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FLEXIBILITY AND PART-TIME WORK IN GREECE:
OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES FOR BUSINESS
ORGANISATIONS AND WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT

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ΠΕΡΙΛΗΨΗ

Η ευελιξία στην αγορά εργασίας θεωρείται ένα εξαιρετικά αμφιλεγόμενο ζήτημα. Σημαντικό μέρος της βιβλιογραφίας θέτει υπό αμφισβήτηση τη θέση ότι η ευελιξία των όρων απασχόλησης υποστηρίζει την εξισορρόπηση μεταξύ της οικογενειακής και επαγγελματικής ζωής των εργαζομένων και παραθέτει ως κύριο κίνητρο εισαγωγής της εργασιακής ευελιξίας τη συμπίεση του κόστους εργασίας. Η παρούσα διατριβή υιοθετώντας τη νεοκλασική οικονομική θεωρία της κατάτμησης της αγοράς εργασίας, επιδιώκει να διερευνήσει τις αντιλήψεις των εργαζομένων ως προς τις ευέλικτες μορφές απασχόλησης τόσο στη «δευτερεύουσα» όσο και στην «πρωτεύουσα» ελληνική αγορά εργασίας.

Όσον αφορά τη «δευτερεύουσα» αγορά εργασίας, λαμβάνοντας υπόψη πρώτον, ότι η μερική απασχόληση αυξάνεται τόσο σε Ευρωπαϊκό επίπεδο όσο και στην Ελλάδα, δεύτερον, το μεγάλο αριθμό γυναικών που εργάζονται με συμβάσεις μερικής απασχόλησης αλλά και το υψηλό ποσοστό των γυναικών που απασχολούνται στον κλάδο του λιανικού εμπορίου, τρίτον, ότι η εργασία μερικής απασχόλησης στο λιανικό εμπόριο χαρακτηρίζεται από δυσμενείς εργασιακές συνθήκες (χαμηλές απολαβές, έλλειψη μόνιμης απασχόλησης κτλ), η παρούσα διατριβή επικεντρώνεται στη μελέτη των συμβάσεων μερικής απασχόλησης στον κλάδο του λιανικού εμπορίου δίνοντας ιδιαίτερη έμφαση στη γυναικεία απασχόληση.

Συγκεκριμένα, διερευνάται και συγκρίνεται η διαδικασία υποκίνησης (εξωτερικές / εσωτερικές ανταμοιβές) καθώς και οι εργασιακές αντιλήψεις (ικανοποίηση με την εργασία / οργανωσιακή δέσμευση) των εργαζομένων πλήρους και μερικής απασχόλησης. Αρχικά, παρουσιάζεται το θεωρητικό υπόβαθρο της έρευνας και διατυπώνονται οι ερευνητικές υποθέσεις. Εμπειρικά δεδομένα συλλέχθηκαν από 488 απασχολούμενους στον κλάδο του λιανικού εμπορίου, με βάση ένα δομημένο ερωτηματολόγιο. Τα αποτελέσματα της παρούσας έρευνας υποδεικνύουν ότι σημαντικές διαφορές παρατηρούνται τόσο στη διαδικασία υποκίνησης όσο και στη συμπεριφορά (ικανοποίηση / δέσμευση) των εργαζομένων μερικής και πλήρους απασχόλησης. Είναι αξιοσημείωτο ότι οι συγκεκριμένες διαφορές είναι ιδιαίτερα έντονες όταν επικεντρώναστε στις γυναίκες εργαζόμενες. Επιπρόσθετα, οι ιεραρχικές αναλύσεις παλινδρόμησης που εφαρμόστηκαν στα δεδομένα, έδειξαν ότι η αποδοχή εργασίας με σύμβαση μερικής απασχόλησης (ακούσια / εκούσια), οι διαστάσεις ικανοποίησης (ικανοποίηση με τις αμοιβές, ικανοποίηση με την εξασφάλιση της απασχόλησης, ικανοποίηση με τις προοπτικές εξέλιξης, καθώς και η ικανοποίηση με τις συναδελφικές σχέσεις και τις σχέσεις με τους προϊσταμένους) και οι ανεκπλήρωτες

