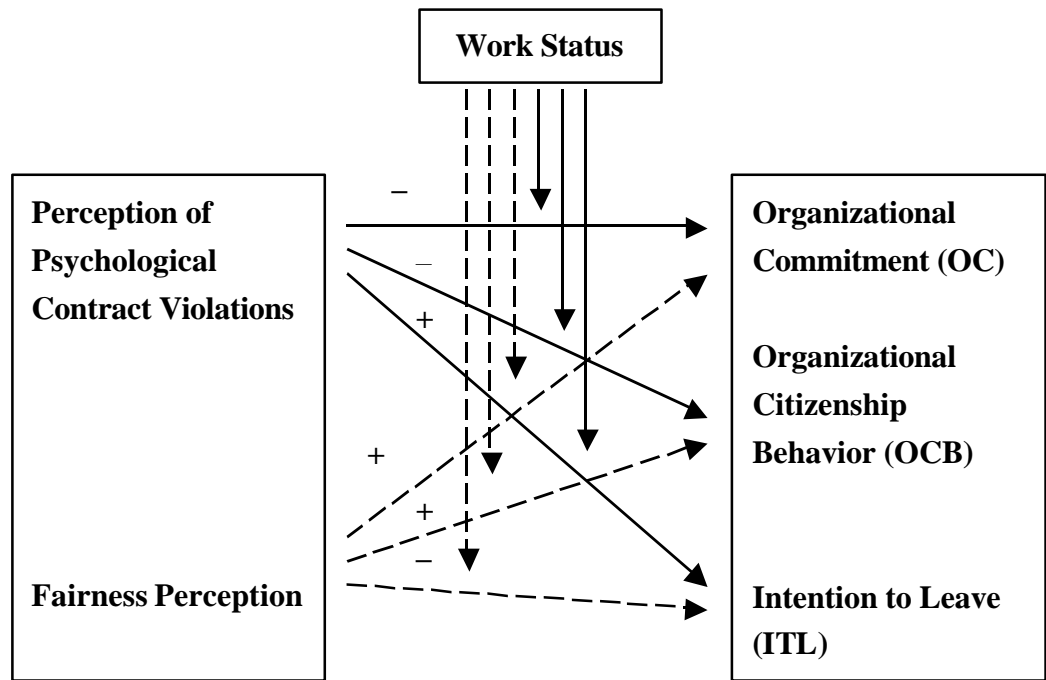


Figure 3.1.1.3 The proposed research framework

Perception of psychological contract violation

The scale for the perception of psychological contract violation was adopted from Robinson (1996). Since the participants were all part-time employees with shorter tenure, they were asked to indicate in this part of the form how long ago they had been recruited and to what extent they felt their employers had met each of the following seven obligations; promotion and advancement, high pay, pay based on current level of performance, training, long-term job security, career development, and sufficient power and responsibility. This list of employment obligations was drawn from Rousseau’s (1990) measure of psychological contracts.

The instructions asked the respondents to think carefully about the extent to which their employer had made implicit or explicit promises to provide them with the above items when they were recruited. They were then asked to give a score ranging from “no” to “very high” according to how obligated they thought the employers were to provide them with the above-mentioned items. In the second part, the respondents were asked to give a score ranging from “badly fulfilled” to “highly fulfilled” to indicate their view.

The measure of perception of psychological contract violation was created as follows. The degree to which each item was fulfilled in the third part was subtracted from the degree to which it was obligated in the second part. For example, if an item was indicated to be highly obligated in the second part and was perceived as violated in the third part, this resulted in a high discrepancy (i.e. high violation). Conversely, if an item was perceived not to be obligated at the second part but was highly fulfilled in the third part, a low violation or low discrepancy was recorded. These differences between obligation and violation were then aggregated into a score ranging from -4 to +4. A score of -4 indicated a weak sense of violation and a +4 a strong perception. The scoring system thus took into account both perceived fulfillment and perceived violation of the contract, rather than perceived violation alone, capturing the full range of variance in this variable. Aggregating perceived fulfillment and violation in this way was also consistent with the literature, which takes into account both contract discrepancies (the perception that the employer has failed to fulfill specific obligations), fulfillment discrepancies (that the employer has provided some terms beyond his or her obligations) and no discrepancies (perception that the employer has fulfilled specific obligations as promised).

Fairness perception

The scale used in the determination of fairness perception was adopted from Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1997). Responses were coded from 1 to 5 with 5 indicating a high fairness perception among part-time employees compared to how the organization treated full-time workers. Respondents were asked: “compared to full time workers, how do you feel that your employer treats part time workers, in terms of the following items: pay, benefits, vacations and holidays, work assignments, scheduling hours and working conditions?” The original scale was 1 (much better), 2 (somewhat better), 3 (same), 4 (somewhat worse), and 5 (much worse). It consisted of 7 items with a Cronbach alpha of 0.87.

Work status

Due to limited time and resources, this research was only able to explore voluntary

and involuntary work status, with reference to Feldman's (1990) definition as used by Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1997). Part-time respondents were asked to indicate their preferred type of work status as follows:- "prefer full time work but not available in the labor market" (involuntary work status) and "given priority, still prefer to have part time work rather than full time work"(voluntary work status). "voluntary work status" was coded 1 and "involuntary work status" was coded 0.

Organizational commitment

A 15-item scale of organizational commitment was adopted from Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982). The original item used a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) characterized organizational commitment along three main dimensions: a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a strong desire to maintain membership of the organization. The original English scale had already been translated into Chinese and used in behavioral research in Taiwan. Despite its Western origin, it was found to perform satisfactorily in terms of reliability and validity (see for example, Yang and Cheng, 1987). The Cronbach alpha for this scale was 0.85. According to Price and Mueller (1986), the scale developed by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) was relatively reliable. It consisted of 15 items with a Cronbach alpha of 0.73.

Organizational citizenship behavior

A 20-item scale of organizational citizenship behavior was adopted from Farh, Earley and Lin (1997), who used three independent samples of Chinese students and employees to develop a Chinese organizational citizenship behavior scale. The respondents were enrolled in the Master of Business Administration (MBA) and Management Development programs at the National Chengchi University in Taiwan. They were asked to draw on previous work experience to list 10 to 20 examples of citizenship behavior. The researchers tested the resulting 60 statements on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). This scale was more consistent and similar to Podsakoff's scale for the Western countries (civic virtue, altruism and conscientiousness) except for two dimensions

(interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources). As noted by many writers (see for example Bond and Kwang, 1987; Yang, 1993) one of the most distinctive features of Chinese societies is their family orientation. Researchers have therefore considered interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources to be major forms of citizenship behavior in Chinese societies (Yang, 1993). Finally, the researchers derived a 20-item Chinese citizenship behavior scale with high overall fit (TLI = 0.91), with a chi-square value of 346.23 (d.f. = 160; $P < 0.01$) labeled according to five factors: identification with the company, altruism toward colleagues, conscientiousness, interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources. The scale identified not only positive but also negative behavior (i.e. things that one should not do). It consisted of 20 items with a Cronbach alpha of 0.81.

Intention to leave the organization

Part time employees were asked to respond to five items designed to assess their intention to leave. The original seven-point Likert scale was adopted from Wayne, Shore, and Linden (1997). Three of the items had been used by Landau and Hammer (1986): “I am actively looking for a job outside (company)”, “As soon as I can find a better job, I ll leave (company),” and “I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.” One item from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Nadler, Jenkins, Cammann, and Lawler, 1975) was included: “I often think about quitting my job at (company name),” and the researchers also developed one new item: “I think I will be working at (company name) five years from now” (coded in reverse). The work showed that part-time respondents usually had high turnover. The same five items were adopted in this research except for the last one, which was changed to “I think I will be working at (company name) one year from now” (scored in reverse). Respondents indicated a score from (1) “strongly disagree to (5) “strongly agree”. The scale consisted of 5 items with a Cronbach alpha of 0.90.

Demographic and control variables

The surveys also provided seven demographic attributes to be used as controls. Age was measured by five categories (1 = under 20, 2 = 21 – 30, 3 = 31 – 40, 4 = 41 – 50, 5 = over 51). Gender was binary coded with 1 designating male and 0 female.

Education was measured by three categories (1 = primary education, 2 = secondary education, 3 = tertiary education or above). Tenure was measured in months by categories (1 = less than 6 months, 2 = 7 – 12 months, 3 = 13 – 18 months, 4 = 19 – 24 months, 5 = Above 24 months). Type of industry was measured by four categories (1 = retail, 2 = hotel, 3 = telecommunication, 4 = food). Marital status was measured by two categories (1 = married and 2 = unmarried). Primary income earner was measured by two categories (1 = yes and 2 = no). Based on prior research, it was determined that these correlates of working behavior should be controlled for, as they would have an effect on the outcomes of interest here.

3.1.2 Qualitative method

Qualitative research has often been characterized as producing an overwhelming amount of data, which the researcher must expend considerable effort to reduce (Yin, 1994). Miles and Huberman (1994) thus suggested that qualitative research will seem most appropriate when the subject of study requires substantial data reduction, clarification in the presentation of data, and/or expectations of new theoretical propositions or specific managerial actions. It may be the best choice when the identification of new theoretical propositions or managerial actions is deemed necessary (Lee, 1999). Qualitative methods were used in this research because they could supplement the quantitative approach in areas where the surveys provided less coverage. This also enabled probing of the reasons underpinning the quantitative results. Furthermore, qualitative methods have commonly been used in studying organizational behavior, in which the opinions of the respondents are to be explored.

There are many different methods that can be applied in qualitative research, such as participant observation, focus groups, in-depth interviews, case studies, and interviews. In this research, only focus groups with part-time workers and conversational interviews with supervisors were used, for a number of reasons. Although participant observation provides direct access to the issues, people's reactions can be unpredictable, and the selection of the "right" respondents is problematic. Case study research is best suited to the examination of why and how contemporary, real-life organizational phenomena occur. It is in-depth in nature and places an emphasis on uncovering situational, embedded processes, which justify

levels of causal inference. However, researchers under some conditions have minimal control (Lee, 1999).

Focus groups offer many advantages to organizational studies. The discussions can introduce the researcher to the organization and its culture as well as the range of its members' worldviews (particularly those of key individuals). According to Remenyi, Williams, Money, and Swartz (1998), focus groups provide a concentrated, quick and inexpensive way of obtaining evidence. They can also help to formulate research questions at the outset and validate the research conclusions toward the end of the study. As shown in Maurer (1992), focus groups can aid in the development of questionnaires at the outset of a study. They can also help the researcher to identify domains of interest, specify their content, and clarify context-specific working of questions. After a survey or an experiment has been completed, focus groups can also be valuable for clarifying the results. The researcher can make use of one or more groups to explore the potential meaning of the findings, and can also use them to generate the questions that will naturally follow from the perspectives of organizational members. However, the greatest strength of the focus group may be its efficiency. A focus group can elicit a substantial amount of information on a particular topic relatively quickly. Moreover, its interactive nature allows for immediate input from several persons. Thus, a researcher can readily collect and evaluate data and modify hypotheses based on group interactions.

However, focus groups also have weaknesses. The exchange is limited to verbal descriptions and intra-group interactions. They do not allow the researcher to gain first-hand knowledge of the opinions, attitudes and behavior of participants in their real-world contexts. Moreover, the time available for any individual member to express his or her opinions or attitudes or to describe relevant behavior is relatively short. The quantitative approaches used alongside this method to obtain respondents' viewpoints go some way to ameliorate some of these shortcomings. Furthermore, increasing the number of focus groups is also a way of increasing the validity and reliability of the analysis (Yin, 1994).

3.1.2.1 Sampling

The selection of members for the different focus groups in this research was made according to two dimensions. In order to minimize identifiable forms of bias, participants were selected to be heterogeneous across all groups in terms of selected theoretically meaningful qualities such as age, sex, and socioeconomic status and industry type. The composition of each individual focus group was homogeneous in age and sex but was heterogeneous across groups (for example, older versus younger, male versus female). The minimization of this type of variability within groups often encourages discussion by increasing the likelihood that participants will have similar perceptions and experiences. The source of members was either the Human Resources Department of the organization or personal networking. The Human Resources Manager arranged for the focus groups to take place on their premises.

3.1.2.2 Pre-test

In order to ensure that the open-ended questions used in the interviews with supervisors and part-time respondents had clarity and precision, 5 pilot tests were carried out. These served three purposes. Firstly, they generated support for the research framework. Secondly, they tested whether the questions asked were directly related to the employment relationship, and finally, they enabled some early explanation of the results obtained from the questionnaires.

After the feedback on the surveys had been returned from the supervisors, a series of 24 focus groups was conducted with a representative sample of part-time employees (N = 73). The focus group protocol was designed to elucidate critical themes and issues identified by the survey of part-time employees. While no formal hypotheses were tested through the focus group methodology, the resulting data was used to further clarify key research questions, provide specific examples and context for understanding the turnover process, and triangulate findings from the interviews and surveys (Creswell, 1994).

Each focus group lasted for approximately 15 – 30 minutes with the data being recorded in the form of notes. Participants were informed at the outset of the purpose

of the study, the use of the outcomes, the researcher's contact information, their right to confidentiality, and the fact that the data would be reported in aggregate with comments made from other employees. The researcher later grouped comments in categories representing frequently mentioned themes, issues or ideas that emerged from the transcripts, and then duplicated the coding process to ensure consistency. The focus group data was then combined with the open-ended comments from the interviews with supervisors to complete the qualitative components of the investigation.

The questions discussed in the focus groups covered the working conditions of part-time employees in the service sectors in Hong Kong, as shown in Appendix 3(a) and Appendix 3(b). The key issue was to understand the different perceptions of part-time workers towards work and their employers. The exercise helped to generate support for the research framework and strengthen the arguments.

The groups opened with a series of general questions, including leading questions aimed at establishing their work status, reasons for doing part-time work, means of seeking part-time work, and factors influencing their relationship with their employers. They then moved on to focus on attitudes, such as the factors influencing their satisfaction level, fairness at work, extra-role behavior, intention to leave the organization and their response to situations where their employer had partially fulfilled or violated the perceived employment promises. The third part of the group discussions addressed behavior, such as reaction towards an unfair work situation and to violations of the employment promise. Part-time workers in the groups suggested things employers could do to increase their loyalty, increase their performance of extra-role and reduce their intention to leave. Finally, the compared referents of both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers were discussed. Respondents were asked who they chose as compared referents in assessing their equity situations and what criteria they used to do so.

As well as these group discussions, this research also used conversational interviews with supervisors. The format of the conversational interview allowed the respondents more freedom to answer due to the open-ended nature of the interaction. Respondents were asked a series of semi-structured questions. The conversational

interviews had the advantage of being straightforward, mechanically simple and compatible with the norms and values of the larger discipline of organizational science. Very often, qualitative research uses videotaping, audio taping, field notes and transcripts to record conversational interviews. However, the conversational interview has the disadvantage of being time-consuming and potentially difficult to reschedule (Punnett and Shenkar, 1996). The purpose of using semi-structured questions in these interviews was to understand more about managers' views on part-time work. The type of questions asked (see Appendix 4a and Appendix 4b) can be divided into follow-up, probing, specifying, and direct, indirect and interpretative questions.

In this research, participants for the interviews were selected with the approval of the head of the Human Resources Department of the company and contacted through a letter of invitation. The interviews were conducted face-to-face in the office of the Human Resources Manager. However, most Human Resources Managers, on the basis of company privacy ordinances, refused permission for the whole interview to be tape-recorded.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 47 managers representing different organizational levels in four service industries in Hong Kong (retail, hotel, food and telecommunications). At the outset, the researcher explained the purpose of the project, the use of the results, the length of the interviews and the assurances of confidentiality. The interviews lasted between 15 – 30 minutes and were designed to assess critical concerns and perceptions towards part-time work from the management perspective. Results and feedback obtained from the transcripts were grouped into major issues and concerns, specifically those affecting the ability of the managers to manage the part-time service workers and to retain qualified part-time workers. The interview protocol can be found in Appendix 4.

The questions were divided into four categories. The first sought general information, such as proportion of part-time workers employed, the usual ways of recruiting part-time workers, and so on. The second category focused on internal human resources policies for part-time workers. For instance, respondents were asked what Human Resources Managers usually did to a) increase motivation; b) increase the sense of belonging to the company; c) retain competent and qualified part-time

workers, and d) resolve conflicts between full-time and part-time employees. The third category followed on to consider external Human Resources policies such as whether the company had compared the salary and benefits they offered to part-time workers with those of other firms in the same service industries. The final category asked about the compared referents of the part-time workers and what criteria the employers thought would influence their choices when assessing equity situations.

3.2 Secondary Data

Secondary data refers to information, such as the background and details of a company, which can be obtained from published records. In this research, written information such as company policies was obtained from annual reports. Furthermore, hard-copy data from the Labor Department, Statistics Department, Labor Bureau, Labor Unions, microfilms and newspapers cuttings were used. This material, together with soft-copy information from the Trade Development Council and Web pages were also used to search for target organizations.

3.3 Analytical Strategy and Procedures

This section discusses the statistical tools and procedures used to analyze the surveys, the process of analyzing the qualitative information, and the means of combining the two sources.

3.3.1 Quantitative tools and procedures

In this research, a range of statistical techniques such as frequency statistics, factor analysis, reliability analysis, correlation and regressions were used.

First stage – Recoding of negative items

After data collection, it was firstly necessary to recode negatively worded scale items into positively worded scale items. Items used to measure organizational citizenship behavior, such as “I am willing to use illicit tactics to seek personal influence and gain with harmful effect on interpersonal harmony in the organization”

were recoded. Recoded items were changed from old values (1, 2, 4 and 5) to new (5, 4, 2, and 1).

Second stage – Factor analysis

Firstly, factor analysis was used to determine whether or not the measures of the perception of psychological contract violation, the fairness perception, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to leave were empirically distinct from each other and conceptually validated in the Asian sample as for the Western sample (Blau, 1985). A principal component analysis was performed with each key variable (7 item scale of employee expectation of psychological contract obligation by the employer, 7 item scale of fulfillment of psychological contract by the employer, 7 item scale of fairness perception, 15 item scale of organizational commitment, 20 item scale of organizational citizenship behavior and 5 item scale of intention to leave the organization). It was helpful to load the factors on different measures. Variables with a loading of less than 0.3 or greater in the Rotated Factor Matrix were deleted. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also expected to be significant and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy to be far greater than 0.6. After the above three criteria had been met, the variables were then suitable for factoring (Coakes and Steed, 1999).

Third stage – Reliability analysis

The next stage was the reliability analysis. The main purpose of this was to test the reliability of the various factors. The lowest corrected item-total correlation was deleted until the overall reliability increased. The deletion of items was stopped when the Cronbach alpha was greater than 0.7 (Coakes and Steed, 1999) such that the deletion of items was appropriate.

With both the factor analysis and reliability analysis done, it was then necessary to transform the average value of each variable. After running the Rotated Factor Matrix, the number of factors was denoted. Taking the example of organizational commitment (15 items), there were 5 (a, b, c, d and e) extracted factors, each with 3 items underneath. In order to compute the average value for organizational commitment,

each item under the same factor was summed and then divided by the number of items in that factor. Thus all the average values of the 5 factors of organizational commitment were derived. To cite another example, in order to calculate the perception of psychological contract violation (7 item), fulfillment of employer obligation of each item was subtracted from the expectation of obligation. The summation of these 7 items formed the average value of the perception of psychological contract violation. Such average values of the key variables were useful in testing the hypotheses via correlation and regression analysis.

Fourth stage – Partial Correlations

The next analysis involved correlation. Correlation is a particular method of collecting and analyzing data aimed at the discovery of relationships between or among variables and, depending on the data analysis procedures used, the causes for the pattern of behavior. The method can be either relational or predicated. Relational correlation explores the relationships between and among variables whilst predicate correlation predicts scores on one or more other variables. In the latter, the variables used for prediction must be measured prior to the measurement of the variables to be predicted (Martella, Nelson, and Martella, 1999).

Partial correlations were used to test hypotheses 1 and 2. Partial correlation is a type of Pearson correlation coefficient, which attempts to estimate the correlation between two variables, given that all cases have exactly the same scores on the control variables. That is, the values of the control variables (sex, marital status, educational level, tenure and industry type) are held constant. The major purpose of this exercise was to eliminate the influence of demographic and background information (Scandura, 1997; Brockner and Adsit, 1986; Robbins, 1993).

The significance test for a partial correlation evaluates whether or not the partial correlation is equal to zero in the population. A partial correlation can range in value from -1 to $+1$. If it is positive, one can conclude that as one variable increases in value, the second variable also tends to increase. If a partial correlation is zero, it means that as one variable increases, the second variable tends to remain the same. Finally, if a partial correlation is negative, as one variable increases, the second variable tends to

decrease (Green, Salkino, and Akey, 2000). In all three cases, the control variables are held constant.

In this research, the correlation between the perception of psychological contract violation, fairness perceptions, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and intention to leave the organization were analyzed using a one-tailed test. If the p value was less than 0.05, the result was considered significant (Green, Salkino, and Akey, 2000). Thus, the magnitude of change between the two variables could be explored.