προσδοκίες που αφορούν την απολαβή ανταμοιβών συνεισφέρουν σημαντικά στην κατανόηση των διακυμάνσεων της εργασιακής συμπεριφοράς των απασχολουμένων. Στο πλαίσιο του έντονου ανταγωνισμού που παρατηρείται στο χώρο του λιανικού εμπορικού, τα αποτελέσματα της παρούσας ερευνητικής δραστηριότητας παρέχουν στα στελέχη της Διεύθυνσης Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού σημαντικές κατευθύνσεις για την ανάπτυξη της υποκίνησης των απασχολουμένων και τη διασφάλιση ενός υψηλού βαθμού ικανοποίησης τους με την εργασία καθώς και δέσμευσης τους στον οργανισμό.

Ο δεύτερος θεμελιώδης ερευνητικός σκοπός της παρούσας διατριβής ήταν να διερευνήσουμε την εργασιακή ευελιξία στην «πρωτεύουσα» αγορά εργασίας. Επιδιώξαμε να απαντήσουμε στο ερώτημα πως αντιλαμβάνονται την ευελιξία της αγοράς εργασίας οι εργαζόμενοι σε υψηλόβαθμες θέσεις, με υψηλότερες αποδοχές και υψηλότερη εξασφάλιση της απασχόλησης. Συνολικά 362 εργαζόμενοι συμμετείχαν στην ερευνητική μελέτη για να καθοριστεί η στάση τους απέναντι στις ευέλικτες μορφές απασχόλησης. Για τη διερεύνηση των ερευνητικών υποθέσεων εφαρμόστηκε μονομεταβλητή ανάλυση της διακύμανσης και λογιστική παλινδρόμηση. Τα αποτελέσματα των στατιστικών αναλύσεων παρουσιάζουν ότι η στάση των εργαζομένων απέναντι στις ευέλικτες μορφές απασχόλησης διαφέρει με βάση τις μεταβλητές φύλο (άνδρες / γυναίκες), τομέας απασχόλησης (δημόσιος / ιδιωτικός) και προηγούμενη συμμετοχή σε ευέλικτες πρακτικές (ναι / όχι). Συγκεκριμένα, οι γυναίκες εργαζόμενες, οι απασχολούμενοι στο δημόσιο τομέα και οι εργαζόμενοι που έχουν ήδη απασχοληθεί με κάποια μορφή ευέλικτης πρακτικής αντιλαμβάνονται να απορρέουν περισσότερα οφέλη και λιγότερα εμπόδια από την ευέλικτη απασχόληση. Περαιτέρω ανάλυση των δεδομένων παρουσίασε ότι το ισχυρότερο κίνητρο για τη συμμετοχή ενός εργαζομένου σε ευέλικτες πρακτικές είναι η επίτευξη ισορροπίας μεταξύ οικογενειακής και επαγγελματικής ζωής. Επιπρόσθετα, τα αποτελέσματα της έρευνας υποδεικνύουν ότι οι επιχειρήσεις που είναι προσανατολισμένες στις ανάγκες του εργαζομένου και αντιλαμβάνονται την εργασιακή ευελιξία ως ένα ισχυρό διοικητικό εργαλείο, πρέπει να αντιμετωπίσουν συγκεκριμένα εμπόδια που αποθαρρύνουν τους απασχολούμενους από την υιοθέτηση ευέλικτων πρακτικών.

Λαμβάνοντας υπόψη το μικρό αριθμό εμπειρικών ερευνών που αφορούν την ευελιξία στην ελληνική αγορά εργασίας, τα συμπεράσματα της παρούσας διατριβής παρέχουν στη διεθνή ακαδημαϊκή κοινότητα καθώς και στα στελέχη Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού νέα δεδομένα για την πληρέστερη κατανόηση των ευέλικτων μορφών απασχόλησης τόσο στη «δευτερεύουσα» όσο και στην «πρωτεύουσα» αγορά εργασίας.