Fifth stage: Linear Regression – split-group approach

The final statistical analysis performed was linear regression, which is a method of analyzing the variability of a dependent variable by re-sorting the information available on an independent variable. The aim is to study the expected change in the dependent variable because of changes (observed or induced) in the independent variable (Pedhazur, 1997). In this research, moderated split-group regression was used to test Hypotheses 3 and 4 by examining the relationships between a series of independent variables. The regression formula and coefficient table revealed the slope and coefficient relationship between the predictors and the dependent variables.

The technique tested how well the independent variables predicted the dependent variables. Six correctional indices were reported in the output for the linear regression procedure; Beta coefficient, standard error, R square value (R^2), adjusted R squared value (R^2), F value and degree of freedom.

To test hypotheses 3 and 4, split-group analysis was used to test significance. It could be the case that work status moderates the relationship between, for example, fairness perception and intention to leave the organization, under both voluntary and involuntary work schedules. However, even if two groups were significant, it may not be logical to conclude that the involuntary part-time workers were much stronger than voluntary. The split group analysis offered a way to test this proposal. The selection of voluntary and involuntary work schedules could be done separately. Then, a set of predictors (sex, marital status, educational level, tenure, industry type, perception of

psychological contract violation, and fairness perception) were used to regress each of the dependent variables (a) organizational commitment; (b) organizational citizenship behavior and (c) intention to leave the organization. From the coefficient table, the significance level could be noted (significance level is less than 0.05).

However, it was still possible that work status could, overall, moderate the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, but just not in the case of the voluntary and involuntary groups. So, it was crucial to test the standardized Beta value between the two groups (voluntary and involuntary) in order to determine whether they were genuinely statistically significant. This was tested by using the formula suggested by Arnold (1982): -

$$T = B_{21} - B_{11} / SE B_{21} - B_{11}$$

where

T - T-value

B₂₁ - Beta value of the involuntary part-time workers

B₁₁ - Beta value of the voluntary part-time workers

SE B₂₁ - Standard error of involuntary part-time workers

SE B₁₁ - Standard error of the voluntary part-time workers

Hypotheses 3 and 4 were tested using the t-test, such that the value had to be greater than 1.69 with $p < .05$ in order to be significant. This would enable a conclusion to be drawn about which work status group had the stronger effect.

3.3.2 Qualitative tools and procedures

The open-ended comments and focus group data were analyzed and presented together to further clarify the key research issues. It was decided to present these two data sources such that themes, which emerged from both, were grouped together. For the open-ended comments, categories were created for key themes and content areas. Each comment was classified according to this coding scheme. The focus group data were analyzed according to the procedures outlined by Krueger (1988).

Krueger (1988) described three steps in the analysis of focus group data: (1) raw

data; (2) descriptive statements; and (3) interpretations. The raw data constitutes the exact comments made by focus group participants during the sessions. Descriptive statements represents the summary of comments made by participants. Finally, interpretation provides the meaning of the data. In the current study, notes were made in each focus group session because tape-recording was not permitted. In addition, detailed summary notes were made immediately following the completion of each session. In order to analyze the data, these summary notes were read several times and areas identified which related to specific issues and trends. Next, the notes were reviewed repeatedly, focusing on one issue at a time and paying maximum attention to identifying themes and patterns across groups. Based on these analysis, comments were grouped according to categories. Frequencies were not calculated in the qualitative analyses because Krueger (1988) counseled against the use of frequency data with respect to qualitative analysis, asserting that “..numbers convey the impression that results can be projected to a population, and this is not within the capabilities of qualitative research procedures” (Krueger, 1988: 119).

Thus issues were identified based on four or more comments made in the focus groups on a common theme. The themes which emerged were grouped into four areas; (1) ways of seeking part-time work; (2) reasons for doing part-time work; (3) problems encountered in part-time work – pay, workloads, promotion chances, job security, working conditions, shift hours; and (4) the compared referents of part-time workers.

In the supervisory interviews, issues were similarly identified and categorized into themes. Five main themes were identified: (1) ways to recruit part-time workers; (2) trends in part-time employment; (3) reasons for part-time employment; (4) types and characteristics of part-time workers; and (5) problems encountered in part-time employment – turnover rates and absence rates, communication and coordination. Each of these issues is discussed more fully in Chapter 5.

3.3.3 Combining quantitative and qualitative results

The previous sections have dealt separately with the qualitative and quantitative method used in this study. However, many researchers are now using the combination method (linking qualitative with quantitative methods) to investigate particular issues

or research questions.

3.3.3.1 Reasons for linking qualitative and quantitative results

As discussed earlier, quantitative methods offer the advantage of enabling direct attention to variables of interest, reducing distractions, permitting fine discriminations, and facilitating the concise analysis and management of data (Howe, 1985, 1988). Mathematical models can be used to test the fit between model and problem (House, 1977; Trochim, 1996; Cordray, 1986). On the other hand, qualitative studies focus on the intention, explanations and judgments of participants (Howe, 1985). Giddens (1984) has suggested that qualitative research methods can help to elucidate the frames of meaning across themes and investigate the context of action. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods have their own advantages. A combination of the two has been described by Mouly (1970) as “the essence of the modern scientific method.”

This study adopts such a combined approach. The design which was used represented the highest degree of paradigm combination of the three possible designs, including the two-phase and dominant-less dominant approaches. It mixed aspects of the qualitative and quantitative paradigm throughout the many methodological steps in the design: in the introduction, in the literature review and theory used, in the statement of purpose and the research questions.

This approach added complexity to the research design and maximized the advantages of both paradigms. The researcher could switch back and forth, progressively clarifying the findings of one approach by using the other. This helped to ensure that the scope and focus of the issues were anchored more precisely. It also enabled the discrepancy between different methods to be justified, increasing reliability by explaining differences in the results obtained from each method. Adopting this combination approach can help to triangulate or converge findings and elaborate on the results by using one method to inform another, discover paradoxes or contradictions, and extend the breadth of the inequity (Greene, Caracelil, and Graham, 1989). Qualitative work can provide additional data on those research objectives which have not been tested quantitatively, thus helping to develop more specific hypotheses and generate new theories from the results.

3.3.3.2 Design issues in the combination method

In this research, the triangulation method was used. The triangulation method was identified by Deniz (1978), who defined it as the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon. The concept of triangulation is based on the assumption that inherent bias may be present in particular data sources, investigators, and/or methods, which can be neutralized when these are used in conjunction with others (Jick, 1979). A combined method study requires the researcher to work “within method” (different types of data collection strategies within a paradigm) or “between methods” (drawing on both qualitative and quantitative procedures).

In order to increase the validity and reliability of the research design, “between methods triangulation” is the more appropriate strategy. Qualitative methods were used (i.e. the part-time workers discussion groups) to generate ideas which would support the validity of the research framework. Then, quantitative methods (questionnaires) were used to provide support for the significance of the results. Finally, qualitative methods were used again in order to probe the underlying causes of the situations or phenomena thus uncovered. This approach helped to crosscheck the data and increase the reliability of the results.

3.3.3.3 Integration of data in the combination method

The principle of data integration is to follow up similar themes in different data sets as a way of linking them (Reichardt and Raillis, 1994). The results of a qualitative enquiry can be categorized in discrete packages. Integration can be achieved by interrogating each data set in terms that will create a relationship between them but does not directly focus on a particular theme. This can generate “propositions” which can be tested out against the data. In other words, integration refers to the process of generating a concept to underpin the issues. This might lie behind a number of themes to be used in the study. Another method is to address a particular topic (rather than a conceptual theme) from a variety of angles developed from an extensive set of compositions and questions, all of which are directly related to the topic under study.

To conclude, using the “combination methodology approach” enabled different forms of data to be presented side by side and the relationships between them to be explored. The key questions were then to decide which question each data set or type of data was best placed to address, and what mix of data was appropriate to particular issues raised in the study.

3.3.3.4 Ways to enhance the reliability and validity of the combination approach

In order to examine the relationships between job-related attitudes and behavior, respondents were asked to select a numerical score to represent their perceptions of the key variables. In the focus groups, participants were asked to describe and explain experiences that related to attitudes and behavior at work, disregarding work status. To cite an example, someone may have responded by saying that he was receiving low pay from his employer and that he thought this was unfair treatment. As a result, the respondent would then be asked “what is your reaction if you think your employer has not paid you well?” If he then replied, “I will leave this organization and find another better paid part-time job,” it can be concluded that there was a strong relationship between fairness perception and intention to leave for that person. In the interviews with supervisors, managers were asked “what factors would influence organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and intention to leave?”. They were also asked about how they thought the part-time workers would respond to their violations of the employment promises and unfair situations. The purpose of this line of enquiry was to reveal the relationships between the attitudes and work behavior of part-time workers from the perspectives of managers.

As outlined above, moderated split-group regression was used to explore whether or not work status had a moderating effect on the relationship between job-related attitudes and work behavior for part-time workers. Then the t-value was tested to find out whether the conclusion that one type of work status had a greater influence than the other was statistically significant. In the focus groups, the part-time workers were asked whether or not they had chosen to work part-time and the reasons behind their decisions, in order to determine their work status. Then the number of respondents whose answers categorized them as having “high intention to leave if they thought their employers had not treated them fairly in terms of pay” could be counted up for

both groups. If such relationships existed more for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers, it would be logical to suggest that work status could moderate the relationship between fairness perception and intention to leave and also that such a negative relationship had a much stronger effect on involuntary than voluntary part-time workers.

In the interviews, managers were asked to summarize the types of part-time workers they had employed, then which type of part-time workers they thought would perform better and be more qualified. Further questions about interactions between attitudes and working behavior would be asked depending on the types of part-time workers the manager employed. The purpose of this was to explore which type of part-time workers the managers thought had the stronger interactions.

In addressing the differences in compared referents between people with different work status, once status had been established, the respondents were asked which referents they would choose to compare themselves with given a range of choices. Then they were asked what criteria, such as salary and benefits, they would employ. Thus respondents were required to provide reasons for why they chose their compared referents. In the focus groups, part-time workers were again asked who they would choose and what criteria they would use, with options suggested by the researcher. In the interviews, employers were asked whom they thought the part-time workers in their organizations would usually compare themselves with, and why these referents would be chosen.

Presenting the viewpoints of the part-time workers participating in the study to the supervisors could enhance reliability and validity. By so doing, the supervisors could have the opportunity to express their views on the same issues. If the viewpoints provided by both part-time workers and supervisors were consistent, the validity and reliability of the results would be considered increased. On the contrary, if there were different perspectives between part-time workers and supervisors on the same issue, follow up questions would have to be asked to double-check the responses. This could be done by presenting the viewpoints of the part-time workers to the supervisors and vice versa, in order to countercheck the results and understand the reasons behind the differences in results. Furthermore, the underlying reasons for the discrepancies in

findings on the same issues would be presented.

To conclude, this chapter has addressed the methodology used to test the hypotheses and the research framework. Chapter 4 will now present the results of the quantitative data analysis.

Chapter 4 Quantitative Data Analysis and Presentation of Results

The major purpose of this chapter is to present the viewpoints of the part-time respondents gathered by quantitative methods. Part-time employees' perceptions of employers can be aggregated to form job-related attitudes, which can in turn be linked to behavior. The perceptions of part-time workers about job-related attitudes, behavior, and compared referents, which will help to enhance our understanding of the relevant issues, were numerically coded for analysis.

4.1 Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Respondents were grouped into the following categories: industry, age, sex, average working tenure (in months), educational level, primary income earner in their household, average hourly pay, marital status, and work status. Table 4.1 summarizes the information gathered.

Table 4.1 Demographic characteristics of part-time respondents

| Age | Frequency | % | Working tenure (months) | Frequency | % |
|-----------------|------------------|----------|------------------------------------|------------------|----------|
| Less than 20 | 11 | 5.5 | <7 | 96 | 46.5 |
| 21 – 25 | 38 | 19 | 7 – 12 | 71 | 35.5 |
| 26 – 30 | 38 | 19 | 13 – 18 | 21 | 10.5 |
| 31 – 35 | 91 | 45.5 | >18 | 15 | 7.5 |
| 36 – 40 | 13 | 6.5 | | | |
| Above 40 | 9 | 4.5 | | | |
| Total | 200 | 100 | Total | 200 | 100 |
| Sex | Frequency | % | Educational Level | Frequency | % |
| Male | 76 | 38 | Primary | 17 | 8.5 |
| Female | 124 | 62 | Secondary | 133 | 66.5 |
| | | | Tertiary | 50 | 25 |
| Total | 200 | 100 | Total | 200 | 100 |
| Industry | Frequency | % | Primary income earner | Frequency | % |

| | | | | | |
|-------------------------|------------------|----------|--------------------------|------------------|----------|
| Retail | 68 | 34 | Yes | 96 | 48 |
| Hotel | 16 | 8 | No | 104 | 52 |
| Telecommunications | 51 | 25.5 | | | |
| Food | 65 | 32.5 | | | |
| Total | 200 | 100 | Total | 200 | 100 |
| Marital status | Frequency | % | Hourly Pay (HK\$) | Frequency | % |
| Married | 71 | 35.5 | <\$20 | 65 | 32.5 |
| Unmarried | 129 | 64.5 | \$20 – \$30 | 45 | 22.5 |
| | | | \$31 – \$40 | 70 | 35 |
| | | | \$41 – \$50 | 11 | 5.5 |
| | | | \$51 – \$60 | 4 | 2 |
| | | | >\$60 | 5 | 2.5 |
| Total: | 200 | 100 | Total | 200 | 100 |
| Work Status type | Frequency | % | | | |
| Voluntary | 114 | 57 | | | |
| Involuntary | 86 | 43 | | | |
| Total | 200 | 100 | | | |

It can be seen that 68 respondents were drawn from the retail industry (34%), 16 from hotels (8%), 51 respondents from telecommunications (25.5%) and 65 respondents from the food industries (32.5%). Of the 200 part-time respondents, 86 were involuntarily part-time (43%) and 114 worked part-time voluntarily (57%).

Nearly half of the part-time respondents were younger than 20 (45.5%), with the same number aged both between 21 – 25 (19%) and 26 – 30 (19%). Similar numbers of part-time respondents were found in the age categories 31 – 35 (5.5%) and 36 – 40 (6.5%). Over half were female (62%) meaning that more than one third were male (38%). The predominant working tenure was less than seven months (46.5%). More than a quarter of the respondents had worked part-time for seven to twelve months (35.5%) with 10.5% working for thirteen to eighteen months (10.5%) and 7.5% for less than eighteen months. More than half of the respondents had a secondary level education (66.5%). Nearly one quarter had been tertiary educated (25%) and the rest (8.5%) primary. Over half of the respondents were the primary income earners (52%)

and nearly half secondary income earners (48%). Over half were unmarried (64.5%), meaning only (35.5%) were married. Most of the part-time workers earned less than HK\$20 per hour and one fifth of them earned around HK\$20 – HK\$30 per hour. Only 2.5% of respondents earned more than HK\$60 hourly.

4.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

This section sets out the confirmatory factor analysis in two parts: firstly organizational commitment and then organizational citizenship behavior.

4.2.1 Overall confirmatory factor analysis of organizational commitment

The results of the overall confirmatory factor analysis of organizational commitment are summarize in Appendix 5. The major purpose of this exercise was to ensure that all the items in the Western concept of organizational commitment were applicable to Hong Kong. This confirmatory model offered evidence for the convergent and discriminate validity of the fifteen latent variables in this study and also assessed whether or not the full model fit the data as measured.

The results showed that all the indicators had significant loading on their hypothesized latent variables except for one item, which had a negative factor loading (-.38). The item in question was “I accept almost any type of job assignments in order to keep working for my working organization.” This may be explained by the fact that part-time workers in Hong Kong are very realistic. They are not prepared to do any job assignment simply for the sake of working in their organization. Their choices are based on the amount of salary they are offered and if another company offers a higher salary, they may choose to leave. Organizational commitment can be divided into four factors. The first factor is *value of the organization*, which describes the value that the part-time workers accord to their organization; the second is *attachment to the organization*, which concerns the strength of the relationship with the company. The third factor is *loyalty toward the organization* and the final one *identification with the organization*, which denotes the strong concern of the part-time workers towards their employer. These four factors comprise the general concept of organizational commitment.

4.2.2 Overall confirmatory factor analysis of organizational citizenship behavior

The results of the overall confirmatory factor analysis of organizational citizenship behavior can be found in Appendix 6. All the indicators had significant loading on the hypothesized latent variables except for one item, “I am willing to actively attend company meetings.” This was removed from the factor loading because it is not usual for part-time workers in Hong Kong to attend company meetings. Usually, they are not included at such occasions and instead make suggestions and complaints to their supervisors informally. The results of the factor loading can be divided into three. The first factor is *interpersonal harmony*, which concerns negative discretionary behavior from part-time workers in order to harm company policies and waste company resources. The second is *conscientiousness towards the organization*, which refers to positive, self-motivated actions performed by part-time workers to protect the organization and improve its efficiency. The final factor is *altruism towards colleagues*, which describes self-motivated actions performed to help colleagues with their work or help new staff to settle in. These three factors compose the general concept of organizational citizenship behavior.

4.3 Means, standard deviations and correlations among variables

The means, standard deviations and correlations for the variables (perceptions of psychological contract violation, fairness perceptions, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to leave) are summarized in Appendix 7. As this demonstrates, many of the predicted relationships were supported by the data. Specifically, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior were significantly and negatively correlated to the perception of psychological contract violation, as shown by the zero-order correlations ($r = -.19, p < 0.01$ and $r = -.25, p < 0.01$). Intention to leave the organization was significantly and positively correlated to the perception of psychological contract violation ($r = .74, p < 0.00$).

In addition, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior were significantly and positively correlated to the fairness perception ($r = .34, p < 0.01$

and $r = .36, p < 0.01$). Intention to leave was significantly and negatively correlated to the fairness perception ($r = -.31, p < 0.01$).

4.4 Hypothesis testing

In order to test the five hypotheses posited earlier (see Appendix 5), two main data analysis techniques were employed. Firstly, in order to test the main effects of the attitudinal variables on the behavioral outcomes (hypotheses 1 and 2), multiple regressions were used (Frees, 1996). Secondly, to assess the impact of the proposed moderator, work status, on the various relationships between behavioral variables (hypotheses 3 and 4), split-group regression was used (Arnold, 1982). Unless otherwise noted, an alpha level of 0.01 was used for all statistical tests.

Hypothesis 1a

Hypothesis 1a suggested that the perception of psychological contract violation would be negatively related to organizational commitment. If true, this would mean that those individuals who perceived their employers to have violated their employment promises would be less committed to the organization. This hypothesis was supported by the multiple regressions carried out on organizational commitment (see Appendix 8). A closer examination of the beta coefficient indicated that part-time respondents who perceived their employment promises to have been violated by their employers had significantly lower organizational commitment and, in specific terms, were less loyal to their employers ($\beta = -.30, p < 0.001$). This hypothesis was also supported by the significant correlation between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational commitment ($r = -.19, p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 1b

Hypothesis 1b proposed that the perception of psychological contract violation would be negatively related to the organizational citizenship behavior of part-time employees. In other words, those individuals who believed that their employers have violated their employment promises would be more likely to reduce or withhold extra-role behavior. This hypothesis was, again, supported by the multiple regression

analysis ($\beta = -.21, p < 0.05$) presented in Appendix 9, and further by the significant correlation between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior ($r = -.25, p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 1c

Hypothesis 1c stated that the perception of psychological contract violation would be positively related to intention to leave. Essentially, those who felt the employment promise had been broken by the employer would be more likely to be thinking about leaving. Again, this hypothesis was supported by the multiple regression analysis ($\beta = .13, p < 0.05$) in Appendix 10 and by the significant correlation between the perception of psychological contract violation and intention to leave ($r = .74, p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 2a

Hypothesis 2a proposed that the fairness perception would be positively related to the organizational commitment of the part-time employees – those who felt their employers had treated them fairly would be more committed to the firm. This hypothesis was supported by the multiple regressions on organizational commitment ($\beta = .22, p < 0.001$) presented in Appendix 8. Again, a significant correlation between the fairness perception and organizational commitment ($r = .34, p < 0.01$) was obtained, giving the hypothesis further support.

Hypothesis 2b

Hypothesis 2b proposed that the fairness perception would be positively related to organizational citizenship behavior, with people who believed they were being treated fairly being more likely to perform extra-role behavior. Again, support for this hypothesis was obtained from the multiple regressions ($\beta = .33, p < 0.001$) - see Appendix 9 – and by the correlation analysis ($r = .36, p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 2c

Hypothesis 2c proposed that the fairness perception would be negatively related to the intention to leave of part-time employees: people who believed they were being fairly treated would have thought less about leaving. This hypothesis was supported by the multiple regressions ($\beta = -.29, p < 0.001$) shown in Appendix 10 and also by the correlation between the fairness perception and intention to leave ($r = .31, p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 3a

Hypothesis 3a was tested using split-group regression in order to assess whether work status altered the relationship between perceptions of psychological contract violation and organizational commitment. To propose this moderating effect was to assert that there would be a significant negative interaction between perception of psychological contract violation and work status, such that the negative relationship was much stronger on involuntary than on voluntary part-time employees.

Appendix 11 shows that work status moderated this relationship for voluntary employees only. However, the t-value shown was not statistically significant, thus giving only partial support to hypothesis 3a.

Hypothesis 3b

Hypothesis 3b was tested in the same way as 3a, linking the perception of psychological contract violation to organizational citizenship behavior. The analysis is presented in Appendix 12, showing that work status did have a moderating effect for both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers. The t-value (-30) was highly statistically significant, indicating that the relationship was much stronger for voluntary than involuntary part-time workers. Thus, hypothesis 3b was not supported.

Hypothesis 3c

Similarly, hypothesis 3c, linking the psychological contract to intention to leave, was tested using split-group regression. Hypothesis 3c suggested that work status

would have a moderating effect only for voluntary part-time workers. The analysis, reported in Appendix 13, showed partial support for hypothesis 3c in that work status was found to moderate the relationship between perception of psychological contract violation and intention to leave for voluntary, but not involuntary, part-time workers.

Hypothesis 4a

Hypothesis 4a concerned the effect of work status on the relationships between fairness perceptions. The results, summarized in Appendix 11, showed that work status strongly moderated the relationship between fairness perception and organizational commitment for both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers. The highly significant t-value (6.33) strongly supported the assertion that the effect would be much stronger for involuntary part-time workers. From Appendix 11, it can be seen that work status was also a very good moderator of the relationship between fairness perception and organizational commitment for both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers. Thus, strong support was found for Hypothesis 4a.

Hypothesis 4b

Hypothesis 4b was tested to assess whether work status altered the relationships between fairness perception and organizational citizenship behavior. The hypothesis suggested that there would be a significant positive interaction between the fairness perception and work status, with the relationship much stronger for involuntary than voluntary part-time employees.

The results of this analysis can be found in Appendix 12, which shows that work status did indeed strongly moderate the relationship between fairness perception and organizational citizenship behavior for both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers. The t-value (9) was highly statistically significant, meaning that the relationship was much stronger for involuntary than on voluntary part-time workers, and giving strong support to Hypothesis 4b.

Hypothesis 4c

Hypothesis 4c was tested in the same way to assess whether or not work status altered the relationships between fairness perception and intention to leave. Appendix 13 shows that work status did moderate the negative relationship between fairness perception and intention to leave for both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers. The statistically significant t-value (-16) suggested that the negative relationship was much stronger for voluntary than involuntary part-time workers. Thus, general support was not obtained for this hypothesis.

4.5 Other research findings

The other research findings served three purposes. They showed the split group regression of independent variables (perception of psychological contract violation and fairness perception) on each factor loading of firstly organizational commitment, and secondly, organizational citizenship behavior. Finally, they enabled us to examine the differences in compared referents between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers, together with their reasons for making the choice. Such information is very useful in analyzing why, and on the basis of what criteria, the part-time workers chose compared referents to assess their equity situations.

4.5.1 Split group regression on individual factor loading for organizational commitment

This section is divided into four subsections, each dealing with the independent variables regressed on the relationship between work status and the individual components of organizational commitment.

4.5.1.1 Influence of work status on values about the organization

Appendix 14 shows that work status did moderate the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and values about the organization, for both voluntary and involuntary part-time employees. The t-value (-5.1) was highly significant, indicating that the relationship was much stronger for voluntary workers.

This means that work status only had a moderating effect on the relationship between fairness perception and values about the organization for involuntary part-time workers.

4.5.1.2 Influence of work status on attachment to the organization

From the data in Appendix 15, it can be seen that work status was found to moderate the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and attachment to the organization, but only for voluntary part-time workers. The results also showed that work status did not have a moderating influence on the relationship between fairness perception and attachment to the organization for either part-time employee's groups.

4.5.1.3 Influence of work status on loyalty towards the organization

These analysis are presented in Appendix 16. The data showed that work status had no effect for either group of employees in this area.

4.5.1.4 Influence of work status on identification of the organization

Work status moderated the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and identification with the organization for voluntary workers only, as the results in Appendix 17 show. The results also indicated that work status moderated the relationship between fairness perception and identification with the organization for both types of employee, with a highly significant t-value (22). Thus the positive relationship was much stronger for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers.

4.5.2 Split-group regression on the individual factor loading for elements of organizational citizenship behavior

This section is divided into three subsections; each dealing with the independent variables regressed on the individual components of organizational citizenship behavior.

4.5.2.1 Influence of work status on interpersonal harmony

The results summarized in Appendix 18 show that work status had no moderating influence on any of the relationships between interpersonal harmony, the perception of psychological contract violation, and the fairness perception.

4.5.2.2 Influence of work status on conscientiousness towards the organization

From Appendix 19, it can be seen that work status did have a moderating influence on the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and conscientiousness towards the organization, for both voluntary and involuntary part-time employees. The t-value (-4) was statistically significant, meaning that the relationship was much stronger for voluntary workers.

The results also showed that work status moderated the relationship between the fairness perception and conscientiousness towards the organization. Again, the t-value (106) was highly significant, meaning that the positive relationship was much stronger for involuntary part-time workers.

4.5.2.3 Influence of work status on altruism towards colleagues

These analysis are presented in Appendix 20. Again, work status had an influence on the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and altruism towards colleagues. This applied to involuntary but not voluntary part-time workers. The effect also held for the relationship between the fairness perception and altruism towards colleagues, this time for both types. The t-value (-3.50) was strongly statistically significant, indicating that the relationship was much stronger for voluntary part-time workers.

4.5.3 The compared referents of the part-time workers

Three subsections make up this section, discussing the compared referents of firstly the voluntary and then the involuntary part-time workers and closing with a review of the reasons offered by the part-time workers for their choices.

4.5.3.1 The compared referents of voluntary part-time workers

Table 4.5.3.1 summarizes the compared referents chosen by the voluntary part-time workers, showing that they tended to select both part-time workers working inside the same organization (31.3%), and part-time workers working in other organizations (45.8%), as their compared referents.

Table 4.5.3.1. The compared referents of voluntary part-time workers

| | Frequency | % |
|-----------------------------|------------------|----------|
| Internal full-time workers | 12 | 7.2 |
| Internal part-time workers | 52 | 31.3 |
| External full-time workers | 11 | 6.6 |
| External part-time workers | 76 | 45.8 |
| Previous working experience | 15 | 9.1 |
| Total | 166 | 100 |

4.5.3.2 The compared referents of involuntary part-time workers

The selections made by the involuntary part-time workers participating in the study are shown in Table 4.5.3.2. In contrast, involuntary part-time workers tended to refer to full-time workers working in other organizations (34.6%), and their own previous working experiences (31.6%), for comparison purposes.

Table 4.5.3.2 The compared referents of the involuntary part-time workers

| | Frequency | % |
|-------------------------------|------------------|----------|
| Internal full-time workers | 6 | 4.5 |
| Internal part-time workers | 16 | 12 |
| External full-time workers | 46 | 34.6 |
| External part-time workers | 23 | 17.3 |
| Self-past working experiences | 42 | 31.6 |
| Total | 133 | 100 |

4.5.3.3 Reasons for choosing compared referents

The reasons indicated for choosing the compared referents are shown in Table 4.5.3.3. It can be seen that respondents tended to focus more on salary (29%) and benefits (30%), followed by workloads (17%), and lastly rank (13.5%).

Table 4.5.3.3 Reasons for choosing the compared referents

| | Frequency | % |
|-----------|------------------|----------|
| Salary | 58 | 29 |
| Benefit | 60 | 30 |
| Rank | 27 | 13.5 |
| Workloads | 34 | 17 |
| Others | 21 | 10.5 |
| Total | 200 | 100 |

To conclude, work status had a moderating effect on the relationship between the fairness perception and organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to leave the organization. It also had a moderating effect on the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior, but not intention to leave or organizational commitment (in the case of involuntary part-time workers).

When the independent variable (perception of psychological contract violation) was regressed on the different factor loading of organizational commitment, the following results were obtained. Work status had a moderating influence on the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and values about the organization, the effect being much stronger for voluntary part-time workers. Work status also had a moderating influence on the relationship between the fairness perception and identification with the organization, this time stronger for the involuntary group. Work status also moderated the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and both attachment to, and identification with, the organization, but only for voluntary part-time workers. Furthermore, it moderated the positive relationship between the fairness perception and value about the organization

for involuntary part-time workers. Finally, work status had no moderating influence on the relationships between fairness perception and attachment to the organization, perception of psychological contract violation and loyalty, and fairness perception and loyalty. This was true for both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers.

When the independent variable (perception of psychological contract violation) was regressed on the different factor loading of organizational citizenship behavior, the following results were obtained. Work status had a moderating influence on the relationship between perception of psychological contract violation and conscientiousness, with the effect being much stronger for voluntary part-time workers. The link between fairness perception and conscientiousness was also affected by work status, but in this case the effect was much stronger for involuntary workers. Additionally, work status exercised a moderating influence on the relationship between the fairness perception and altruism towards colleagues (stronger for voluntary workers) and on the negative relationship between perception of psychological contract violation and altruism towards colleagues (involuntary workers only). Finally, work status had no effect on the relationships between perception of psychological contract violation or fairness perception and interpersonal harmony. This was the case for both groups.

In terms of choosing referent selections, voluntary part-time workers tended to compare themselves with other part-time workers working inside and outside the organization, whereas involuntary staff focused on full-time workers from outside organizations and their own past working experiences. The comparisons tended to focus on salary and benefits. Furthermore, part-time workers used proximity, convenience and availability of information to select their compared referents.

The next chapter will present the qualitative results derived from both the focus groups and supervisor interviews. The purpose of this is to supplement the shortcomings of the quantitative data and also to probe the underlying reasons for the perceptions and views described in this chapter.

Chapter 5 Qualitative Data Analysis

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to set out the information obtained from the focus groups and interviews, to support the quantitative research findings and explore the differences in results between the workers and managers. This will help to explain the underlying reasons for the part-time workers' survey responses. Thus, it can increase the validity and reliability of the quantitative results.

This chapter is divided into three parts. The first part reviews the demographic and industry characteristics of participants in this phase of the research, before covering the perspectives of part-time workers and employers in turn. Finally, the combination of the two datasets is discussed.

5.2 General background of the service firms

Among the 15 firms which participated in this phase of the research, 73 part-time workers and 47 supervisors contributed to the data gathering. Of the 73, 24 came from the retail industry, 19 from the food industry, 19 from the hotel industry, and 11 from telecommunications. 28 of the group were voluntary part-time workers and 45 involuntary (based on self-report). Among the 47 supervisors interviewed, 12 came from the retail industry (25.5%), 9 from the food industry (19.1%), 17 from the hotel industry (36.2%), and 9 from telecommunications (19.2%). The composition of the sample in terms of the four service industries is presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 The general background of the four service industries studied

| Type of industries | Retail | Food | Hotel | Telecommunications | Total |
|--------------------------------|--------|------|-------|--------------------|-------|
| No. of firms | 6 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 15 |
| No. of part-time respondents | 24 | 19 | 19 | 11 | 73 |
| No. of supervisors respondents | 12 | 9 | 17 | 9 | 47 |
| Total no. of respondents | 42 | 31 | 39 | 23 | 135 |

5.2.1 Telecommunications Industry

Three large telecommunications companies participated in this study. Firms in this industry sector tend to be reliant on a large number of staff to promote their company and build up customer brand loyalty. Part-time workers in such firms are therefore required to familiarize themselves with trends, brands, product knowledge, and pricing strategies in the telecommunications market. They work in shifts in densely populated areas and receive around HK\$50 or more per hour as basic salary plus incentivised commission.

11 respondents worked for these companies. The majority of them were male (7 out of 11 – 64%), unmarried (6 out of 11 – 55%), secondary income earners (7 out of 11 – 64%) and secondary educated (8 out of 11 – 73%).

5.2.2 Retail Industry

Six retail firms participated from this sector; two clothing and merchandize companies, two supermarkets, one environmentally friendly cosmetic shop and one bookstore. The first clothing firm has branches in China, Macau and Hong Kong whereas the other only operates in Hong Kong. The first supermarket was French-owned with branches worldwide (it subsequently closed in October 2000 due to its inability to find sites big enough to expand its business). It focused on selling products in bulk. The second supermarket has branches in Hong Kong only and sells a listed number of products to customers at a super low price. The expansion rate of this firm has been high, especially since the Financial Crisis, because their prices have been welcomed by customers on newly lowered incomes. The environmentally-friendly cosmetic firm originated in the United Kingdom and has branches worldwide, selling environmentally packaged products. Finally, the bookstore was one of the market leaders, selling academic books and comics from different countries in different languages.

Retail firms generally require part-time workers in order to provide flexibility. Staff work irregular and unpredictable hours. At the time the study was carried out,

part-time workers accounted for around 15 – 20% of the total labor force in each retail firm. Part-time workers were usually paid HK\$32 to HK\$45 hourly depending on experience, educational level and work district. Meals and subsidies were not provided, other than discounts on purchases.

Most of the participants from the retail industry were married women (17 out of 24 – 71%) with children. Nearly one third were the primary income earners (6 out of 17 – 35%). Over half were aged 30 – 40 (16 out of 24 – 67%) and most had longer working tenure with an average of one year or more. Staff were required to work individually or in groups at discount counters. They needed only simple skills and worked in advanced rosters.

5.2.3 Food Industry

Of the three food industry firms, the first was an American-owned chain with more than 150 branches in Hong Kong, selling cheap American fast food. The second firm was also American owned with more than 50 branches in Hong Kong, and sold sandwiches. The third was locally owned and sold various different kinds of food. These food companies usually have long hours of opening, for example from 6:30 a.m. until 11:00 p.m., especially on public holidays. They mostly required part-time workers for irregular and unpredictable shifts of around 4 to 6 hours daily. Due to the long and unpredictable working hours, part-time respondents in this group lived in close proximity to their work. Some of the supervisors (3 out of 19 – 16%) said that they usually worked more than 16 hours a week because the company preferred to use part-time workers to replace full-time workers at much lower cost to the firm. Staff were paid hourly with a salary range of HK\$15 – HK\$32 and meals were usually provided. Nearly half of the respondents in this group were the primary income earners (9 out of 19 – 47%) with a minimum working tenure of one year. One third were students (6 out of 19 – 32) and most were female (10 out of 19 – 53%). Nearly half were married and aged 30 – 50 (9 out of 19 – 47%).

5.2.4 Hotel Industry

The first hotel used was a five-star resort hotel located in the New Territories and

the second and third were four-star tourist hotels situated in the Central Business Districts and New Territories respectively. These hotels demand a large number of part-time workers to provide high-quality service to customers from all over the world. Workers are introduced to the employer by a so-called “snakehead” who normally charges HK\$10 per person as an introductory fee. They are usually employed to perform catering, housekeeping, and recreational works, and for banquet functions. The average hours worked by respondents in this group were similar to the food industry where the respondents worked nearly 16 hours a week. They usually worked in unpredictable shifts with a one-week schedule arranged in advance. A shift may begin as early as 6:00 a.m. and end as late as 12:30 a.m. They tended to live in close proximity to work and were paid around HK\$45 per hour with free meals and uniforms provided. The majority were young, aged between 17 to 26 (14 out of 19 – 74%). Most were unmarried (17 out of 19 – 89%) and expressed a strong preference to change to full-time work (12 out of 19-63%). The majority were the primary income earners (12 out of 19 – 63%) and just under half had a secondary level education (9 out of 19 – 47%). Only a small minority held multiple jobs (3 out of 19 – 16%).

5.3 The perspective of part-time workers

The purpose of this analysis is to validate the results obtained from the quantitative study by suggesting reasons for the differences in attitudes and behavior between different types of part-time workers. This section consists of three parts and covers ways of seeking part-time jobs, reasons for doing so, and problems encountered in part-time work and compared referents. Researchers have suggested that there is a close relationship between compared referents and the perception of fairness (Ambrose and Kulik, 1988; Ronen, 1986). Furthermore, referent selections and the fairness perceptions have effects on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Scholl, Cooper and McKenna, 1987).

5.3.1 Ways of seeking part-time work

Over half of the part-time workers who participated in this study got their jobs through posters displayed outside the company (46 out of 73 – 63%). Nearly one fifth had obtained work through walk-in interviews (14 out of 73 – 19%) and some had

been introduced by friends (9 out of 73 – 12%). Only a minority of the part-time workers got their job through personnel agencies and newspapers advertisements (4 out of 73 – 5%). This implies that part-time workers tended to find jobs informally.

5.3.2 Reasons for working part-time

Over half had been unable to find full-time jobs (45 out of 73 – 61.6%) and nearly a third had sought to do part-time work in order to kill idle time. The other reasons offered were: to earn extra income to supplement a full-time job; to try out a particular field before looking for full-time work; or to be released from domestic responsibilities. Table 5.3.2 below summarizes this information.

Table 5.3.2 Reasons for doing part-time work

| Reasons | Number of respondents | Percentages |
|---|------------------------------|--------------------|
| Fill up time schedules | 18 out of 73 | 24.7% |
| Unable to find full-time jobs | 45 out of 73 | 61.6% |
| Want to earn extra income supplement to daily full-time jobs | 4 out of 73 | 5.5% |
| Want to have trial periods before converting to full-time works | 2 out of 73 | 2.7% |
| Other reasons (e.g. domestic responsibilities) | 4 out of 73 | 5.5% |

5.3.3 Problems relating to attitudes and behavior among part-time workers

Six key problems were identified by the part-time workers, each of which will be discussed in detail.

5.3.3.1 Pay

Slightly more of those who were working part-time involuntarily (40 out of 45 – 89%) than those had voluntarily chosen it (22 out of 28 – 79%) said that their employers had violated the psychological contract by not providing high pay. As a result, more voluntary part-time workers (15 out of 28 – 54%) showed more

organizational commitment than their involuntary counterparts (16 out of 45 – 36%) did. The largest reduction in pay after the Financial Crisis was sustained by workers in the food industries (see Table 5.3.3.1 below). Therefore, involuntary part-time workers unused to working part-time were likely to perceive a large difference in pay between full-time and part-time work. They may have held more negative work attitudes as a result, seeing the situation as one where the employers have violated the employment promise by not providing high pay. The voluntary workers on an hourly rate, however, may not have suffered a great reduction in pay because they would have been comparing their hourly rates before and after 1997.

Table 5.3.3.1 The reduction in salary before and after 1997

| | Telecommunications | Hotel | Food | Retail |
|----------------|---------------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Prior to 1997 | HK\$65 + Commissions | HK\$50 | HK\$15 – HK\$37 | HK\$35 – HK\$55 |
| Post 1997 | HK\$50 + Commissions | HK\$45 | HK\$11 – HK\$32 | HK\$32 – HK\$45 |
| % in reduction | 23% | 10% | 27% | 8.6% |

5.3.3.2 Workloads

Slightly more involuntary (40 out of 45 – 89%) than voluntary part-time employees (21 out of 28 – 45%) said that they were unfairly treated by their employers in terms of workloads. As a result, more involuntary (26 out of 45 – 58%) than voluntary ones (9 out of 28 – 32%) withheld extra-role behavior. More involuntary (39 out of 45 – 87%) than voluntary (20 out of 28 – 71%) workers indicated a higher intention to leave.

Part-time workers in general have had problems with increasing workloads because, since the Financial Crisis, employers have chosen to maintain a smaller staffing pool to reduce operational costs. As a result, the workloads of part-time workers have increased. Involuntary employees who were not used to part-time work might have thought their workload had increased, because they had to complete all the

tasks in only a few hours with no one to share the burden. One involuntary part-time worker from the hotel industry said, “If my employer treats me unfairly (in terms of workload) with regards to facets of the job in which I am inexperienced, I will only do the assigned work which I know and will not ask to learn more than that.” Another involuntary respondent from the hotel industry said “I will speak ill of the supervisor and spend my time inefficiently if my employers have not treated me fairly in work.” In addition to this, a relatively larger number of involuntary part-time workers would tend to look for other jobs with smaller workloads, regardless of the work status of the new position.

In terms of voluntary part-time workers, they tend to have lower intentions to leave if their employers have treated them fairly in terms of workload. This may be explained by the fact that their main aim was to obtain long-term part-time work. If their employers treated them fairly in workload, they are more prepared to work longer hours in exchange for additional income. As a result, they dared not lose their part-time work in the long term.

5.3.3.3 Limited chances to obtain promotion

More involuntary (35 out of 45 – 78%) than voluntary part-time employees (4 out of 28 – 14%) thought that their employers had violated their promises by not providing promotion opportunities. As a result, relatively more involuntary (15 out of 28 – 54%) than voluntary (16 out of 45 – 36%) respondents indicated lower organizational commitment. A higher number of involuntary respondents reported that their employers had initially promised to change their employment status from part-time to full-time if their work performance was stable. As many of these people used to work full-time, they would have had higher expectations of changing back to full-time employment. However, the employers preferred to maintain a stable and smaller pool of part-time workers due to the cost implications. As a result, involuntary workers would have been likely to see the lack of promotion chances as evidence of violation of the employment promise, resulting in lower organizational commitment.