ABSTRACT

Labour market flexibility is regarded as a controversial issue. An important body of literature questions whether flexible work arrangements facilitate work-life balance and argues that organisations exploit employees with the intention of trimming short-run costs. In this thesis, in order to paint a clear picture of work flexibility we adopt the neo-classical economic theory of labour market segmentation and explore flexible work arrangements from the employees' point of view, in both the secondary and the primary Greek labour market.

With regard to the secondary labour market, taking into account that first, part-time work is expanding in the EU and in Greece, second, female employees are overrepresented in both part-time employment and the retail sector, third, part-time work in the retail sector is synonymous with adverse working conditions (low pay, low job security etc), we focus on part-time arrangements in the retail sector giving special attention to female employees. In particular, we explore the work motivation (extrinsic / intrinsic rewards) and job attitudes (job satisfaction / organisational commitment) of employees by work status. Initially, a theoretical framework is presented with the aim of stipulating the research hypotheses. Empirical evidence was obtained from 488 Greek retail employees using a structured questionnaire. The findings of this thesis suggest that significant behavioural differences exist between part-time and full-time retail employees. What is also noteworthy is that these motivational and attitudinal differences are even more profound and challenging when we focus on women employees. Additional hierarchical regression analyses revealed that work status congruence (voluntary / involuntary), facets of job satisfaction (satisfaction with: pay, job security, co-workers, supervisors, promotion opportunities) and the perceptions of actual rewards received provide significant evidence on the variation in job attitudes. In the context of the demanding retail sector, the findings of this survey provide human resource managers with significant guidelines on how to enhance motivation, job satisfaction and organisational commitment of their employees.

The second fundamental purpose of this thesis is to explore labour flexibility in the primary labour market. We seek to answer the question of how employees perceive flexible work arrangements in higher-grade, higher-status, better-paid and secure jobs in public-sector employment, the large corporations, and the highly unionised industries. A total of 362 Greek employees participated in the study to determine their attitudes towards flexible

work practices. Univariate analyses of variance and logistic regression analysis were conducted with the aim of exploring the research hypotheses. It is found that attitudes towards flexible work options are dependent on gender (male / female), sector of employment (public / private) and prior participation in a flexible work scheme (yes / no). In general, women, public sector employees and employees who have participated in flexible work arrangements are more likely to perceive more benefits and fewer costs with regard to the use of work flexibility. Further analysis provided evidence that work-life balance benefits are stronger predictors of participation in flexible work practices. These findings suggest that employee-centred organisations that view flexibility as a valuable management tool should deal with specific barriers that discourage people from taking up flexible work arrangements.

Given the dearth of empirical research on labour flexibility in Greece, the findings of this thesis provide the wider academic community and management professionals with new insights on how employees' motivation, employees' job attitudes and employees' perceptions of flexible work options are formulated in the secondary and the primary labour market.

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To my parents and my wife

Στους γονείς μου και στη γυναίκα μου

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PART I

Introduction

1. Introduction

1.1 General Description of the Research Problem

Compared to the traditional nine to five job held in a standard workplace, flexible work arrangements are defined as the employment arrangements that alter the time and / or the place of work. Some types of flexible work options include the following: part-time work, temporary work, flex-time, flex-leaves (such as parental leave, special leave), compressed work-weeks, overtime, job sharing, shiftwork and teleworking.