5.3.3.4 Job security

Relatively more voluntary (20 out of 28 – 71%) than involuntary (13 out of 45 – 29%) respondents said that their employers had violated the psychological contract by not providing long-term job security. As a result, nearly double the number of voluntary (17 out of 28 – 61%) than involuntary (14 out of 45 – 31%) part-time respondents withheld extra-role behavior and more voluntary ones (19 out of 28 – 68%) reported higher intention to leave on this basis.

Due to the poor economic situation, employers may be likely to adjust the number of part-time workers employed in order to save money, resulting in less job security. Employers may also adjust their criteria in order to hunt for competent staff, for example, requiring relevant skills or job-related experience. Voluntary respondents recognized that job security had close links with the Hong Kong economy. If the unstable economic situations persisted, they might be easily replaced. Voluntary part-time workers may have thought that their employers had not kept their promise by providing long-term job security even if their performance had continued to be good. Involuntary part-time workers also said that they were prepared to accept low job security because they would rather be seeking full-time alternatives. Thus it can be concluded that voluntary part-time respondents were more easily dissatisfied with a lack of job security. One voluntary part-time worker from the hotel industry said “I will not take the job seriously and express my feelings of discontent in work, which contribute to some repetitive mistakes in work if my employer does not work according to the employment promise.” Another voluntary part-time employee from the food industry said “I am not going to clean and re-use the plastic lunch box. If the employer continues to violate my employment promise, I will continue to waste more company resources by throwing away all the dirty lunch boxes right away.”

However, the situation was different for the involuntary part-time respondents, who had higher intention to leave if they could not keep their current work in the long-term. Because they were not seeking long-term part-time work, they would have cared less about their current job security and would have been more influenced by their availability and time for seeking a full-time job.

5.3.3.5 Work conditions

A similar number of voluntary (6 out of 28 – 21%) and involuntary (10 out of 45 – 22%) part-time respondents said their employers had not treated them fairly, resulting in higher intention to leave. Part-time workers in the food and hotel industry usually worked in hot, humid, slippery and unhygienic work conditions. Part-time workers in the telecommunication industry were required to work in crowded areas with high levels of air pollution. Both voluntary and involuntary staff showed higher intention to leave if they began to find the conditions unbearable.

Voluntary part-time workers used to do part-time work are prepared for the work conditions resulted in less discriminations. Involuntary part-time workers who are not used to do part-time work are not prepared for the harsh work conditions, for example, increased workloads, poor work environments and being looked down by the full-time workers and supervisors as incompetent and undeserving of receiving higher salaries and better benefits. Part-time workers had no team-leader with whom to share their unhappy work experiences. It can therefore be inferred that involuntary part-time workers who were not used to the conditions of part-time work suffered more discrimination than that of the voluntary ones. Furthermore, a larger proportion of involuntary (39 out of 45 – 87%) than voluntary (20 out of 28 – 71%) respondents had higher intention to leave if they were treated unfairly. Besides, involuntary part-time workers who were not used to the conditions of part-time work suffered more discriminations than that of the voluntary ones. As a result, slightly less involuntary part-time workers (16 out of 45 – 36%) than voluntary (15 out of 28 – 54%) showed loyalty to their organizations.

It can be concluded from the above that voluntary part-time workers who are used to the conditions of part-time work suffered comparatively less discriminations resulting in higher loyalty and lower intentions to leave the organization. Involuntary part-time workers who are not accustomed to the conditions of part-time work suffered comparatively more discriminations resulting in lower loyalty and higher intentions to leave the organization.

5.3.3.6 Short shifts

Regarding the scheduling of hours and holidays, a similar number of voluntary (16 out of 28 – 57%) and involuntary (27 out of 45 – 60%) part-time respondents said that they were fairly treated by employers. More involuntary (26 out of 45 – 58%) than voluntary (9 out of 28 – 32%) respondents suggested that fairness in this area would influence their motivation to perform extra-role behavior. Part-time workers are paid by the number of hours worked. If both voluntary and involuntary respondents felt fairly treated by their employers, they would be more motivated to perform extra-role behavior. One involuntary part-time worker from the retail industry said “If my employer treats me unfairly (in terms of scheduling hours), I am not going to do more than the prescribed duties. I will just leave the unfinished work and leave punctually if it is time to take off.”

Part-time workers used various compared referents to assess their equity situations, with such referents coming from friends in other organizations: these connections are direct, convenient, and reliable. They tended to compare on the basis of pay, number of hours worked, benefits and ease of working locations in order to assess their own equity situations. A large majority of voluntary part-time workers chose to compare themselves with other part-time workers working inside and outside their organization and to use multiple rather than single referents on pay, workloads and assignments.

Nearly a fifth of the voluntary part-time workers (6 out of 28 – 21%) compared themselves with part-time workers in the same organization and over half (22 out of 28 – 79%) with part-time workers from other organizations, chosen because of their similar work status. Most of the involuntary part-time workers (34 out of 45 – 76%) chose to compare themselves with full-time workers working outside the organization and with their own past working experiences, in terms of hours and salary. Nearly a quarter of the involuntary workers (11 out of 45 – 24%) chose multiple compared referents and compared themselves with part-time workers working in the same organization or full-time workers in similar jobs.

5.4 Summary of the perspectives of part-time workers

More involuntary (40 out of 45 – 89%) than voluntary part-time respondents (22 out of 28 – 79%) believed that their psychological contract was being violated by low pay and lack of promotional opportunities, resulting in lower organizational commitment. Furthermore, more voluntary than involuntary respondents said their employers had violated the psychological contract by not providing long-term job security thus reducing extra-role behavior and increasing turnover intention. More involuntary than voluntary workers were being unfairly treated in terms of workload and discrimination, which resulted in reduced extra-role behavior, lower organizational commitment and increased intention to leave the organization.

Opposing this effect, a number of voluntary and involuntary respondents were being fairly treated in terms of scheduling, resulting in more extra-role behavior. A similar number of voluntary and involuntary respondents were being unfairly treated in terms of working conditions, resulting in higher intention to leave. Voluntary part-time workers compared themselves with other part-time workers employed inside and outside the organization, looking at workloads and assignments. Involuntary part-time workers compared themselves with full-time workers working inside and outside the organization and with their own past working experiences with scheduling hours and salary being the main points of comparison.

5.5 The perspectives of supervisors

This section is composed of three parts, which covers in turn the general issues around part-time employment, problems encountered and the perspectives of managers on the compared referents of part-time workers.

5.5.1 Recruitment of part-time workers

Most supervisors recruited part-time workers through posters, walk-in referrals, and newspapers or personnel agencies. In the hotel and food industries, part-time workers were introduced by so called “snakeheads” charging HK\$10 per head. This implies that employers could easily recruit part-time workers from large supply pools.

5.5.2 Trend of part-time employment

Most supervisors said that they would continue to use part-time workers to replace full-time ones in simple jobs from the lower to the middle level of the employment hierarchy. However, a large majority (32 out of 47 – 68%) said they would try to keep the number of part-time workers down to around 20 – 30% of their total workforce in order to guarantee service standards. Some supervisors (40 out of 47 – 85%) said that the numbers of part-time workers employed depended on business, implying that the demand for part-time workers was unpredictable.

5.5.3 Reasons for employing part-time workers

Supervisors said part-time employment provided time and functional flexibility. A supervisor from a foreign-owned food organization said he had employed at least 1,500 part-time workers, making up 7% of the total running cost of the company. Another supervisor, from a Chinese-owned retail chain store, said the store had employed around 300 part-time workers and the number was still increasing. Employers from the other retail businesses and the food, hotel and telecommunications companies suggested they would try to keep the numbers of part-time workers fixed.

5.5.4 Nature and characteristics of part-time workers in the service sectors

The interviews revealed that managers perceived the existence of two key groups of part-time workers. Voluntary types included housewives, students, moonlighters (those with full-time work during the day and part-time work at night) and trialists (those trying part-time work before converting to full-time work). Involuntary types were those with lower levels of education, those who were less competent and those who had been temporarily unable to find full-time work in the conditions of high unemployment.

5.5.5 Problems encountered with part-time employment

Three key problems were encountered in part-time employment. The discussion of these helps to explain the relationship between part-time respondents and employers.

5.5.5.1 High turnover and absence rates

Supervisors reported that more involuntary than voluntary part-time respondents had high turnover and absence rates because they had a greater perception of unfair treatment (increased workloads and low pay). Supervisors said involuntary staffs were used to receiving high pay and good benefits and were quick to think that their employers were violating the employment promise by not offering them high pay. From Table 5.5.5.1(a) (Anonymous, 1999e), it can be seen that the average salary of part-time workers at the time the research was conducted was low compared to those in other countries. The hourly rate of the service industries in Hong Kong was lower than that of the United States and Japan but slightly higher than that of Taiwan and Korea. Unlike Taiwan and Korea, however, part-time workers in Hong Kong did not enjoy compulsory unemployment insurance schemes financed by government, employers and employees, as Table 5.5.5.1(b) (Anonymous, 1999c) demonstrates.

Table 5.5.5.1 (a) The minimum wage of the other countries

| Country | Minimum wage (hourly) (HK\$) |
|---------------|------------------------------|
| France | \$53.1 |
| Australia | \$47.8 |
| United States | \$39.9 |
| Japan | \$38.4 |
| Hong Kong | \$23.7 – \$35.6 |
| Taiwan | \$15.2 |
| South Korea | \$8.54 |
| China | \$1.5 – \$2.3 |

* Source: *Ming Pao Daily* (1999e)

Table 5.5.5.1(b) The jobless insurance scheme in other countries

| Country | Unemployment Insurance scheme | Sources of finance from Government | Sources of finance from Employers | Sources of finance from Employees |
|---------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Canada | Yes | √ | √ | √ |
| United States | Yes | √ | √ | |
| Germany | Yes | √ | √ | √ |
| Japan | Yes | √ | √ | √ |
| Taiwan | Yes | √ | √ | √ |
| Korea | No | | | |
| Hong Kong | No | | | |

* Source: Hong Kong Standard (1999c)

Employers would reduce the number of part-time workers to save money, resulting in increased workload for a smaller number of staff to carry out. Voluntary staff were used to the nature and conditions of part-time work. According to supervisors, however, involuntary workers faced low pay and heavy workloads resulting in higher turnover and absence rates than voluntary staff.

5.5.5.2 Communication problems

Supervisors said involuntary ones were less willing to communicate with others because they had less expectation of maintaining long-term employment relationships. Voluntary workers were seen as more willing to communicate with others in order to maintain harmonious employment relationships over the long-term. Involuntary part-time respondents were less willing to communicate with others because their work status was not congruent with their expectations.

5.5.5.3 Coordination

Supervisors said it was rather difficult to coordinate large numbers of part-time workers according to fair shift schedules and convenient working locations, because more involuntary than voluntary ones felt they were being unfairly treated in terms of

these conditions. They also found it difficult to include part-time workers in company meetings.

Very often, shifts had to be shortened or changed due to the increased number of part-time workers being employed. Furthermore, involuntary workers who were used to having full-time jobs might have felt their employers were neglecting or ignoring them by excluding them from non-work affairs. However, voluntary workers did not have such strong feelings of unfairness because they were used to the conditions of part-time work. In the case of minor unfairness, more involuntary than voluntary ones may have chosen to reduce their extra-role behavior such as leaving punctually or operating less efficiently. In the case of seriously unfair work situations, more involuntary than voluntary part-time respondents would have had a strong intention to leave.

A quarter of the employers (12 out of 47 – 26%) said part-time workers would be likely to compare themselves with other part-time workers in the company due to the similar nature of their work. However, nearly half (21 out of 47 – 47%) thought that part-time workers might choose to compare themselves with part-time workers in other organizations because of the high transparency of work situations. Only a few employers (5 out of 47 – 11%) said they would not encourage their part-time workers to compare themselves with others due to differences in the nature of the job and conditions.

5.5.6 Summary of supervisors' perspectives

Supervisors said that involuntary part-time workers did not want to communicate with others, resulting in lower extra-role behavior and higher turnover intention. They also felt that involuntary staff would usually have higher turnover and absence rates when compared with voluntary part-time workers, because they thought that their employers had violated the employment promise by not providing high pay and reasonable workloads. Furthermore, supervisors said they faced coordination problems in making fair schedules and convenient working locations. Nearly half said that part-time workers might compare their situations with people working in other organizations, and almost a third felt that they would only compare themselves with

colleagues. A few supervisors said they did not encourage their part-time workers to compare with others at all.

5.6 Integration of the results from the focus groups and interviews

Both supervisors and part-time workers agreed that the number of part-time workers employed was fixed in number according to business needs. However, differences in the reasons for part-time employment did emerge. Respondents did part-time work due to their inability to find full-time jobs, to earn additional income or to fill up their schedules. However, supervisors were able to employ large numbers of part-time workers over a short period and reduce operational costs by not providing them with benefits. Supervisors said voluntary staff sought to maintain a long-term employment relationship and tended to hold positive and optimistic attitudes, while involuntary workers had shorter tenure and based the employment relationship on monetary terms. Involuntary staff would express their discontent and pessimism at work. It could thus be concluded that voluntary staff tended to be more satisfied with their present situation while involuntary part-time workers were more discontented and likely to push for changes in their work status. This would result in higher organizational commitment and lower intention to leave the organization amongst voluntary part-time workers.

More voluntary than involuntary part-time workers said their employers had violated the employment promise by not providing them with long-term job security, resulting in higher intention to leave and withholding of extra-role behavior. Employers acknowledged the violations but attributed them to budget constraints and lower salaries generally after 1997. More involuntary than voluntary respondents believed that their employers had violated the employment promise by providing limited promotional chances and low pay, resulting in lower organizational commitment. Some employers said that their organization would not allow the replacement of all full-time workers by part-time ones and some said they would not see part-time workers as first priority for promotional opportunities. Additionally, more voluntary than involuntary respondents said that they were being unfairly treated at work and thus intended to leave. The reverse perception applied to workload, resulting in involuntary respondents displaying less extra-role behavior and more

intention to leave the organization.

Supervisors suffered problems with coordination and also felt that involuntary part-time respondents communicated less with colleagues than voluntary ones: this was confirmed by involuntary part-time workers who said they did not intend to form long-term employment relationships, which were incongruent with their preferred work status. The outcome of this was lower organizational commitment. This was linked to supervisors' recognition that involuntary staff had higher absence and turnover rates, which they attributed to their perception that they had been treated unfairly in terms of pay and workload. Supervisors said involuntary part-time respondents put more emphasis on fairness while voluntary staff focused on violations of employment promises, which may be explained by the fact that involuntary respondents were more interested in salary and benefits. Thus, they viewed employment promises in monetary terms. Voluntary part-time staff, however, looked at the situation in terms of long-term job security and chances of promotion, both before and after 1997. As a result, they may have thought the employer had violated the employment promise. Hence, supervisors said both voluntary and involuntary workers performed extensive extra-role behavior, except for those in the latter group who would reduce this if unfairly treated. Both voluntary and involuntary part-time tended to have multiple rather than single compared referents.

More detailed discussions of the issues arising from the data will be illustrated and presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 6 Discussion and implications

This investigation has tested an integrated model of the potential interaction between the work status of part-time workers and the relationship between job-related attitudes (perception of psychological contract violation and fairness perception) and work behavior (organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and intention to leave the organization). This represents an important first step toward confirming the importance of integrated models to the study of work status in a downsizing environment. In addition, the study has explored part-time workers' compared referents, an area in which only limited research had been done to date, and attempted to map key variables influencing individuals' job-related attitudes and behavior. The results demonstrate the clear need to include work status (for example, voluntary or involuntary) in studies of part-time workers.

For organizations attempting to attract, retain and motivate highly-qualified part-time workers, this study offers some suggestions about negative job-related attitudes and behavior that should be addressed in the quest to curb unwanted turnover and improve efficiency. Thus, the current study will also help to quantify the importance of work status.

6.1 Overview of findings

This research has made a number of significant contributions to our understanding of work status and the ways in which organizations can attempt to control turnover and motivate part-time workers. In this section, a broad overview of the key findings will be presented.

6.1.1 Relationship between attitudes and work behavior

The purpose of this section is to address the original objective, as stated in Chapter 1, of examining the relationship between job-related attitudes and work behavior for part-time workers.

6.1.1.1 Perception of psychological contract violation and organizational commitment

The hypothesis that there would be a negative relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational commitment was supported. In other words, the research confirmed that part-time respondents would be less committed to the organization if they believed that their employers had violated their employment promises. This conclusion was supported by the quantitative results, ie. the multiple regressions on organizational commitment ($\beta = -.30, p < 0.001$) and the significant correlation between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational commitment ($r = -.19, p < 0.01$). The qualitative results also suggested that both types had lower organizational commitment if their employers had violated the psychological contract by not providing high pay or sufficient opportunities for promotion. These findings echoed the work of Robinson, Kraatz and Rousseau (1994), Rousseau (1995), and Schein (1980).

6.1.1.2 Perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior

The hypothesis of a negative relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior was also supported. This means that part-time respondents reduced their extra-role behavior if their employers violated their employment promises. The results of the quantitative investigation upheld the hypothesis, via the multiple regression on organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = -.21, p < 0.05$), and the correlation between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior ($r = -.25, p < 0.01$). Furthermore, the qualitative data also suggested that both types would withhold extra-role behavior if their employers violated the psychological contract by not providing long-term security. Again, these findings supported previous investigations by Robinson, Kraatz, and Rousseau (1994); Robinson (1996) and Robinson and Morrison (1995).

6.1.1.3 Perception of psychological contract violation and intention to leave

A positive relationship was also hypothesized between the perception of psychological contract violation and intention to leave of the part-time workers. Again, the hypothesis was supported, indicating that part-time respondents would have increased intention to leave the organization if they believed that their employers had violated their employment promises. Multiple regressions on intention to leave the organization ($\beta = .13, p < 0.05$) and the significant correlations between the perceptions of psychological contract violation and intention to leave ($r = .74, p < 0.01$) were performed, with the results showing support for the hypothesis. The qualitative data also upheld the negative relationship for voluntary part-time workers, in accordance with previous findings: Robinson (1996), Guzzo (1994), and Schein (1980).

6.1.1.4 Fairness perception and organizational commitment

Support was obtained for the hypothesis of a positive relationship between the fairness perception and organizational commitment. Thus, part-time respondents increased their commitment to the organization if their employers treated them fairly. The quantitative results indicated support for the hypothesis, via multiple regressions on organizational commitment ($\beta = .22, p < 0.001$) and correlation between the fairness perception and organizational commitment ($r = .34, p < 0.01$). The qualitative data backed this up, showing that both types would have lower organizational commitment if they felt they had been discriminated against by their employer. The relationship was therefore consistent with earlier research by Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1997).

6.1.1.5 Fairness perception and organizational citizenship behavior

The hypothesis that there would be a positive relationship between the fairness perception and organizational citizenship behavior was supported. The hypothesis suggested that part-time respondents would increase their performance of extra-role behavior if their employers had treated them fairly. This was supported by the

quantitative results – multiple regressions on organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = .33, p < 0.001$) and correlation between the fairness perception and organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .36, p < 0.01$). These findings were enhanced by the qualitative data, which showed that both types of worker would have less motivation to perform extra-role behavior if their employers had not treated them fairly in respect of work schedule. This supported the findings of earlier research by Deluga (1994) and Scholl, Cooper & Mckenna (1987).

6.1.1.6 Fairness perception and intention to leave

The negative relationship between the perception of fairness and intention to leave was also supported, as had been hypothesized. Thus, part-time respondents had more intention to leave if their employers treated them unfairly. From the quantitative data, the multiple regressions on intention to leave the organization ($\beta = -.29, p < 0.001$) and a significant correlation between fairness perception and intention to leave ($r = -.31, p < 0.01$) supported the hypothesis. The qualitative data also showed that both types of worker had greater intention to leave if their employers treated them unfairly in terms of workload. The work of Van Yperen, Hagedoorn and Sabine (1996); Dittrich, Couger and Zawacki (1985); Roberts, Coulson and Chonko (1999) is in accordance with these findings.

6.1.1.7 Summary of the relationship between attitudes and work behavior for part-time workers

As hypothesized, the negative relationships between the perception of psychological contract violation and both organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior were supported by both the quantitative and qualitative data, as was the positive relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and turnover intention.

The hypotheses of positive relationships between fairness perception and both organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior were also supported by both sets of results. Lastly, support was obtained for the negative

relationship between fairness perception and turnover intention.

6.1.2 The compared referents among part-time workers

The purpose of this section is to address the third objective set out in Chapter 1, i.e. to focus on the compared referents of both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers.

6.1.2.1 Compared referents of voluntary part-time workers

The quantitative results revealed that 31% of the voluntary part-time respondents would rather choose part-time workers in the same organization as their compared referents, whilst a further 45.8% would choose part-time staff of other organizations. Correspondingly, the qualitative data also suggested that one-fifth of this subgroup of respondents (6 out of 28 – 21%) would compare themselves only with part-time workers in the same organization and the majority of all part-time respondents (22 out of 28 – 79%) would compare themselves with those working in other organizations.