A cross-country comparison shows significant differences in the incidence of flexible work arrangements across Europe. It is noteworthy that flexible work options are less widespread in Greece. Indicatively, the extent of part-time work varies considerably between EU countries. Eurostat (2009) reports that part-time employment in EU27 reached 17.9 per cent of total employment at the end of 2008. The highest proportion is observed in the Netherlands (47.0 per cent), Germany (25.7 per cent) and the United Kingdom (25.1 per cent), while part-time employment is less prevalent in Bulgaria (2.4 per cent), Slovakia (3.2 per cent) and Greece (5.7 per cent). In addition, data from the European Working Conditions Survey 2000 (EWCS) showed that a complete lack of all forms of flexibility in working time for parents employed full-time is most prevalent in Greece, Portugal, Spain and Ireland, whereas the greatest flexibility is found in Finland, Sweden and the UK (European Foundation for Improvement Living and Working Conditions 2005). Likewise, the

incidence of employees taking parental leave is significantly higher in Sweden, with employees in 89 per cent of the firms surveyed by the Establishment Survey on Working Time 2004-2005 (ESWT) availing themselves of this option, followed by Finland, with employees in 80 per cent of firms taking up such leave. For Greece, the respective rate is the same as the EU21 average (51 per cent) (Riedmann et al. 2006).

In the last two decades, flexible work arrangements have captured the attention of both employees and employers alike. More women are entering the workforce, and the transition from single-income families to dual-career families has raised the challenge of achieving not only work-family balance but also work-life balance. These changes have also affected the role of men, since partners must now share the responsibility of child-care. On the other hand, flexible work arrangements are important to organisations, as they enable firms to respond to market requirements (e.g., by varying capacity utilisation or extending opening hours), to attract and retain talented employees, to reduce stress and burnout, and to improve productivity and morale of employees.

However, there is a controversy about the effects of flexible work arrangements. An important body of literature questions whether labour flexibility facilitates work and family balance. It is argued that with the intention of trimming short-run costs organisations exploit employees, especially female employees, who work flexibly. Alternative work practices offering limited pay, limited promotion opportunities, low training and low job security have been characterised as flexibility traps that lead to the marginalization of female employees.

This thesis argues that in order to paint a clear picture of flexible work arrangements it would be essential to adopt the neo-classical economic theory of labour market segmentation. The basic dual market theory divides the labour force into two key sectors: the primary and the secondary labour market. The primary labour market includes higher-grade, higher-status, and better-paid jobs, while the secondary labour market sector is characterised by pervasive under-employment and unemployment; jobs are mostly low-skilled, require relatively little training, and can be learnt relatively quickly on the job. The primary labour-market is commonly understood to mean people with secure jobs and good conditions of work in public-sector employment, the large corporations, and highly unionised industries; while the secondary labour-market is understood to cover small employers, non-unionised sectors of the economy, and highly fragmented and competitive industries such as retailing, where jobs are less secure and conditions of work and pay are generally poorest (Scott and Marshall, 1998).

1.2 Purpose, Objectives and Research Questions

The purpose of this thesis is to explore flexible work arrangements from the employees' point of view, in both the primary and the secondary Greek labour market. For this reason the current study was guided by two objectives. Each objective refers to a distinct segment of the Greek labour market. Objective 1 refers to exploration of the secondary, while Objective 2 refers to the examination of the primary labour market.

Objective 1. Explore the work motivation and job attitudes of part-time and full-time employees, in the Greek retail sector, with special attention to female employees.

A sizeable body of research has focused on the comparison of full-time and part-time employees. Research on part-time labour has become more critical for the reason that part-time work is expanding. According to official statistics, part-time work in 2008 represented approximately 18 per cent of the total employment in the EU (Eurostat, 2009) and 19 per cent of the US workforce (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009).

What is also notable is that this expansion of part-time work affects women especially. Labour statistics clearly reveal the feminisation of part-time employment. Specifically, the part-time workforce at the end of 2008 accounted for 30.5 per cent for women, but only 7.7 per cent for men in the EU (Eurostat, 2009). In addition, women's overrepresentation in part-time employment is more evident if we focus on the retail sector. According to the Labour Force Survey, women accounted for 61 per cent of the workforce in retail trade across the EU in 2005. In addition, 30 per cent of people employed were working part-time, while 75 per cent of those working part-time were women (Urbanski, 2007). Since the early 1990's, Feldman (1990) has suggested that research on part-time labour is critical for at least two reasons other than the increasing numbers of part-timers. First, retail trade relies most

heavily on part-time workers and, second, part-time work is an important labour opportunity for women.

Not surprisingly, past studies on part-time employment have focused on the retail sector and the sample units included major retail firms (Jackofsky and Peters, 1987; Wortuba, 1990; Browell and Ivers, 1998; Sinclair et al., 1999; Tomlinson, 2004; Walters, 2005). However, special attention should be given to the nature and quality of part-time employment in the retail sector. Previous studies have indicated that part-time workers and retail sales workers are more likely to be concentrated in the secondary labour market in low-level jobs (Dickens and Lang, 1992; Tilly 1992; Barker, 1993; Freathy 1993; Dickens, 1996; Harley and Whitehouse, 2001; Jenkins, 2004; Tomlinson 2007; Walsh, 2007).

The first objective of this thesis is composed of two linked parts: the exploration of job motivation and the exploration of job attitudes of employees in the Greek retail sector by work status (part-time / full-time). Each of these parts was guided by the following research questions:

i. Work motivation:

R.Q.1 Which work motivators (rewards) do part-time and full-time employees find important? Do these groups of employees value things differently in their work environment? If so, how strong are these differences for female employees by work status?

R.Q.2 Are there any differences in the expectations of receiving motivators (rewards) between part-time and full-time employees? If so, how large is this discrepancy for female employees by work status?

R.Q.3. How do individual characteristics of employees impact the reported importance of work motivators and the expectations of receiving these rewards? How does the impact of these subjective factors differ across part-time and full-time employees, and how strong is this influence for female employees?

ii. Job attitudes:

R.Q.4 How do part-time and full-time employees differ from each other on general job satisfaction and on facets of satisfaction (satisfaction with: pay, job security, co-workers, supervisors and promotion opportunities)?

R.Q.5 How do part-time and full-time employees differ from each other on organisational commitment (affective, continuance, normative)?

R.Q.6 How do meaningful groups of part-time workers (i.e., male / female, voluntary / involuntary, caregivers / workers without care responsibilities), differ from each other, and from full-time workers, on organisational commitment?

R.Q.7 Does the employment status of part-time workers (voluntary / involuntary) serve as a predictor of general job satisfaction and affective commitment?

R.Q.8. Which facets of job satisfaction (satisfaction with: pay, job security, co-workers, supervisors, promotion opportunities) serve as predictors of general job satisfaction and affective commitment for part-time and full-time employees? Are there any differences in the reported predictors, and if any, how can different responses be explained between part-time and full-time employees?

R.Q.9 Is there a relationship between the expectations of rewards that should be received and perceptions of actual rewards received (unmet expectations) with the reported level of general job satisfaction and affective commitment of employees? Are there any differences in this relationship for part-time and full-time workers, and, if any, how can these be explained?

Objective 2. Explore the perceptions and attitudes of Greek employees in the primary labour market towards flexible work arrangements.

Previous research has shown that employees' attitudes towards flexible work options in the primary labour market are dependent on employee characteristics, work environment and prior participation (Charron and Lowe, 2005). Furthermore, it is suggested that various cultures may view work arrangements differently, and, in some cultures, men might not feel it legitimate to express a preference for a reduced work-week (Charron, and Lowe, 2005; Fagan, 2001). Hence, in the Greek context, the following research questions were addressed:

R.Q.10 What are the attitudes of Greek employees toward flexible work arrangements?

R.Q.11 Will female employees have different perceptions of flexible work arrangements compared to male employees?

R.Q.12 Will public sector employees have different perceptions of flexible work arrangements compared to private sector employees?

R.Q.13 Will employees who have participated in flexible work arrangements, compared to employees without participation experience, have different perceptions of labour flexibility?

R.Q.14 To what extent do the perceived benefits and costs regarding work flexibility predict one's decision to participate in flexible work arrangements or not?

1.3 Thesis Contribution

The current thesis contributes to the understanding of flexible work arrangements in several ways. The great majority of studies have not used the distinction between jobs in the secondary and jobs in the primary labour market. Therefore, it is clear that it is not appropriate to compare and generalise previous findings. We suggest that employees from different occupational classes may develop different job attitudes. For instance, one would expect that a part-time sales worker may differ on attitudes compared to a part-time, white-collar professional employee.