These results were in accordance with the theory of the social comparison process, whereupon voluntary part-time workers base their evaluation on other part-time workers working inside and outside the organization. The findings were therefore in agreement with the work of Heneman, Schwab, Standal, and Peterson (1978), who found that individuals had a strong tendency to make multiple comparisons, and Ronen (1986) who posited that outside reference groups were more important than insiders in explaining job attitudes and behavioral propensities.

6.1.2.2 Compared referents of involuntary part-time workers

Again, the quantitative results supported the proposal that involuntary part-time workers would choose full-time workers from other organizations as their compared referents. 34.6% of the involuntary part-time respondents said they would choose full-time workers working in other organizations as their compared referents while 31.6% of the involuntary ones would base comparisons on their own past working experiences. Furthermore, the qualitative findings also suggested that most of the

involuntary part-time workers (34 out of 45 – 76%) would choose to compare themselves with these two groups.

Again, the theory of the social comparison process would suggest that involuntary part-time workers would base their evaluation against full-time workers inside and outside the organization and/or their prior working experience. This result is also, therefore, in line with the work of Heneman, Schwab, Standal, and Peterson (1978) as mentioned above. Furthermore, it contradicts the results obtained by Feldman and Doeringhaus (1992) and Feldman (1990), which suggested that part-time workers tended to use other part-time workers in their organizations as their compared referents, rather than full-time colleagues. Additionally, these findings provided partial support for the findings of Eberhardt and Moser (1995); Beard and Edwards (1995); Goodman and Friedman (1971) and Adams (1963), all of whom proposed that the only compared referents of part-time workers would be full-time workers.

6.1.2.3 Summary of the compared referents of part-time workers

Both the quantitative and qualitative results have suggested that voluntary part-time workers would tend to choose part-time workers working inside and outside the organization as their compared referents. They would tend to place greater importance on the external reference groups than the internal. Similarly, the findings from both datasets suggested that involuntary part-time workers would tend to choose full-time workers from other organizations, together with their own past working experiences, as compared referents.

6.2 Moderating role of work status

The purpose of this section is to review the interactive effects of work status on job-related attitudes, which influenced the three work behavior among different types of part-time workers (voluntary / involuntary).

6.2.1 Moderating influence of work status on perception of psychological contract violation and work behavior.

This section focuses on the moderating role of work status on the relationship between perception of psychological contract violation and three work behavior: organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to leave.

6.2.1.1 Moderating effects of work status on the relationship between perception of psychological contract violation and organizational commitment

Contrary to the hypotheses set out under Objective 2 of Chapter 1, it was found that work status did not moderate the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational commitment. In the quantitative results, the relevant t-value did not support the conclusion that work status had no moderating effect on this relationship for involuntary part-time workers (i.e. the value was not statistically significant). However, the nature of the interaction was different in the qualitative results, which suggested that more voluntary (15 out of 28 – 54%) than involuntary (16 out of 45 – 36%) part-time workers had lower organizational commitment if their employers had violated their employment promise in terms of promotion opportunities and pay.

The difference may be explained by the presence of other factors influencing the organizational commitment of the involuntary part-time workers in the quantitative samples. The duration of employment, benefits, relationships with other colleagues, identification with company cultures and the reputation of the company may all have influenced the loyalty of the involuntary part-time workers towards their employers. If they were in receipt of better benefits and work for highly reputable firms, they may have been more committed, furthermore, if they had been able to develop better relationships with other colleagues and identify more easily with the company cultures, they may have had longer tenure and thus greater commitment. One possible explanation for the differences between the qualitative and quantitative results in this area may be, therefore, the relative insensitivity of the construct of organizational

commitment used in the survey, which may be unrelated to work status and the perception of psychological contract violation.

Another, perhaps more likely, explanation is that involuntary part-time workers who hold the transactional psychological contract, which is characterized by the absence of long-term commitment (Rousseau, 1989), acted according to control theory to eliminate the imbalances in response to psychological contract violation. This would involve reducing their loyalty to the employer (Hirschman, 1970).

6.2.1.2 Moderating effects of work status on the relationship between perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior

It was found that work status did not moderate the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior. This negative relationship was much stronger for involuntary than on voluntary part-time workers. Accordingly, hypothesis 3b was not supported. In contrast, work status did moderate the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior. The effect was much stronger for voluntary than involuntary part-time workers. Such contradictory interactions were confirmed by the quantitative data. The t-value (-30) in the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior was statistically significant, with the relationship again stronger for voluntary part-time workers. The qualitative results also showed that far more voluntary part-time respondents (17 out of 28 – 61%) than involuntary (14 out of 45 – 31%) workers would withhold extra-role behavior if they felt that their employer had violated their employment promise by not providing long-term job security.

Among the voluntary group, the negative relationship was greater than for the involuntary part-time workers. The voluntary part-time workers tended to perform even less extra-role behavior than the involuntary group when facing the same degree of psychological contract violation. This reflected their lessened tendency to become involved in exchanges with their employers, which contributed to lowered extra-role behavior, in line with the theory suggested by Homans (1961) that social exchange would take place between the individual and organization. When the psychological

contract was violated, the voluntary part-time workers were less likely to perform extra-role behavior because they had a less reciprocal relationship with their employer. This suggestion is consistent with Blau's (1964) proposal that social exchange relationships are comprised of voluntary actions that are engaged in with the belief or understanding that the other party will reciprocate.

Furthermore, these findings showed that involuntary part-time workers were experiencing the transactional psychological contract, in which they did not expect long-term future employment relationships, but would nevertheless not confine themselves only to performing routine tasks that could be monitored. This may be explained by the fact that involuntary part-time workers were prepared to spend a relatively short time in the job. As a result, they would not withhold the performance of extra-role behavior simply because their employers had not provided them with long-term job security. Such results offered strong empirical evidence to challenge the linkage between the form of the psychological contract (transaction contract) and negative work outcomes (organizational citizenship behavior) for involuntary part-time workers. In other words, involuntary part-time workers may not have withheld the performance of extra-role behavior even though they were not working according to their preferred status. This went against the suggestion of Rousseau and Parks (1993) that part-time workers working under a transactional contract could be characterized by lower commitment, trust and attachment to the organization.

6.2.1.3 Moderating effects of work status on the relationship between perception of psychological contract violation and intention to leave

No support was found for the hypothesis that work status would moderate the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and intention to leave more strongly for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers. The quantitative result suggested that the insignificant t-value could only moderate such relationship on voluntary but not on involuntary part-time workers. The qualitative results suggested only that voluntary part-time workers (19 out of 28 – 68%) would have higher turnover intention if their employers had violated the employment promise by not providing long-term job security. One plausible explanation for this is that other factors influenced turnover intention for the involuntary part-time workers

in the sample, such as pay, benefits, discrimination, quarrels and conflicts with supervisors or other colleagues, loss of interest, inability to acclimatize to working conditions and industry characteristics, and job dissatisfaction. However, the result was still consistent with control theory, which suggests that part-time workers would be motivated to eliminate imbalances originating from psychological contract violation by increasing their turnover intention (Hirschman, 1970). Thus, the present study contradicted the findings of Eberhardt and Moser (1995) who found insignificant differences between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers on turnover intention.

6.2.1.4 Summary of the moderating influence of work status on the perception of psychological contract violation and behavior of part-time workers

Unexpectedly, work status did not moderate the relationships between the perception of psychological contract violation and either organizational commitment or intention to leave. Neither the quantitative nor qualitative data supported such a proposition. As hypothesized, work status could moderate the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior, with such a negative relationship much stronger for voluntary than on involuntary part-time workers. This was strongly supported by both parts of the research.

6.2.2 Moderating influence of work status on fairness perception and behavior of part-time workers

This section analyses the interactive effects of work status and fairness perception on three work behavior; organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to leave.

6.2.2.1 The moderating effect of work status on the relationship between fairness perception and organizational commitment

The original hypothesis (H4a) suggested that work status would moderate the relationship between the fairness perception and organizational commitment, with the effect being much stronger for involuntary part-time workers. Only the quantitative

results supported this hypothesis, with a highly significant t-value (6.33). However, the qualitative data told a different story, suggesting that greater numbers of voluntary (15 out of 28 – 54%) than involuntary (16 out of 45 – 36%) part-time workers had lessened organizational commitment if they were victims of discrimination. This inconsistency may have arisen because work status moderated the relationship in terms of discrimination but not other work items, such as fairness in pay, benefits, and working schedules. The treatment received by the employers in these areas would also influence their perceptions of the employment relationship.

Furthermore, there was much stronger positive relationship between the fairness perception and organizational commitment for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers. This was consistent with relative deprivation theory, which suggested that relatively more involuntary part-time workers would base their comparison of pay differentials on a dissimilar, external group, such as their own past work experience. If the gap between average trends in pay and actual pay received had been small, involuntary part-time workers would have been less sensitive to the differential. As a result, more involuntary than voluntary part-time workers would have had higher organizational commitment because they would have believed that the organization was treating them fairly regarding pay. However, this may not have been true for voluntary part-time workers even if they were, objectively, receiving the same treatment, because they may have demanded more long-term job security. As a result, more involuntary than voluntary part-time workers would tend to be committed to organizations which have exhibited smaller pay differentials relative to other groups or the general average.

6.2.2.2 Moderating influence of work status on fairness perception and organizational citizenship behavior

Here, the hypothesis was that work status would moderate the relationship between the fairness perception and organizational citizenship behavior, with the effect being stronger for involuntary workers. In other words, there would be a significant positive interaction between the fairness perception and extra-role behavior for this group. The hypothesis was strongly supported by both sets of results. The t-value (9) was highly significant and in the qualitative data, more involuntary

part-time workers (26 out of 45 – 58%) than voluntary (9 out of 28 – 32%) performed additional extra-role behavior if they believed their employers had fairly treated them in terms of work scheduling.

One interesting finding was that involuntary part-time workers, if equitably treated, would perform more extra-role behavior than the voluntary staff. This could be explained by equity theory. Involuntary part-time workers receiving equitable treatment would not feel deprived and would instead voluntarily perform more extra-role behavior for the sake of the organization. This might include a willingness to defend the organization and to help new colleagues with work-related problems. It could also be possible that involuntary part-time workers would exhibit positive attitudes and organizational citizenship in the hope that the employer would offer them full-time, regular employment due to their outstanding performance.

6.2.2.3 Moderating effects of work status on the relationship between fairness perception and intention to leave the organization

No support was found for the hypothesis that work status would moderate the relationship between the fairness perception and intention to leave, with a stronger effect on involuntary part-time workers. Such a negative interaction between work status and fairness perception was not confirmed by the quantitative results. A statistically significant t-value (-16) was obtained, but the relationship was actually stronger for voluntary part-time workers. However, the reverse interaction was suggested by the qualitative data, in which more involuntary (39 out of 45 – 87%) than voluntary (20 out of 28 – 71%) workers indicated higher turnover intention if unfairly treated in terms of discrimination and workload. These differences may have arisen because work status only moderated the relationship between the fairness perception and turnover intention where workloads and discrimination were concerned, and not on items such as scheduling, pay, and benefits.

In contrast to the original hypothesis, there was a greater negative relationship between fairness perception and turnover intention for voluntary part-time workers. This could be explained by relative deprivation theory. Voluntary part-time workers might compare themselves with a similar group when making equity assessments,

such as part-time workers inside and outside the organization. However, involuntary part-time workers would rather compare themselves with dissimilar groups, such as full-time workers and their own previous work experiences. Such a comparison is reasonable given that involuntary part-time workers have been used to working full-time in the past. Furthermore, they may be more likely to feel that they have received less reward than they deserved, compared to the full-time referents, when they compare job security with that of core workers performing the same tasks. Thus, relative deprivation has been closely associated with feelings of injustice (Martin, 1981) and increased turnover (Telly, French and Scott, 1971; Dittrich and Carrell, 1979). In contrast, voluntary part-time workers tend to plan to stay with the job in the long term and so would have lower intention to leave the organization if they were receiving equitable treatment. However, involuntary part-time workers would have higher turnover intention even if employers were treating them fairly. Their turnover intention would be influenced by the availability and quality of the full-time jobs in the existing labor market.

6.2.2.4 Summary of the interactive effects of work status on fairness perception and behavior of part-time workers

Unexpectedly, work status only moderated the relationship between fairness perceptions and organizational commitment for involuntary part-time workers. This was supported by the quantitative, but not the qualitative, data analyses. However, work status was found to moderate the relationship between fairness perception and organizational citizenship behavior. This effect was much stronger for involuntary part-time workers, and was supported by both datasets. No support was found in the quantitative data for the hypothesized interaction between work status, fairness perception and turnover intention, although the qualitative data did suggest such an effect for involuntary part-time workers.

6.3 The contributions of the study

The essence of the study was to explore the moderating effect of work status on the relationships between job-related attitudes and work behavior. The results were in line with Barling and Gallagher (1996) in that they made it clear that part-time

employment should not be considered as a single and simple issue. There may be more variation among different types of part-time workers based on their attachment to the organization than there are differences between full-time and part-time workers (Barling and Gallagher, 1996). In addition, the present research was in accordance with the work of Feldman and Doeringhaus (1992) and Phelps and Downey and Allen (1992), both of the studies suggested that workers employed in voluntary and involuntary schedules tend to have different work orientations and perceptions. The following section discusses the key implications of the results in terms of theoretical contributions.

6.3.1 Theoretical contributions

This section is divided into eight parts, each of which addresses a different aspect of the complex inter-relationships explored in this study.

6.3.1.1 Perception of psychological contract violation for part-time workers

This study has lent partial support to the assertion that the concept of perception of psychological contract violation could be partially applied to part-time workers in downsizing and restructuring firms. Work status did not moderate the relationships between the perception of psychological contract violation and either organizational commitment or turnover intention for involuntary part-time workers. This may be explained by the fact that involuntary part-time workers in Hong Kong are not used to working part-time and so have lower expectations of employment promises. Given the same actual fulfillment of employment promises for both groups, involuntary part-time workers may have a lower perception of psychological contract violation than that of their voluntary counterparts.

In addition, the results showed that voluntary part-time workers focused more on the perception of psychological contract violation than on the fairness perception. They may have had relatively high expectations from long-term employment promises (relational psychological contracts) as distinct from involuntary employees, who expected more from the short-term (transactional psychological contracts).

6.3.1.2 Fairness perception of part-time workers

The concept of equity theory, one of the theories of fairness perception, could be applied to the part-time workers in this research. This study could fill the gap in the existing literature by explaining some of the behavior and reactions of the part-time employees, such as intention to leave and organizational citizenship behavior. Both the qualitative and quantitative results presented here have suggested that work status could strongly moderate the relationship between fairness perception and the three work outcomes (organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention) for both groups. This might suggest that involuntary part-time workers are experiencing greater suppression by inferior and unjust situations, and so have more strongly negative reactions. Moreover, it could also be concluded that involuntary part-time workers tended to focus more on fairness perception than on the psychological contract.

6.3.1.3 Frame of references of part-time workers

The concept of frame of reference theory, another aspect of the theory of fairness perception, could be generally applicable to both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers in this study. This contradicts the findings of previous research, which found that part-time workers rely on single referents only (part-time or full-time). This research indicated that different types of part-time workers did not have the same compared referents, with both groups instead using multiple referents to assess their equity situations (Heneman, Schwab, Standal, and Peterson, 1978). Furthermore, the results on the compared referents were in accordance with the work of Ronen (1986), which suggested that the outside reference group is more important than the inside reference group in explaining job attitudes and behavioral propensities. Thus, part-time workers choose their compared referents based on proximity, perceived similarity and availability of information about potential relevant others (Kulik and Ambrose, 1992). Once the referents have been chosen, others may be used to evaluate oneself in terms of personal attributes (skill level and effort, outcomes received for work performed such as pay, promotion and job security), and organizational procedures, such as selection and evaluation systems (Carrell and Dittrich, 1978; Goodman, 1974).

6.3.1.4 Work status as moderator

Limited research has been carried out using work status (voluntary / involuntary) directly as a moderator for interactions between job-related attitudes and work behavior on part-time workers. However, work status, to a large extent, could augment prior research which has explored similar relationships. It may be concluded from the quantitative results reported here that work status has a moderating effect on the relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior for both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers. Work status could also moderate the relationship between fairness perception and organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention, again for both groups. Hence, it may be concluded that work status has a moderating effect on the relationship between the perceptions of psychological contract violation and both organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior for both groups. Thus, work status could also moderate the relationship between fairness perception and organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention.

Since this research was strongly reliant on the quantitative results, it may therefore be concluded that work status moderated the relationship between perception of psychological contract violation and organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior (this effect being negative) and turnover intention for voluntary part-time workers. It also influenced the relationship between fairness perception and organizational commitment plus organizational citizenship behavior (for involuntary workers) and turnover intention (for voluntary workers).

6.3.1.5 Organizational commitment

The construct of organizational commitment adopted in this research, being derived from research done in Western countries, was not sensitive enough to pick up on variations relating to work status and the perception of psychological contract violation. This implies that constructs of organizational commitment could be used and tested in Asian nations, such as Hong Kong. Other relevant concepts such as

affective commitment (the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization) and continuous commitment (based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organization) could also be tested in Hong Kong (Chiu and Ng, 1999).

6.3.1.6 Organizational citizenship behavior

The use in this research of the constructs of Farh, Earley and Lin (1997) on organizational citizenship behavior implied that they could be applied to part-time workers in the service industries as Hong Kong as well as full-time employees in Taiwan.

6.3.1.7 Intention to leave

Previous research has paid only limited attention to the issue of part-time workers' intention to leave their employment. The results of this study imply not only that this concept has a bearing on the experience of part-time workers in Hong Kong, but that it can be moderated by work status. Furthermore, the influences on employees' intention to leave in this work were different from that found in previous research such as McBey and Karakowsky (2000). That study used a range of factors; work-related attitudes (job satisfaction, high levels of autonomy and responsibility, and work experience perception), external environment (personal and household income, wage earner status, family commitment and acceptable job alternatives, and primary income earner), individual characteristics (education, age, tenure, marital status, age, and education) and job performance (performance and reward). It was found that individual job performance (reward), work-related attitudes (work experience, job satisfaction, quarrels and conflicts with colleagues, and loss of interest in work status or work), and the external environment (acceptable job alternatives) influenced the turnover intention of the part-time workers in the study.

6.3.1.8 Summary of theoretical contributions

This study has attempted to show that part-time workers should not be viewed as a homogenous group. It has filled the gap left by Feldman and Doeringhaus (1992) by

widening the focus from the demographic differences between part-time workers, to their varied attitudes and behavior. Furthermore, Feldman and Doeringhaus (1992), although they looked at motivation and satisfaction, did not include turnover intention, nor did they explore the differences between the compared referents used by different types of part-time workers to make equity assessments. Furthermore, this study extended the research of Feldman (1990) on the theoretical basis for the differences between part-time workers, by including both voluntary and involuntary staff.

Thus, this study has contributed to the literature by empirically testing the model developed by Beard and Edward (1995) on the psychological experience of contingent workers, using part-time service sector workers in Hong Kong. In addition, it has taken the work of Walsh and Deery (1999) further, by using mixed methods rather than a single large-scale survey. Furthermore, this is the first study to examine psychological contract violation in part-time workers, lending partial support to existing hypotheses and uncovering the important result that the concept is more applicable to voluntary than involuntary part-time workers. It also confirmed the findings of Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1997) that the fairness perception is applicable to part-time workers in the service sector.

Previous research on part-time workers has usually focused on the relationship between job-related attitudes and work outcomes (organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and turnover intention). By introducing the concept of work status to this set of relationships, this research has made an original contribution to the literature, albeit by showing that work status did not have a moderating effect on all the possible inter-relationships. Furthermore, the construct of organizational commitment, which has been extensively studied in relation to part-time workers (see for example Tansky, Gallagher, and Wetzel, 1997), was only partially applicable to the sample studied here. In terms of organizational citizenship behavior, this research has shown that the constructs of Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997), developed through work with full-time employees on Taiwan, were also relevant to service industry part-time workers in Hong Kong, particularly when the moderating influence of work status was incorporated. Finally, this research has filled the gap in the literature on part-time work by looking at turnover intention. The data reported here showed that the factors influencing turnover intention for the part-time workers

differed from those operating on full-time workers. By showing that work status has a moderating effect, this research has made an original contribution.

The present research has enabled the complex relationships between organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and intention to leave the organization to be clarified, in the context of a downsizing and restructuring environment. It has also given support to the proposed interactive role of work status on job-related attitudes (perception of psychological contract violation and fairness perception), which in turn will influence work behavior. These results all affirm the moderating role of work status, which has been shown to exert a significant influence on the work behavior and reactions of part-time workers. As researchers, managers and practitioners continue to create models and implement programs to enhance retention, the critical factors contributing to these outcomes need to be clearly understood.

Finally, the population studied here has not received extensive attention in previous research. Most studies have focused on a particular type of employer, such as a bank, hospital or hotel, or have used only one methodological approach. The present research has therefore extended the literature by studying a range of service industries and by using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The patterns and trends of part-time workers thus uncovered will have significant implications not only for the specific industries but also for the future of the organizations themselves.