In addition, this thesis contributes new empirical evidence on the motivation of part-time workers and, especially, female workers in the retail sector. It is valuable to examine what motivates female employees to take up part-time work arrangements in such a demanding and stressful work environment. Furthermore, replicating previous research on employee motivation will allow us to draw

comparisons across countries. The results of this survey study contribute to the existing employee motivation research that utilises data from the USA, China, Russia and Poland (Silverthorne, 1992; Huddleston and Good, 1999; Linz, 2002; 2003; 2004). Moreover, to our knowledge, there are no updated studies that examine the motivation of employees by work status for the Greek case. Since the rate of Greek female part-time work is more than three times that of the Greek males (9.7 and 2.7 per cent, respectively) (Eurostat, 2009), clearly it would be valuable to shed light on the motivation of part-time female employees in the Greek retail sector.

A sizeable body of research has focused on the comparison between the job attitudes of full-time and part-time employees. Nevertheless, the literature review reveals that the findings regarding the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of full-time compared to part-time employees have been inconsistent, contradictory and paradoxical (Lee and Johnson, 1991; Sinclair et al., 1999; Conway and Briner 2002; Rosendaal, 2003; Thorsteinson, 2003; Clinebell and Clinebell, 2007). Some studies report that part-timers exhibit greater job satisfaction and greater commitment to their company, some report that part-timers are less satisfied and less committed and some recent studies report no significant difference on job satisfaction and organisational commitment between part-time and full-time employees (see Appendix IV, Table IV.1 and Table IV.2).

Taking into consideration that previous research has been criticised as being atheoretical in design and has tried to compare a diversity of part-time jobs, the current study attempts to shed light on the debate over the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of full-time versus part-time employees. To

contribute to this debate and to the existing job attitudes literature, we focus on low-level jobs of the secondary labour market, and, in particular, we focus on employees in the retail sector. Second, we use the psychological contract theory as a framework for evaluating the level of not only general job satisfaction (Conway and Briner, 2002), but also facets of job satisfaction, as well as the organisational commitment of part-time and full-time employees. Third, apart from just identifying the level of job attitudes, this thesis enhances researchers' understanding of why full-time and part-time retail employees might differ on attitudes by examining the different predictors of job satisfaction and organisational commitment for both groups of employees. In particular, we develop three conceptual models with the aim of exploring whether work status congruence, facets of job satisfaction and the perceptions of actual rewards received provide significant evidence regarding the variation in job attitudes of part-time and full-time employees. Furthermore, there is a dearth of empirical studies that examine employees' attitudes for the Greek case. In particular, there are no updated studies that examine the job attitudes of full-time compared to part-time Greek employees.

Finally, with the aim of exploring the attitudes towards flexible work arrangements of Greek employees in the primary labour market, we replicate the study of Charron and Lowe (2005). The researchers found that attitudes towards flexible work options are dependent on employee characteristics, work environment and prior participation. However, we extend their study in three ways. First, we consider not only accountants' perceptions, but we examine a range of working people from different occupational categories of the primary labour market. Second,

based on both Albion (2004) and Charron and Lowe (2005), we develop a comprehensive measure of attitudes towards flexible work options. Third, apart from just identifying factors that might influence perceptions towards work flexibility, we explore whether the perceived benefits and costs predict one's decision to participate in flexible work arrangements or not. Finally, there is a scarcity of empirical studies that examine employees' attitudes towards 'labour flexibility' for the Greek primary labour market. Based on the fact that flexible work arrangements are not as widespread in Greece as in other countries, it would be valuable to explore factors that promote or discourage their use in the Greek context. In addition, the results of this study will allow us to perform cross-country comparisons and to identify differences in employees' perceptions towards labour flexibility.

1.4 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is organised in five core parts. Following the First Part which serves as an introduction to the research problem, the Second Part provides a review of flexible work arrangements theory and statistical data. We begin with the definition of labour market flexibility and then we present a description of the different types of flexible work arrangements. In parallel, by providing official statistical data we compare the implementation of flexible work arrangements in Greece with that of other European Union countries.

The Third Part considers flexible work options in the secondary labour market. Taking into account that, first, part-time work is expanding in the EU and in

Greece, second, female employees are overrepresented in both part-time employment and the retail sector, third, part-time work in the retail sector is synonymous with adverse working conditions, we focus on part-time arrangements in the retail sector placing a particular emphasis on women's employment. After developing the theoretical framework, we develop the research hypotheses. In this survey, empirical evidence was obtained from 488 Greek retail employees and Chapters 4 and 5 are developed based on this quantitative data. Specifically, in Chapter 4 we explore the motivation of part-time female employees. In Chapter 5, with the aim of shedding light on the debate over the job attitudes of part-time versus full-time employees, we examine the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of retail employees by work status.

The Fourth Part considers flexible work arrangements in the primary labour market. A total of 362 Greek employees participated in this survey to determine their attitudes towards flexible work practices. Univariate analyses of variance and logistic regression analysis are presented with the aim of exploring the research hypotheses.

The Fifth Part, discusses the most important conclusions with regard to labour flexibility in the secondary and the primary labour market, along with theoretical and practical implications. Finally, the limitations of this thesis and directions for future research are discussed.

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PART II

Review of Flexible Work Arrangements

2. Labour Market Flexibility and its Effects

2.1 Defining Labour Market Flexibility

Atkinson (1984a) is one of the most famous commentators on labour flexibility. According to Atkinson's model four types of labour flexibility can be identified: external numerical, internal numerical, functional and financial flexibility.

i. External Numerical Flexibility

External numerical flexibility allows firms to respond quickly to the economic environment in terms of the number of people employed. It refers to the adjustment of the labour intake, or the number of workers from the external market. This can be achieved by employing workers on temporary work or fixed-term contracts or through relaxed hiring and firing regulations or in other words relaxation of Employment Protection Legislation, where employers can hire and fire permanent employees according to the firms' needs.

ii. Internal Numerical Flexibility

Internal numerical flexibility is sometimes known as working time or temporal flexibility. This flexibility is achieved by adjusting working hours or schedules of workers already employed within the firm. This includes part-

time, flexi-time or flexible working hours / shifts (including night and weekend shifts), overtime, working time accounts and leaves, such as parental leave.