6.3.2 Practitioners implications

This section is divided into five parts, each focusing on a different aspect of attitude and behavior relevant to practitioners.

6.3.2.1 Commitment to organizations

This study has suggested that the concept of organizational commitment can be applied to different types of part-time workers, inasmuch that work status could moderate the negative relationship between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational commitment and the positive relationship between

fairness perception and organizational commitment.

The results from both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study revealed that more involuntary than voluntary part-time workers will have higher organizational commitment if they are fairly treated by their employers. In other words, the organizational commitment of involuntary part-time workers could exceed that of their voluntary counterparts even if they were not working to their preferred schedules. This contradicts the findings of Lee and Johnson (1991) that the organizational commitment of part-time workers did not differ when they did not work to their preferred schedules. It also challenges the finding of Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzel (1995) that among part-time workers, the involuntary group displayed similar levels of commitment to the voluntary. The results have also highlighted the important point that even if the involuntary part-time workers did not have long organizational tenure at the outset, their levels of organizational commitment do not necessarily decrease as tenure increases. Managers in the service industries might be well advised to ensure that they treat involuntary part-time workers as fairly as they do the full-time workers, because they will then increase their commitment to the organization.

6.3.2.2 Organizational citizenship behavior

It is interesting to note that the involuntary part-time workers in this study did not withhold organizational citizenship behavior provided they were being fairly treated. When involuntary part-time workers believe themselves to have positive relationships with their employer, they will go beyond what is required of them. Thus, their organizational citizenship behavior is dependent on their attitudes. The involuntary part-time workers studied here appeared less likely to withhold organizational citizenship behavior when they lacked higher levels of commitment. This finding was inconsistent with previous research by Williams and Anderson (1991), which found no relationship between commitment and organizational citizenship for a sample of professionals. Again, the key recommendation is to ensure fair treatment for involuntary part-time workers, so that they will take a more positive view of the employment relationship and will perform more extra-role behavior for the sake of the organization.

6.3.2.3 Intention to leave

A significant finding here is that in downsizing situations (limited job alternatives available in the labor market), more involuntary than voluntary part-time workers have higher turnover intention, even if their employers have treated them fairly. This may be explained by the fact that in Hong Kong there are large differences in status, pay, benefits, and protections between full-time and part-time workers. As a result, involuntary part-time workers who used to work full-time will still have higher intention to leave despite the fair treatment, if they can obtain full-time work with better benefits, higher job security and higher pay. Managers are best advised here to provide more intrinsic incentives for competent part-time workers by giving them certificates, verbal praise, and even small gifts if their performance is outstanding. As a result, more part-time workers with appropriate qualifications and experience are likely to be retained. Furthermore, managers are advised to treat part-time workers the same as full-time workers so as to avoid discrimination.

6.3.2.4 Violations of the employment promise

The qualitative results reported earlier indicated that part-time workers in Hong Kong generally focused on pay, because of the large pay differences between themselves and full-time workers. Part-time workers are known to be receiving far lower pay than full-time workers doing similar or identical tasks. Additionally, part-time workers in Hong Kong expect to receive training from their employers. However, such training can be rather limited in scope, resulting in lowered efficiency and inability to perform multiple functions at work. It may be that employers are just not willing to spend time and efforts on development activities for a minority of workers. It is recommended that this situation be improved and better training provided to part-time workers in the service industries, because this would be mutually beneficial to both parties in the long term.

The results of the focus groups of part-time workers suggested that they were willing to coordinate conferences, integrate services and bear acceptable responsibilities. Part-time workers who undergo comprehensive induction courses can be trained to specialize in at least one aspect of work, such as coordinating people to

participate in conferences, preparing meetings and monitoring the business environment. Efficiency can be improved by deploying the part-time workers to share part of the burden of middle management, enabling full-time managers to focus on monitoring individual performance, commanding authority and planning. As a result, the firm can reduce numbers and recruitment in the middle management grades, resulting in lowered operational costs. This process also enables the important role of part-time workers to be identified across the organization.

Managers should increase in-house and on-the-job training for part-time workers. If they do not have the time to implement formal training, they should ensure that clear guidelines for work procedures are given to the part-time workers before they begin a task so that they have a clear understanding of the nature of the work. If part-time workers feel their employers have invested in them, they will have longer tenure and so qualified and multi-functional part-time workers can be retained.

The qualitative results also showed that voluntary part-time workers placed a high priority on long-term job security. If they perceived that the employer had violated the employment promise, they would reduce their performance of extra-role behavior. Furthermore, it was also found that involuntary part-time workers prioritized the opportunity for advancement and would have strongly welcomed efforts from their employers to give them priority when considering promotional appointments. However, employers would prefer to retain a smaller and stable pool of part-time workers in order to keep operational costs to a minimum. Managers are recommended to consider promoting their part-time workers first, and to place a high priority on transferring them to full-time positions rather than recruiting staff from outside. Managers would also benefit from making more communication channels available to part-time workers to enable them to express their views on company policies and work-related problems. This would also enable managers to find out more about their part-time workers' expectations, resulting in fewer violations of the psychological contract. Finally, managers should stabilize company policies in order to avoid radical change, which often relates to a reduction in the number of employees and lessens long-term job security for part-time workers.

6.3.2.5 Fairness treatment

Organizations should be extremely aware of the importance and complexity of fairness perceptions. They need to recognize that attitudes among different types of part-time workers will depend a great deal on their perceptions of their treatment relative to full-time employees or other part-timers. Hence, there may be a real need to minimize overt differences in benefits between full-time and part-time workers and perhaps, although this is still untested, overt difference in supervision and treatment. Managers are advised to reward their employees in accordance with their performance and to reduce differences in pay and benefits between part-time workers in the same organization in terms of pay and benefits.

6.3.2.6 Compared referents of part-time workers

Voluntary part-time workers were more likely to choose a multiple group of referents (part-time workers working inside and outside the organization), a finding which has practical implications for employers. Inequity between the wage offered by the organization and by the market may increase job mobility for voluntary part-time workers. Underpaid voluntary part-time workers may also perceive themselves to be receiving inequitable treatment, affecting their morale and efficiency. Thus, managers who are concerned with organizational citizenship behavior should pay particular attention to the attitudes of both voluntary and involuntary part-time workers. Alternatively, they may want to screen both types in order to allocate those with more positive attitudes to roles in which discretionary behavior such as organizational citizenship are more critical to customer satisfaction. They could also restrict those with less positive attitudes to roles in which this is less critical, such as stock checking and warehouse keeping. Finally, it is recommended that managers seek to reduce differences in pay and benefits between part-time workers in their organization and those in the market.

6.3.2.7 Summary

To conclude, managers are encouraged to reduce differences in benefits between full-time and part-time workers and among part-time workers in the same organization.

They are also advised to reduce differences in pay and benefits between their own part-time workers and those working outside the organization. Furthermore, managers should not discriminate against part-time workers. Instead, they should aim to treat involuntary part-time workers fairly in terms of workloads, conditions and work schedules. They are likely to reciprocate by performing more extra-role behavior. Managers are advised to avoid radical changes in company policies by cutting the number of employees, which will strongly influence the long-term job security of voluntary part-time workers. Thus, they would be better off providing more internal promotional opportunities to part-time workers in order to increase organizational commitment and reduce turnover. Managers should also provide more communication channels for the use of part-time workers so as to better understand their expectations and reduce the possibility of violation of employment promises or misunderstandings. Finally, employers should spend more time and effort on training part-time workers in order to retain a skilled and stable workforce.

6.4 Concluding remark

Armstrong-Stassen, Al-Ma'aitah, Cameron and Horsburgh (1994) and Tansky and Gallagher (1995) concluded that significant differences in attitudes existed between different types of part-time workers, which in turn contributed to differences in work behavior. In other words, the results of the present study have given full support to the notion that part-time workers should not be viewed as a homogeneous group. They should not be treated as “missing persons” in the research literature on organizational behavior. Instead of focusing entirely on the relationship between work status and work behavior, or between job-related attitudes and work behavior, this work demonstrates that such links can be highly influenced by work status.

Furthermore, the present research has provided more concrete information about individual part-time workers' expectations and their perceptions of their work arrangements, following on from Feldman (1990). These qualities have been systematically investigated using qualitative and quantitative methods rather than assumed, as in the research done by Burchell and Rubery (1990); Burchell and Rubery (1994), who instead drew inferences from analysis of the practices and policies of employees. This survey of part-time workers has also systematically addressed the

issue of part-time employees' characteristics (social and demographic), natures, attitudes and perceptions. It has also included their perceived willingness to comply with different types of working-time regimes, an area generally neglected in research on working-time. On the whole, the present research framework on part-time work could still, to a large extent, be applied to part-time workers in the food, hotel, retail and telecommunication industries in Hong Kong.

The research conclusions, recommendations and limitations, together with suggestions for future research, will be discussed and presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 7 Conclusions and Recommendations

This research had four main aims. Firstly, it sought to test the relationship between job-related attitudes (perception of psychological contract violation and the fairness perception) and behavior (organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior and intention to leave the organization). Its second aim was to test the moderating role of work status on the interactions between the job-related attitudes and work behavior for part-time workers in Hong Kong. The third purpose was to explore the compared referents used among different types of part-time workers (voluntary / involuntary), with the final aim being to recommend strategies for employers and government in order to attract, motivate and retain a pool of skilled part-time workers.

Specifically, the results of this study have indicated that a range of personal-level, job-level and organizational-level initiatives which focus on enhancing both organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior should be implemented and maintained in order to reduce turnover of part-time workers. Personal-level factors include the personal perception of the employment relationship, whereas job-level factors refer to the perception of preferred work status. Organizational factors, which contribute to the retention of skilled and knowledgeable part-time workers, should also be identified and prioritized.

Employers would be well advised to understand the reasons for their part-time workers' turnover intention and the different expectations of the voluntary and involuntary groups. Furthermore, they should be encouraged to understand the relationships between the perception of psychological contract violation, fairness perception, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover intention. These are of particular relevance to managers and practitioners both because of the costs of employee withdrawal behavior (Russ and McNeilly, 1995) and the costs of hiring and training new part-time employees. Before implementing expensive programs in an attempt to increase organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior and reduce turnover intention, employers must first identify the specific factors that are likely to be associated with these outcomes. This chapter discusses a number of such factors, focusing on the opportunities for

managers to influence part-time workers' turnover intention. The key for managers will be their ability to understand and prioritize such influences.

7.1 Validity of instruments

The methodology was chosen and designed in order to assess the differences in job-related attitudes and work behavior between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers. Emphasis was placed on the goal of investigating the various inter-relationships between these qualities, because it was believed that work status would interact with them and so have differing degrees of influence.

A number of difficulties were encountered in measuring these perceptions. Firstly, perceptions are not factual. This makes them intrinsically difficult to measure because they are somewhat vague and difficult to express numerically. Secondly, the political nature of scrutinizing an individual or a department in an organization made it rather difficult to locate companies or respondents to participate in this study. The major problem when conducting research on nonstandard employees is obtaining large enough samples to permit meaningful analysis. In some cases, even when the firms had agreed to allow access to the researcher, individual senior managers or supervisors were not willing to participate. This may have been because they could not afford to risk their employers formally judging their performance and/or they were not prepared to see potentially critical results being made available to the public. These two key factors greatly influenced the research design.

The combination of questionnaires, part-time focus groups, and personal interviews to gather information was aimed at trying to identify the effect of work status on the relationship between job-related attitudes and work behavior as accurately as possible. Interviewing the supervisors allowed access from another angle, to give a fuller picture of the issues for part-time workers, providing the opportunity to ensure that all perspectives were being addressed in the study and that omissions due to methodology were minimized. A high level of consistency between the different types of result was generated by this triangulation process.

In order to enable a full analysis of part-time workers in the service industries, the

data came from sources in different branches of companies, different districts and different companies at different levels within the same industry. All the responses were anonymized, allowing results to be generated from a wide range of experiences. Hence, the findings have not relied on the culture or practices of any single organization and any resultant bias has been avoided.

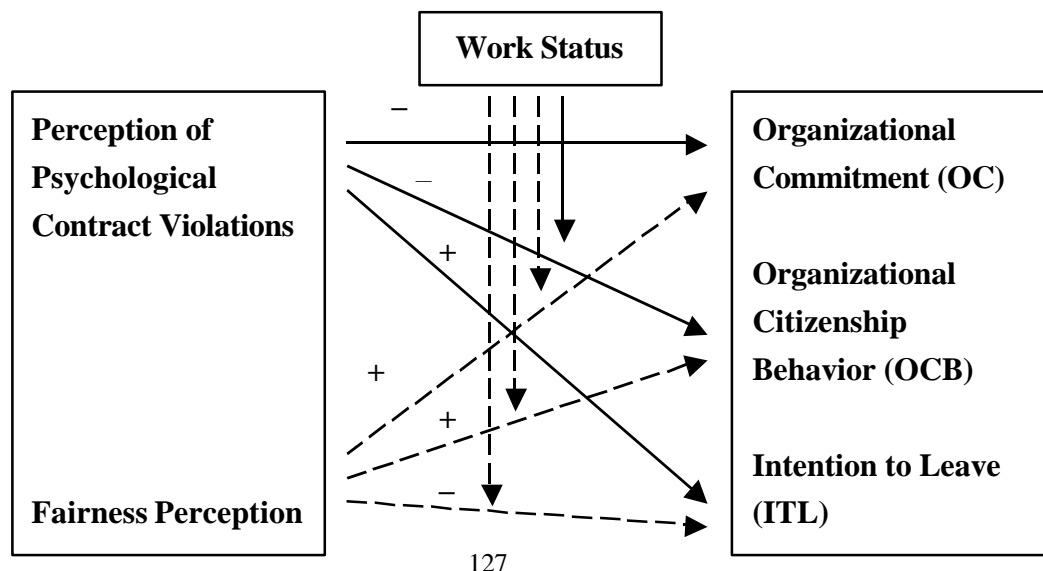
This methodology was appropriate to the inquiry. Part-time respondents to the survey were asked to indicate their attitudes towards employers and work. Furthermore, the questions used in the focus groups explored some more general issues around part-time work, such as ways of seeking it, the reasons for doing that type of work and some of the problems experienced by respondents.

Being able to interview the supervisors or managers also provided insight into their perceptions. The interview questions focused on general information about part-time work, such as their usual means of recruiting, their reasons for employing staff part-time, employment trends and problems faced. It also gave the opportunity to probe internal and external human resources policies and added to the level of detail available.

7.2 Findings of the study

The findings of this research can be summarized as follows:

Figure 7.2 Research framework model



1. Part-time workers were less committed and less willing to perform extra-role behavior if their employers had violated the employment promise.
2. Part-time workers had increased intention to leave if their employers had violated the employment promise.
3. Part-time workers were more committed and more willing to exhibit enhanced extra-role behavior if their employers had treated them fairly.
4. Part-time workers had lower turnover intention if their employers had treated them fairly.
5. Work status moderated the negative relationships between the perception of psychological contract violation and organizational commitment for voluntary part-time workers.
6. Work status moderated the relationship between the perceptions of psychological contract violation and organizational citizenship behavior, with the influence much stronger for voluntary than involuntary part-time workers.
7. Work status moderated the relationship between the perceptions of psychological contract violation and turnover intention for voluntary part-time workers.
8. Work status moderated the relationship between the fairness perception and organizational commitment, with the influence much stronger for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers.
9. Work status moderated the relationship between the fairness perception and organizational citizenship behavior, with the influence much stronger for involuntary than voluntary part-time workers.
10. Work status moderated the relationship between the fairness perception and turnover intention, with the influence much stronger for voluntary than involuntary part-time workers.

11. The compared referents of the voluntary part-time workers are other part-time workers working inside and outside the organization. They tend to put more weighting on external colleagues.
12. The compared referents of the involuntary part-time workers were full-time workers from outside the organization and their own past working experiences.
13. Part-time workers based their selection of compared referents on proximity, convenience, and the availability of information, making their comparison in terms of salary and benefits.

7.3 Recommendations

The purpose of this section is to suggest strategies or policies to employers and government departments who seek to motivate part-time workers in Hong Kong and increase their productivity and efficiency.

7.3.1 Recommendations to employers

The following methods would be likely to assist employers in motivating their part-time workers.

7.3.1.1 Internal promotions

Employers should provide part-time workers with clear goals or prospects within firms and encourage them to further their career in the company by increasing their involvement. It is particularly important to provide involuntary part-time workers with internal promotional prospects because they are more concerned with this issue. By adopting this strategy, the firm can also reduce or avoid the costs involved in recruiting someone new, who is unfamiliar with the work environment.

In order to reduce the costs of turnover amongst part-time workers, employers could make internal promotions available to their part-time workers first before

looking outside. By so doing, the employers can save recruitment costs and increase their long-term efficiency by retaining part-time staff in a stable work environment.

7.3.1.2 Reduce inequities between full-time and part-time workers

Employers are strongly recommended to enforce equality of work conditions between full-time and part-time workers. Very often, part-time workers being paid less than full-time workers in the same firm are asked to do the worst of the work in poor conditions. The qualitative findings of this study showed that part-time workers performed more extra-role behavior and reduced their turnover intention if they thought they were being fairly treated by their employers. The enforcement of job equality would increase extra-role behavior and reduce turnover intention, resulting in low turnover rates and reduced operational costs.

Employers should also reward part-time workers more equitably in relation to their competence, performance, experience (distributive justice), and tenure. Employers could do more to minimize wage inequities between part-time workers and market rates. Part-time workers frequently feel deprived if their pay is not directly related to their performance, resulting in increased job mobility as they look for firms that reward them more fairly. The large differences between employers' pay and market rates would increase turnover intention. Furthermore, part-time workers are likely to stop performing extra-role behavior or even increase stealing rates if they feel deprived. In contrast, if they perceive that their employers are treating them fairly in terms of pay and conditions, they will be more committed to their firm and turnover rates will be low. The result would be a more stable pool of highly competent and committed part-time staff, again reducing operating costs.

7.3.1.3 Reward and praise

Part-time workers were seldom rewarded or praised by their employers for outstanding performance, leading to demotivation. Managers should consider the potential effect of greater use of intrinsic rewards (verbal praise) on part-time workers' motivation to increase performance. Employers can make use of small gifts, verbal praise, medals and certificates to stimulate motivation. Furthermore, it is

recommended that employers provide more non-financial incentives (such as coupons) to increase commitment and motivation. By such means, part-time workers may more easily come to believe that the employers have identified and acknowledge their outstanding performance. Such intrinsic reward systems can thus help to motivate a pool of highly committed and stable part-time workforce and increase morale.

7.3.1.4 Reduce discriminations

Some part-time workers were being discriminated against by employers, particularly those who were older, female, newly immigrated, members of minority groups and who had fewer qualifications and skills. Some employers perceived part-time workers as inferior and less competent than full-time workers. To cite an example, some female part-time workers were being discriminated against because they were physically unable to do heavy work. The qualitative results of this study suggested that more involuntary than voluntary part-time workers were the victims of such discrimination. Involuntary part-time workers were competent to do full-time work, but could not obtain such positions. If inequitably treated, part-time workers will further reduce their commitment and extra-role behavior.

To cite another example, some employers may exclude part-time workers from company meetings. Instead of instigating this type of separation between full-time and part-time workers, it is strongly recommended that employers involve them in such events. In order to increase attendance rates, employers could give two weeks advance notice to part-time workers or even make attendance compulsory. Furthermore, employers can set a good example by involving part-time workers in work and non-work gatherings, thus making it less likely that other staff will follow their lead in discriminating against part-timers. It is recommended that employers treat full-time and part-time workers equally, according the latter more respect so as to establish a harmonious, long-term working relationship. If this is achieved, the part-time workers are more likely to feel that they have been identified and treated as a partner and member of a team. If as a result they increase their commitment and lower their turnover, as noted above, this can have a beneficial effect on operational costs.

7.3.1.5 Job security

The qualitative results of this study suggested that more voluntary than involuntary part-time workers had high expectations of long-term job security. Job insecurity in this context stems mainly from unstable working hours, unprotected rights and unpredictable termination of employment. Employers are advised to set a stable minimum number of working hours in each week in order to guarantee a basic income for the part-time workers. It is also recommended that employers give part-time workers a clear explanation, in advance, of their rights in terms of labor protections, nature of work, work conditions, workload, and benefits. This would help to reduce misunderstandings and disputes. Furthermore, termination of part-time employment in the service industries should be consistently made one week in advance, according to the labor law. This would give voluntary part-time workers more protection and reduce their perception of violation of the employment promise. As a result, they will tend to have increased tenure due to their perception of long-term job security. Voluntary part-time workers will not use the excuse that there is an inadequate number of working hours or unexpected work conditions in order to leave. Thus, the firm can attract and retain a stable group of voluntary part-time workers to maintain the daily operation.

7.3.1.6 Improve communication and training

Employers are recommended to increase their investment in training and communications for part-time workers. The long-term benefits derived will far outweigh the cost, because part-time workers can add value by being able to perform multi-functional tasks as a result of diversity training. Skilled part-time workers with specialist expertise can share some of the work of middle management, enabling redundancies within the workforce to be rationalized. Part-time workers who receive ongoing training are likely to have lower turnover rates because they feel their firms are investing in them. In the long term, the benefits derived from keeping these part-time workers on will far outweigh the cost if they have lowered turnover.

The qualitative results reported here suggested that many part-time workers were unaware of the proper channels through which to express work-related problems or

communicate with their employers, which contributed to their perceptions of psychological contract violation. It is important for the employers to provide communication channels for part-time workers, so as to resolve conflicts and reduce misunderstandings. These can be formal (eg. company meetings) and / or informal (e-mails or informal company gatherings, such as parties, tours or picnics). Middle management is strongly advised to approach front-line part-time workers directly and regularly in order to clarify any misunderstandings of company policies or simply to listen to complaints and suggestions. Part-time workers can therefore make use of these communications channels to inquire about their rights and benefits. As a result, the employers are more likely to be able to retain a group of stable and responsible part-time workers.

7.3.1.7 Flexible roster hours

It appears from the results reported here that part-time workers, especially women with domestic responsibilities, preferred to have flexible work hours. Furthermore, the results also suggested that female voluntary part-time workers were more stable when compared to involuntary workers. Employers might therefore consider arranging specific shift hours for female part-time workers, such as 9:00 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. or 6:00 p.m. to 10:00 p.m. This would attract more women with children under five into part-time work.

If part-time workers were treated fairly in terms of hours of work, they had turnover intention and increased commitment. Thus, employers can adopt a flexible rostering scheme in order to develop a group of committed and stable part-time force without adding to costs. A good technique for employers to implement is the employee-aided rostering system, where the manager pins up a weekly roster which shows the workloads but not the working time for individual part-time employees. Part-time employees can thus enter their own work schedules and preferences on this weekly roster, after they have agreed them with their partners (in a two-person team). If the actual working time required is not fully met by the roster the increased workload is dealt with by the use of overtime, which is remunerated with time off in lieu. Thus, having obtained prior agreement from management, part-time employees can choose when to take their extra time off and enter their chosen times on the staff

roster. This system has been practised in Western countries and has had the effect of reducing sickness absence rates to almost nil. The empty roster brings the part-time employees face to face with the store's operational requirements, making every one of them aware of their own responsibilities. It should be emphasized that it is the part-time workers themselves who make the decisive contribution to the business' success. Thus, an employee-aided rostering system like this is designed to help the firm to develop commitment in the part-time workforce, which leads in turn to more reliable work schedules and lessened need to cover absence at short notice.

7.3.2 Recommendations to government

The above section has discussed the action employers can take to motivate the part-time workers. The purpose of the next part is to suggest strategies for the government to implement.

7.3.2.1 Tighter enforcement of labor laws

The qualitative results suggested that more voluntary part-time workers would have higher turnover intention if they felt their job security was being reduced. Furthermore, relatively more involuntary than voluntary workers will reduce their extra-role behavior if workload increases. Lack of job security is demonstrated by inadequate working hours, unfair work schedules and unfair workloads. In order to generate a stable pool of responsible, stable and motivated part-time staff in a downsizing and restructuring economy, it would be highly desirable for the government to act to enforce the law and penalize employers who are taking advantage of part-time employees.

Concerning the question of inadequate working hours, some employers in the retail industry (for example, Wellcome) have indicated plans to employ part-time workers for less than 18 hours per week. By so doing, these employers can avoid the obligation to extend legal protection to these workers such as contributions to the mandatory provident fund, days off, and severance and long service payments. Tighter laws should be enacted to stop employers from taking advantage of part-time workers in this way.

Work schedules are another area where action could be taken. Some employers in the hotel industry (for example, the Mandarin and the Regent Hotel) instructed their part-time employees to work consecutively for three weeks and then have one week of rest. Again, this enabled the companies to avoid extending legal protection to the part-time employees, such as their obligation in the event of accident or injury. The government is strongly advised to plug these loopholes in labor law by encouraging part-time workers to report employers who abuse it.

The results of the qualitative enquiry reported here suggest that the workloads of part-time employees were not proportional to their pay. Some employers will unscrupulously increase the workloads of part-time workers up to the point that they can no longer tolerate the conditions and resign. By so doing, employers can remove employees without the need to compensate them. As a result, the government is strongly advised to devise clear policies in this area and impose heavy penalties on employers who abuse such gray areas in the Part-time Employment Ordinance. In addition, the government is strongly recommended to act against employers who seek to avoid their legal responsibilities by employing part-time workers.

7.3.2.2 Provide training subsidies

It was reported earlier that more voluntary than involuntary part-time workers felt they were being discriminated against at work, which resulted in reduced loyalty to their organization. This was especially true for female, voluntary part-time workers. The data also suggested that relatively more involuntary than voluntary staff felt they were victims of discrimination, resulting in higher turnover intention. In other words, these involuntary part-time workers were being discriminated against because other staff thought they lacked the competence to do full-time work. Very often, such discrimination stems from lack of training and experience. An additional factor is the high expectations of part-time workers in receiving training, which emerged from the qualitative data analysis.

Part-time workers are less likely to perceive a violation of the employment promises if they continuously receive training. As a result, and to reciprocate, they will

exhibit more extra-role behavior and have lower turnover intention. If they received training, they would not consider themselves to be incompetent. Furthermore, the quantitative results also revealed that relatively more involuntary than voluntary part-time workers would think they are being fairly treated, resulting in increased loyalty. These highly committed part-time workers can help by performing multiple roles, which can reduce the workload of middle management and result in lower operational costs in the long term. However, such training can incur high costs for employers at the outset. The government could take the initiative in lessening this financial burden by providing more diversified and practical training courses, training subsidies, and tax concessions for part-time workers.

Part-time workers would be best placed to receive technical, comprehensive and flexible training courses, for example in computing. Besides, the government recommends flexible courses for female part-time workers because they are usually the ones who are constrained by household responsibilities. The government could therefore encourage employers to create part-time jobs at technical, professional and managerial levels by implementing specific policies. In order to help the employers to achieve such targets, the government would need to provide more diversified, practical, and flexible retraining programs to increase the qualifications and skills of the staffing pool. More subsidies or tax concessions could be offered to part-time workers who have undertaken and completed these courses. This would increase their capacity and motivation to provide a multi-functional service to employers.

7.4 Implications for future studies

This research has identified many factors influencing the employment relationships between part-time workers and the employers. However, a number of opportunities exist for further research.

The present study has provided evidence of variations in part-time workers' attitudes and behavior, based on whether their work status is voluntary or involuntary. However, additional research is needed to look into the different attitudes and work behavior among other types of part-time workers, such as workplace attendance, absenteeism, job security, affective commitment, tardiness, and so forth. Such work

could validate and enhance the findings presented here. Furthermore, the moderating or mediating effect of other variables, such as the availability of attractive employment alternatives, competency, mood and company culture or beliefs, on the relationship between job-related attitudes and work behavior, could usefully be tested.

Other types of work status could also be tested in future research, such as seasonal versus year round, permanent / temporary, student / non-student, organizational-hired / agency-hired, and sole-employment / moonlighting. This work should also attempt to determine which compared referents other types of part-time workers used to judge the fairness of their rewards. These might include part-time workers working under a revised contract due to downsizing or restructuring (in other words, those who were full-time before the economic crises and now have causal or contingent contracts). Future research might also compare part-time workers' present status with their past status and any perceived inequity. It would also be of value to test whether or not part-time workers use the same compared referents over time. Such comparisons may influence their perceptions of their work status.

The level of part-time workers studied could be raised from those who perform low-skill and simple tasks to those involved in medium-skill and complex professional work. The present results also need to be replicated in other types of service industries with a wider range of part-time jobs. This could include production staff or professional part-time workers in accountancy, law, banking, academic and insurance.

Furthermore, as well as studying the effect of downsizing on part-time workers, the recent implementation of the compulsory provident fund and the proposed medical insurance scheme in Hong Kong may have a further impact. It would be worth investigating the effect of these steps on employment relationships between part-time workers and employers in other types of service industries.

Last but not least, the methodology could be extended to other functional areas to explore the relationship between part-time workers and employers in other industries. Differences in attitudes and behavior of part-time staff could be compared across organizations, for example between civil and commercial firms.

Finally, the present study only focused on Hong Kong. However, it would be of clear interest to be able to compare it to the situation in other Asian countries, such as Singapore, which has a very similar legal, economic and social context.

7.5 Limitations of the present study

A possible limitation of this study was the low response rate. Respondents in Hong Kong were not keen on, or familiar with, answering questionnaires or giving interviews. People in Hong Kong are also sensitive about revealing confidential company information, which added to the difficulty of doing this research.

Furthermore, unequal numbers of voluntary and involuntary part-time workers responded to the qualitative and quantitative sections of the study. Slightly more voluntary (57) than involuntary part-time workers (43) participated in the quantitative research, but more involuntary (45) than voluntary (28) staff took part in the focus groups. This may have led to some underestimation of the problems of involuntary part-time workers in downsizing situations.

One must exercise some caution in interpreting the findings. Respondents were categorized as either voluntary or involuntary based on self-report rather than analysis of their work schedules, which could lead to the problem of common method bias. Feldman (1990) made a distinction between the two groups based on the regularity of their work schedules. However, it can be argued that the local job market may explain the part-time workers' perceptions of their work status given the high unemployment rates after the Financial Crisis. Full-time job opportunities and other part-time positions were not abundant in the local market at the time the research was carried out. Therefore, even though the involuntary part-time workers may not have wanted to work part-time, they may have had no choice. The range of part-time jobs held by respondents was also somewhat limited.

The present research has only examined two types of part-time workers in only four types of service industries. Workers in these sectors tend to have low skills and educational levels. The research results have lended support to the proposition that work status moderates the relationship between job-related attitudes and work

behavior for voluntary and involuntary part-time workers in four types of service industries. However, the results could not be generalized to other types of part-time workers and industries.

These limitations are counteracted by several strengths. To offset the problem of low response, personal networking was used to increase the response rate by 22%. However, the problem of the uneven number of voluntary and involuntary part-time workers was not controlled for in this process, because part-time workers were sampled at random from the labor market. To minimize the problem, data were obtained from three to six companies from different levels in the same industry, located in various different districts. Furthermore, the total sample size and the size of the various subgroups of part-time workers were large enough to ensure confidence in the results. Hong Kong is heavily reliant on the service industries and the in particular the four industries studied, which employ the largest number of part-time workers. Although the results cannot be generalized to all types of service industries, they could at least be applied to the majority of part-time workers in these key service industries (hotel, telecommunications, retail and food).

The aim of this research was to prove that there are differences in attitudes and behavior between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers and those part-time workers could be segmented into different categories. Furthermore, this study also investigated whether or not work status interacted with job-related attitudes in influencing work behavior. Finally, it examined the different compared referents, the reasons for choosing such compared referents and what criteria staff look for in selecting their compared referents. The findings have several key practical implications for the relationship between part-time workers and employers. Obviously, the study is only a preliminary exploration of an area that warrants extensive further investigation. The methodology utilized and the findings of this research will serve as a solid basis for future studies of part-time employment.

Appendix 1a: English version questionnaire

Management Department of Lingnan University conducts the study on the employment relationship between employer and part-time employees in this academic research. We hope to study how different expectations between employer (in terms of efficiency and cost) and part-time employees (in terms of salary and benefits) influence the work related attitudes of the part-time employees which caused the changes in their work outcomes (in terms of job involvement)

Part-time workers fill this questionnaire. All the answered given by the respondents will not be revealed to others without the consent of the respondents and will ***keep confidential.***

- ***Instruction 1:*** Please completes the ***WHOLE*** questionnaire and circle ***ONLY ONE*** answer in the appropriate box
- ***Instruction 2:*** Please put your completed questionnaire in the sealed envelop provided
- ***Instruction 3:*** To encourage the participation of part-time employees filling this questionnaire, all the respondents completing this questionnaire will be given a souvenir as gift

Part 1: Work status

1. Do you prefer to work part-time over full-time? (Yes / No)

2. If there were full-time job available outside, would you still like to work as part-time here? (Yes / No)

Part 2: “Employers make promises to give employees certain things in exchange for their contributions to the organization”. Use the scale below, please indicate the extent to which you believe your employer will be obligated or owe you.

Expectations of Psychological contract (1 = Not at all; 5 = Very highly)

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. I think it is the obligation of employer to provide me with promotion and advancement. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. I think it is the obligation of employer to provide me with high pay. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. I think it is the obligation of employer to provide me with pay based on current level of performance. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. I think it is the obligation of employer to provide me with training. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. I think it is the obligation of employer to provide me with long-term job security. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. I think it is the obligation of employer to provide me with career development. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. I think it is the obligation of employer to provide me with sufficient power and responsibility. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

Part 3: Think about the extent to which your employer made implicit or explicit promises to provide you with these following items. Then think about how well your employer has fulfilled those promises. Using the scale below, please indicate the extent to which your employer has fulfilled the following obligations.

Fulfillment of psychological contract (1 = Not at all fulfilled; 5 = Very well fulfilled)

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 1. My employer has provided me with promotion and advancement. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. My employer has provided me with high pay. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. My employer has provided me with pay based on current level of performance. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

| | |
|--|-----------|
| | |
| 4. My employer has provided me with training. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. My employer has provided me with long-term job security. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. My employer has provided me with career development. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. My employer has provided me with sufficient power and responsibility. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

Part 4:

1. When you want to compare with someone (e.g. benefits and salary), who will you usually choose to compare with (full time employees in your working organization / part time employees in your working organization / part time employees in other organization / full time employees in other organization / other employees in previous served organization).

2. Why do you choose the particular ones to be compared in Question 1?

Part 5: When compared with your full-time colleagues, how do you think your employer has treated you fairly in terms of the following items? (1 = Low fairness; 5 = High fairness)

| | |
|------------------------|-----------|
| 1. Pay. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. Benefits. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. Vocations. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. Holidays. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. Assignments. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. Scheduling hours. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. Working conditions. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

Part 6: Please indicate your opinions in the following statements.

(1 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree)

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help my working organization successful. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. I talk up this working organization to my friends as a great organization to work for. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. I feel very little loyalty to my working organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

| | |
|--|-----------|
| | |
| 4. I accept almost any type of job assignments in order to keep working for my working organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. I find that my values and the working organization' values are very similar. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of my working organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. I am just as well be working for a different working organization as long as the type of works were similar. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 8. My working organization really inspires the very best to me in the way of job performance. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave my working organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 10. I am extremely glad that I have choose this working organization to work for over others that I consider at the time I joined. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 11. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this working organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this working organization' s policies on important matters relating to its employees. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 13. I really care about the fate of this working organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 14. For me, this is the best of all possible organization for which to work. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 15. Deciding to work for this working organization was a definite mistake on my part. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

Part 7: Please indicate your opinions towards the following statements.

(1 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree)

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. I am willing to stand up to protect the reputation of my company. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. I am eager to tell outsiders good news about my company and clarify their misunderstanding. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. I am willing to make constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of the company. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. I am willing to actively attend company meetings. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. I am willing to assist new colleagues to adjust to work environment. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. I am willing to help colleagues to solve work related problems. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 7. I am willing to cover work assignments for colleague when needed. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 8. I am willing to coordinate and communicate with colleagues. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 9. I am willing to comply rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 10. I am willing to take my job seriously and rarely make mistakes. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 11. I do not mind taking on new or challenging assignments. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 12. I am willing to have self-study to improve my work performance. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 13. I often arrive early and start to work immediately. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 14. I will use illicit tactics to seek personal influence and gain with harmful effect on interpersonal harmony in the organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 15. I will use position power to pursue selfish personal gain. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 16. I will take credits, avoid blames and fight fiercely for personal gain. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 17. I often speak ill of the supervisor or colleagues behind their backs. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 18. I will conduct personal business in business time (e.g. trading stocks, shopping and going to barber / beauty shops). | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 19. I will use company resources to do personal business (e.g. company phones, copy machines, fax machines, computers and cars). | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 20. I will view sick leave as benefit and make excuse for taking sick leave. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

Part 8: Please indicate your opinions towards the following statements.

(1 = Strongly disagree; 5 = Strongly agree)

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 1. As soon as I can find a better job, I will leave the company. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. I will actively looking for a job outside. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. I will seriously thinking of quitting my job. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. I often think about quitting my job. | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. I will work at this company one year from now. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Part 9: Personnel Information

1. Age _____
2. Sex (Male / Female)
3. Type of working industry (Retail / Hotel / Telecommunication / Food)
4. No. of month(s) already served in this organization _____ (On Average)
5. Educational level (Primary Educated / Secondary Educated / Tertiary educated or above)
6. Marital status (Married / Unmarried)
7. Number of children (None / 1 / 2 / 3 / More than 3)
8. Primary income earner in the family (Yes / No)
9. On average, income per week \$ _____ or Hourly income \$ _____

_____ Thank you for your kind co-operation _____

Appendix 1b: Chinese version questionnaire

這份問卷的目的是去了解僱主和兼職僱員之間的僱用關係。我們希望從僱主的期望 (如效率和成本) 和兼職僱員之間的不同期望中 (如薪酬和待遇)，去理解因不同的期望而會影響兼職僱員的工作態度，從而影響兼職僱員的工作表現 (如參予感)。

這份是嶺南大學管理系所做的兼職僱員問卷，
所有問卷內容未經填此問卷者同意，不會外洩，
所有內容絕對保密。

指示 1: 請將全部問卷填完並圈出一個你認為最合適的答案

指示 2: 請在不超過一星期內，將填完的問卷放入已提供的回郵信封，然後寄出

甲 工作狀況

1. 你寧願做兼職多於全職？(是 / 否)
2. 如果外面有全職工作的空缺，你是否依然喜歡留在此處做兼職？(是 / 否)

乙 僱主給予許諾 (升級和高薪等) 給僱員以換取僱員在公司內的貢獻。根據你的理解，請指出你對以下句子的同意程度 (1 = 沒有 5 = 很高)

| | |
|--------------------------|-----------|
| 1. 我覺得僱主有責任給予我晉升。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. 我覺得僱主有責任給予我高薪。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. 我覺得僱主有責任根據我現有的表現發放薪金。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. 我覺得僱主有責任給予我培訓。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. 我覺得僱主有責任給予我長期工作。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. 我覺得僱主有責任給予我事業上的發展。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. 我覺得僱主有責任給予我足夠的權力和責任。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |

丙 請細想在僱主給予你的許諾 (升級和高薪等) 當中，評估僱主在履行這些許諾時程度上的好與壞 (1 = 好的履行 5 = 差的履行)

| | |
|----------------------|-----------|
| 1. 我的僱主給予我晉升。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. 我的僱主給予我高薪。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. 我的僱主根據我現有的表現發放薪金。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. 我的僱主給予我培訓。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. 我的僱主保證我可長期工作。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. 我的僱主給予我事業上的發展。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. 我的僱主給予我足夠的權力和責任。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |

丁 1.當我要和其他人 (在薪金和福利上) 作比較時，我的對象會是 (公司內的全職員工 / 公司內的兼職員工 / 其他公司的全職員工 / 其他公司的兼職員工 / 以前服務過公司內的員工 / 其他, 請說明 _____)

丁 2. 我為何選擇 (丁 1) 這個比較對象? _____

丁 3. 與 (丁 1 這個比較對象) 作比較時, 請你評估僱主在以下項目中對你的公平程度 (1 = 低 5 = 高)

| | |
|-----------|-----------|
| 1. 發放薪金。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. 福利。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. 有薪年假。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. 公眾假期。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. 職務。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. 工作時間表。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. 工作條件。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |

戊 請表示你對以下句子的同意程度 (1 = 完全不同意 5 = 完全同意)

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. 我願意付出多於一般期望的努力放在工作內去令公司更加成功。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. 對朋友提及我的公司時, 我認為這是理想的服務公司。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. 對我公司沒有多少的忠誠。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. 為了繼續留在我公司裏工作, 我願意接受幾乎任何類型的職務。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. 我的價值觀與公司的價值觀很相近。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. 提起我公司時, 我會有自豪感。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. 只要工作類型相近, 我會為其他公司服務。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 8. 公司切實地激勵我在工作上盡力做到最佳。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 9. 工作環境上少少的變化可導致我辭職。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 10. 我感到非常慶幸, 在考慮加入時, 我能捨其他公司而選擇現時的公司工作。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 11. 長期在這公司工作, 我所得的利益不多。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 12. 對於關乎僱員的重要問題上, 我很多時發覺很難同意這公司的一些政策。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |

| | |
|----------------------------|-----------|
| | |
| 13. 我真正關心公司的命運。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 14. 我認為這是一間理想的公司。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 15. 加入這公司工作，對我來說是個絕對錯誤的決定。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |

己 請表示你對以下句子的同意程度 (1 = 完全不同意 5 = 完全同意)

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. 我願意挺身保護公司的名譽。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. 我願意熱心向外界講及公司的好消息以及澄清對公司的誤解。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. 我願意為改善公司的運作而提供建設性的提議。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. 我願意主動出席公司會議。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. 我願意協助新同事去適應工作環境。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. 我願意協助同事解決有關工作上的問題。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. 我願意在有需要時分擔同事的職務。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 8. 我願意和其他同事協調和溝通。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 9. 我願意在沒有人察覺和沒有證據可尋下，仍然遵守公司規則和程序。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 10. 我願意認真地工作和絕少犯錯。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 11. 我願意不介意接受新或有挑戰性的職務。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 12. 我願意自學去提升工作表現。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 13. 我願意早到和立即開始工作。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 14. 我會用非正途的手法取得個人的影響力，並且從破壞公司內人際間的和諧之中取得利益。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 15. 我會利用職權去追求個人得益。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 16. 我會為了自己名譽而逃避責任，並強烈地爭取個人利益。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 17. 我會背後說主管和同事的壞話。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 18. 我會在工作時間內做私事 (買賣股票、購物、美容和理髮)。 | 1 2 3 4 5 |

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19. 我會利用公司資源作私人用途 (公司電話、傳真機、影印機、電腦和公司車)。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. 我會視病假為利益，並為取得病假而用藉口。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

庚 請表示你對以下句子的同意程度 (1 = 完全不同意 5 = 完全同意)

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. 如果找到更好的工作，我會離開此公司。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. 我會積極尋找其他工作。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. 我會謹重考慮辭去我的工作。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. 我經常想著辭職。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. 我將會在此公司服務一年。 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

辛 個人資料

1. 年齡_____
2. 性別 (男 / 女)
3. 服務的行業類別 (零售 / 酒店 / 電訊 / 飲食)
4. 已在公司服務時期 _____ (月) _____ (平均)
5. 教育程度 (小學畢業 / 中學畢業 / 預科畢業或大學以上)
6. 婚姻狀況 (已婚 / 未婚)
7. 子女數目 (沒有子女 / 1 個 / 2 個 / 3 個 / 多於 3 個)
8. 家庭主要收入者 (是 / 否)
9. 平均每星期收入 \$ _____ 或平均時薪 \$ _____

_____ 多謝合作 _____

Appendix 2a

Lingnan University,
Management Department,
8 Castle Peak Road,
Tune Mun.

13th May 2000.

Dear Sir/Madam,

Invitation to participate in survey

I am a final year Master student who is major in Management at Lingnan University. Presently, I am undertaking research focusing at “The Influence of Work Status on the Work Outcomes Among Part-Time Workers in the Service Industries of Hong Kong”.

The purpose of this survey is to understand the different perceptions and attitudes among part-time workers in service industries of Hong Kong. We want to know which aspects of the employment relationship are most valued by part-time workers, which areas raise concerns among part-time works, and ways in which part-time workers concerns can be addressed. By then, we can formulate more constructive strategies to motivate and retain qualified part-time workers in your company.

Your company is the market leader in the service industry and employs large numbers of part-time workers. We would like to arouse the participation of your company to participate in this survey. Here we have enclosed a self-addressed envelope, one set of Chinese and English versions of questionnaires. This questionnaire is especially addressed for your part-time workers and it is recommended to encourage your part-time workers to spend 10 minutes to fill the multiple choice format questionnaires immediately after office hours. The type of questions asked in the questionnaires will only concern the attitudes and perceptions of part-time workers towards their employment relationship. The answers of questionnaires will be highly confidential and will only be used for academic purposes.

Upon receipt of this letter, please allow me to contact you all again. Please do not hesitate to contact me for any inquiry by phone 2616 8308 or mobile 93xx8xx3 or e-mail: millissa@ln.edu.hk

Yours faithfully,
Millissa Cheung

Appendix 2b

Lingnan University,
Management Department,
8 Castle Peak Road,
Tune Mun.

18th August 2000.

Dear Sir/Madam,

Invitation to interviews

I am a final year Master student who is major in Management at Lingnan University. Presently, I am undertaking research focusing at “The Influence of Work Status on the Work Outcomes Among Part-Time Workers in the Service Industries of Hong Kong”.

This topic is closely related to the present downsizing economic situation where each company is using large amount of part-time workers to replace full-time employees. Do you want to know how to best motivate your part-time workers and retain qualified ones? It will be interesting and worth investigating if more attitudes and perceptions of part-time workers can be known. However, the answer to the above raised question strongly and promptly needs your enthusiastic participation.

Previously, I have collected the questionnaires back from those service part-time workers in Hong Kong. Presently, I want to arrange a number of interviews from (1) supervisors / managers and (2) part-time workers to confirm or disconfirm the results, which I have obtained previously. The target deadline will be at the end of December this year. These interviews will only cost you at most 20 minutes and will be conducted in your office in daytime.

Since it is an interesting topic, which closely relate to our future change of labor market in Hong Kong, I would like to invite you all to participate. These service part-time workers include those working in the retail, telecommunications, hotel and food industries. Upon receipt of this letter, please allow me to contact you all again. Please do not hesitate to contact me by phone 2616 8308 or mobile 93xx8xx3 or e-mail: millissa@ln.edu.hk

Yours faithfully,
Millissa Cheung

Appendix 3a: Part-time workers focus groups

1. How long have you been working in this company? (Months)
2. Usually, where do you find part-time work?
3. What are the three major reasons that you do part-time work?
4. Have you received any training and do your company provides internal promotions to you?
5. At present, are you working happily here? If yes, why? If no, why not?
6. Generally, what factors do you think will influence your relationship between you and the employer? Can you cite those factors?
7. How will you treat your employment relationship with your employers, for example, in terms of satisfaction / harmonious / problematic? Why do you treat it that way?
8. Specifically, what will you look for in part-time work in terms of pay, workload, promotions, training, scheduling hours, working districts, long-term job security, power and responsibility, etc? How far do you think your employer has fulfilled the above factors?
9. What is your reaction if your employer has not fulfilled the your expectations in part-time work? Can you cite an example?
10. Do you think your employer has treated you fairly in work in terms of pay, benefits, vacations, holidays, assignments, scheduling hours and working conditions (working environment and districts)?
11. What are your reactions if your employer treats you unfairly at work? Can you cite an example?
12. Will you compare yourself with others in terms of work issues, for example, pay and benefits? Which groups do you usually compare yourself with? Why did you choose them to compare with? What aspects are you comparing?
13. Will you continue to keep working part-time work in the coming year? If yes, why? If no, why not?

Appendix 3b: 兼職員工小組討論

1. 你在此公司工作了多久？(以月作單位)
2. 通常你從何處找到兼職工作？
3. 試舉三個原因令你做兼職工作？
4. 你的公司有否給予你培訓和提供晉升機會？
5. 現在來說，你工作開心嗎？若是，為什麼？若否，為什麼？
6. 請列出有什麼原因會影響你與僱主之間的關係？
7. 你現在與僱主的關係是怎樣？例如滿足 / 和諧 / 有問題？為什麼會這樣？
8. 在特別情形下，在找尋兼職工作時你通常著重什麼？薪金 / 工作量 / 晉升機會 / 培訓 / 工作時間 / 長期可工作 / 工作地區 / 權力和責任？你覺得僱主在以上提及的因素上有多滿足你心目中的要求？
9. 若果僱主未能履行工作上你對兼職的期子？
10. 你覺得僱主在工作上對你有多公平:薪金、福利、假期、大假、工作、工作時間和工作情況(工作環境及地區)？
11. 若僱主在工作上對你不公平時，
12. 你會否與其他人在工作的範疇下作比較？例如薪金和福利？你的比較對象是誰？為什麼會選他們比較？通常比較什麼項目？
13. 你會否在未來一年內仍選擇做兼職？若是，為什麼？若否，為什麼？

Appendix 4a: Supervisory interview

1. What is the proportion of part-time workers compared to the total number of workforce?
2. What ways does your company look for part time workers?
3. What are the major reasons for employing part-time workers in your company?
4. How will you predict the trend of part-time employment in your company?
5. Has your company provided training and promotions to part-time workers?
6. Can you categorize different types of part-time workers? Can you cite their types and characteristics regard to work behaviors?
7. Specifically, what problems have you encountered in part-time employment? Can you cite an example?
8. What factors do you think will influence perceptions of part-time workers in work? Can you cite those factors?
9. What do you think the reaction to part-time workers would be if you treated them unfairly in work? Can you cite an example?
10. What do you think the reaction to part-time workers would be if you have partially fulfilled or have violated the expectations of employment promises to part-time workers? Can you cite an example?
11. What other factors do you think will strongly influence the work behaviors of the part-time workers? Can you cite three factors?
12. Do you think the part-time workers in your company will compare among themselves? If so, with whom? If not, why? What items do you think they will usually compare? In your opinion, why do you think they compare themselves with others?

Appendix 4b: 主管面談

1. 請問你公司內兼職員工與總數的員工比例是怎樣？
2. 通常你會用什麼方法聘請兼職員工？
3. 有什麼原因令你會聘請兼職員工？
4. 你對將來聘請兼職員工的趨勢有什麼看法？
5. 你有否給予兼職員工培訓和提供晉升機會？
6. 你怎樣將兼職員工分類？可否談及他們各類在工作行為上的特徵？
7. 在特別情形下，在聘請兼職員工時，有否遇到困難？可否舉一些例子？
8. 有什麼原因會影響兼職員工對工作的看法，請試舉這些因素？
9. 若果你在工作上對兼職員工不公平時，你覺得他們會有什麼反應？試舉一些例子。
10. 若你只能部份地滿足兼職員工對僱傭的期望時或你已違反僱傭承諾的期望時，他們會有什麼反應？試舉一些例子。
11. 有什麼因素會影響兼職員工在工作上的表現？試舉出這些因素？
12. 你覺得公司內的兼職員工有否與其他人作比較？若比較，會與誰？若不比較，為什麼？他們會比較什麼項目？在你的意見來說，為什麼會這樣比較？

Appendix 5: Factor analysis of organizational commitment

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1. Value towards the organization | | | | |
| a. I am willing to put in a greater deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help my working organization successful. | .75 | | | |
| b. I talk up this working organization to my friends as a great organization to work for. | .71 | | | |
| c. I am proud to tell others that I am part of my working organization. | .59 | | | |
| d. My working organization really inspires the very best to me in the way of job performance. | .58 | | | |
| e. I am extremely glad that I have chose this working organization to work for over others that I consider at the time I joined. | .51 | | | |
| 2. Attachment of the organization | | | | |
| a. I feel very little loyalty to my working organization. | | .42 | | |
| b. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this working organization. | | .31 | | |
| c. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this working organization' s policies on important matters relating to its employees. | | .92 | | |
| 3. Loyalty toward the organization | | | | |
| a. I am just as well be working for a different working organization as long as the type of work were similar. | | | .60 | |
| b. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave my working organization. | | | .50 | |
| c. Deciding to work for this working organization was a definite mistake on my part. | | | .50 | |
| 4. Identification of the organization | | | | |
| a. I find that my values and the working organization' s values are very similar. | | | | .43 |

| | | | | | |
|---|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| b. I really care about the fate of this working organization. | | | | | .47 |
| c. For me, this is the best of all possible organization for which to work. | | | | | .74 |
| Reliability (Cronbach' s alpha) | .82 | .53 | .56 | .68 | |
| <hr/> | | | | | |
| (R) denotes items that have been reverse coded | | | | | |
| <hr/> | | | | | |

Appendix 6: Factor analysis of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|-----|-----|---|
| 1. <i>Interpersonal harmony</i> | | | |
| a. I will take credits, avoid blames and fight fiercely for personal gain. | .70 | | |
| b. I will use position power to pursue selfish personal gain. | .80 | | |
| c. I will view sick leave as benefit and make excuse of taking sick leave. | .61 | | |
| d. I will conduct personal businesses in business time (e.g. trading stocks, shopping and going to barber/beauty shops). | .60 | | |
| e. I will use company resources to do personal business (e.g. company phones, copy machines, face machines, computers and cars). | .70 | | |
| f. I often speak ill of the supervisor or colleagues behind their back. | .75 | | |
| g. I will use illicit tactics to seek personal influence and gain with harmful effect on interpersonal harmony in the organization. | .72 | | |
| 2. <i>Conscientiousness towards the organization</i> | | | |
| a. I am eager to tell outsiders good news about my company and clarify their misunderstandings. | | .85 | |
| b. I am willing to have self-study to improve my work performance. | | .78 | |
| c. I do not mind taking on new or challenging assignments. | | .70 | |
| d. I am willing to take my job seriously and rarely make mistakes. | | .60 | |
| e. I often arrive early and start to work immediately. | | .52 | |
| f. I am willing to stand up to protect the reputations of my company. | | .48 | |
| g. I am willing to make constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of the company. | | .53 | |

| | | | | |
|--|-----|-----|--|-----|
| h. I am willing to comply rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no evidence can be traced. | | | | .40 |
| 3. Altruism toward colleagues | | | | |
| a. I am willing to help colleagues to solve work related problems. | | | | .83 |
| b. I am willing to assist new colleagues to adjust to work environment. | | | | .79 |
| c. I am willing to cover work assignments for colleagues when needed. | | | | .70 |
| d. I am willing to coordinate and communicate with colleagues. | | | | .61 |
| Reliability (Cronbach' s alpha) | .88 | .83 | | .85 |
| <hr/> (R) denotes items that have been reverse coded <hr/> | | | | |

Appendix 7: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and Pearson Correlations

| Variable | M | S.D. | Alpha | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|---|------|------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|
| 1. Perception of Psychological contract violation | .05 | 3.03 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Fairness perception | 2.92 | .91 | .87 | -.18** | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Organizational commitment | 2.95 | .52 | .73 | -.19** | .34** | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Organizational citizenship behavior | 3.06 | .55 | .81 | -.25** | .36** | .40** | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Intention to leave | 3.21 | 1.31 | .90 | .74** | -.31** | -.20** | -.26** | | | | | | | |
| 6. Sex | 1.62 | .49 | | -.08 | .06 | -.00 | -.09 | -.08 | | | | | | |
| 7. Marital status | 1.65 | .49 | | -.53** | .18** | .03 | .08 | -.56** | -.04 | | | | | |
| 8. Educational level | 2.17 | .56 | | -.52** | .18** | -.01 | .21** | -.42** | -.19** | .50** | | | | |
| 9. Working tenure | 1.79 | .91 | | -.67** | .11 | .06 | .12 | -.55** | -.08 | .58** | .74** | | | |
| 10. Industry type | 2.57 | 1.26 | | -.68** | .17** | .05 | .10 | -.62** | -.03 | .87** | .71** | .81** | | |
| 11. Primary Income earner | 1.52 | .50 | | -.70** | .04 | .06 | .07 | -.57** | .09 | .38** | .43** | .55** | .56** | ---- |

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

Appendix 8: Multiple Regression on organizational commitment

| | <i>Organizational commitment</i> |
|--|----------------------------------|
| | 2.26 |
| <i>Independent variables</i> | |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | |
| Beta value | -.30*** (.02) |
| Fairness perception | |
| Beta value | .22*** (.03) |
| F | 25.92*** |
| R Square | .21 |
| Adjusted R Square | .20 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

Appendix 9: Multiple Regression on organizational citizenship behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior

| | |
|--|-----------------|
| | 3.22 |
| <i>Independent variables</i> | |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | |
| Beta value | -.21* (.02) |
| Fairness perception | |
| Beta value | .33*** (.04) |
| F | 26.37*** |
| R Square | .22 |
| Adjusted R Square | .20 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

Appendix 10: Multiple Regression on intention to leave

| | <i>Intention to leave</i> |
|--|---------------------------|
| | 4.09 |
| <i>Independent variables</i> | |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | |
| Beta value | .13* (.06) |
| Fairness perception | |
| Beta value | -.29*** (.09) |
| F | 17.89*** |
| R Square | .16 |
| Adjusted R Square | .14 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

Appendix 11: Split group regression on organizational commitment

| <i>Independent variables</i> | <i>Organizational commitment</i> | |
|--|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | Involuntary 2.18 | Voluntary 2.08 |
| | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> |
| Perception of psychological contract violation Beta value | -.02 (.04) | -.43*** (.05) |
| Fairness perception Beta value | .38*** (.07) | .19* (.04) |
| t-value | 6.33 | |
| F | 7.16*** | 20.01** |
| R Square | .15 | .27 |
| Adjusted R Square | .13 | .25 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

Appendix 12: Split group regression on organizational citizenship behavior

| <i>Independent variables</i> | <i>Organizational citizenship behavior</i> | |
|--|--|-----------------------------------|
| | Involuntary 2.36 | Voluntary 2.09 |
| | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | | |
| Beta value | -.19* (.04) | -.49*** (.05) |
| t-value | -30 | |
| Fairness perception | | |
| Beta value | .43*** (.07) | .16* (.04) |
| t-value | 9 | |
| F | 12.87*** | 24.47*** |
| R Square | .24 | .31 |
| Adjusted R Square | .22 | .29 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

Appendix 13: Split group regression on intention to leave

| <i>Independent variables</i> | <i>Intention to leave</i> | |
|--|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | Involuntary 5.20 | Voluntary 4.92 |
| | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | | |
| Beta value | .02 (.06) | .42*** (.11) |
| Fairness perception | | |
| Beta value | -.35** (.10) | -.19* (.09) |
| t-value | -16 | |
| F | 5.81** | 18.6*** |
| R Square | .12 | .25 |
| Adjusted R Square | .10 | .24 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

**Appendix 14: Split group regression of Value towards the organization
(organizational commitment)**

| <i>Independent variables</i> | <i>Value towards the organizations</i> | |
|---|--|---------------------------------------|
| | Involuntary 1.07 | Voluntary 3.59 |
| | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | | |
| Beta value | -.322** (.068) | -.21** (.046) |
| T-value | -5.10 | |
| Fairness perception | | |
| Beta value | .457*** (.086) | .172 (.072) |
| F | 7.22*** | 2.26* |
| R Square | .39 | .13 |
| Adjusted R Square | .34 | .07 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

**Appendix 15: Split group regression of Attachment of the organization
(organizational commitment)**

| <i>Independent variables</i> | <i>Attachment of the organization</i> | |
|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| | Involuntary 2.74 | Voluntary 3.01 |
| | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | | |
| Beta value | -.141 (.065) | -.265** (.043) |
| Fairness perception | | |
| Beta value | .12 (.081) | .067 (.068) |
| F | .58 | 1.54 |
| R Square | .05 | .09 |
| Adjusted R Square | -.04 | .03 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

**Appendix 16: Split group regression of Loyalty towards the organization
(organizational commitment)**

| <i>Independent variables</i> | <i>Loyalty towards the organization</i> | |
|---|---|---------------------------------------|
| | Involuntary 3.48 | Voluntary 2.13 |
| | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | | |
| Beta value | -.214 (.077) | -.119 (.05) |
| Fairness perception | | |
| Beta value | .083 (.097) | .174 (.078) |
| F | 1.097 | 1.28 |
| R Square | .09 | .08 |
| Adjusted R Square | .01 | .02 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

**Appendix 17: Split group regression of Identification of the organization
(organizational commitment)**

| | <i>Identification of the organizations</i> | |
|---|--|---------------------------------------|
| | Involuntary | Voluntary |
| <i>Independent variables</i> | | |
| | 2.08 | 1.93 |
| | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | | |
| Beta value | -.174 (.069) | -.315** (.052) |
| Fairness perception | | |
| Beta value | .325* (.086) | .215** (.081) |
| T-value | 22 | |
| F | 2.49* | 3.30** |
| R Square | .18 | .18 |
| Adjusted R Square | .11 | .13 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

**Appendix 18: Split group regression of Interpersonal harmony
(organizational citizenship behavior)**

| <i>Independent variables</i> | <i>Interpersonal harmony</i> | |
|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| | Involuntary 3.88 | Voluntary 3.60 |
| | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | | |
| Beta value | -.104 (.055) | -.02 (.035) |
| Fairness perception | | |
| Beta value | .187 (.069) | .156 (.054) |
| F | 1.27 | 1.11 |
| R Square | .10 | .07 |
| Adjusted R Square | .02 | .01 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

Appendix 19: Split group regression of Conscientiousness towards the organizations (organizational citizenship behavior)

| | <i>Conscientiousness</i> | |
|--|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | Involuntary .69 | Voluntary 2.81 |
| <i>Independent variables</i> | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | | |
| Beta value | -.256** (.05) | -.232** (.044) |
| T-value | -4 | |
| Fairness perception | | |
| Beta value | .506*** (.071) | .294** (.069) |
| T-value | 106 | |
| F | 8.89*** | 2.95** |
| R Square | .44 | .16 |
| Adjusted R Square | .39 | .11 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

**Appendix 20: Split group regression of Altruism towards colleagues
(Organizational citizenship behavior)**

| <i>Independent variables</i> | <i>Altruism</i> | |
|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| | Involuntary 1.57 | Voluntary 3.57 |
| | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> | <i>t-value of Beta difference</i> |
| Perception of psychological contract violation | | |
| Beta value | -.337** (.086) | -.03 (.04) |
| Fairness perception | | |
| Beta value | .244** (.08) | .282** (.069) |
| T-value | -3.50 | |
| F | 3.46* | 2.24* |
| R Square | .24 | .13 |
| Adjusted R Square | .17 | .07 |

Note* t-statistics were shown in parentheses

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

***p<0.001

All one-tailed tests

N = 200

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