iii. Functional Flexibility

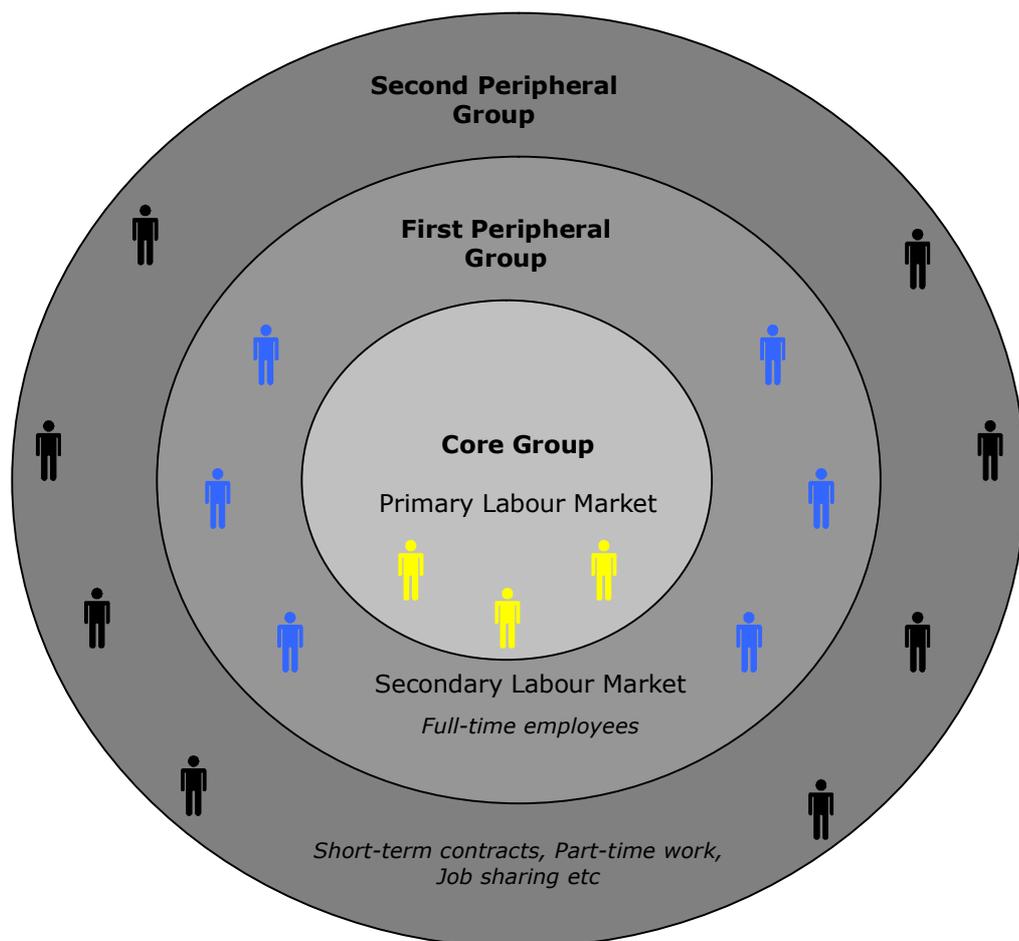
Functional or organisational flexibility is the extent to which employees can be transferred to different activities and tasks within the firm. It has to do with the organisation of operation or the management and training of workers. Horizontal flexibility involves each individual employee becoming multiskilled so that he or she can be deployed as or where required at any time. Vertical flexibility entails gaining the capacity to undertake work previously carried out by colleagues higher up or lower down the organisational hierarchy.

iv. Financial or Wage Flexibility

Financial or wage flexibility refers to the case where wage levels are not decided collectively, and therefore there are more differences between the pay level of workers. This is done so that pay and other employment costs reflect the supply and demand of labour. This can be achieved by rate-for-the-job systems, or assessment based pay systems, or individual performance wages (Torrington et al., 2008).

Atkinson has argued that firms are dividing their workforce into ‘core’ and ‘peripheral’ groups in order to achieve different kinds of flexibility (Figure 2.1). Core workers are likely to be skilled and to have secure contracts of employment. Usually they are full-time, permanent employees who are *functionally flexible*. As the nature of a firm’s operation changes, as their markets alter, so core workers acquire and use a variety of skills to perform different tasks. Around the core is a series of outer layers, each representing a different group of peripheral workers. The first peripheral group are also full-time workers, but they enjoy less job security and career prospects than the core group. They are hired from the external labour market to fill specific jobs, usually of semi-skilled nature. They are *numerically flexible*. The second peripheral group includes part-time workers and a variety of temporary workers ranging from agency staff, people on short-term contracts, government training schemes to home-workers. They perform the same types of tasks as the first peripheral group, but they are employed on a contract basis designed to supplement numerical flexibility. They are hired and laid-off in accordance with the fluctuating levels of a firm’s production and in response to market trends (Allen and Massey, 1988).

FIGURE 2.1 The Flexible Firm



Adopted from Atkinson, 1984b

2.2 Types of Flexible Work Arrangements

Flexible work options can be arranged into different categories based on the following criteria (Glyn et al., 2002; Flexible Work Options Project, 2008; Georgetown University Law Center, 2008; The Government of Western Australia, 2002):

- when people work (flexibility in the scheduling of hours);
- how long people work (flexibility in the number of hours worked);
- where people work (flexibility in the place of work);
- why people take leave (flexibility in the leave arrangements).

1. Flexibility in the Scheduling of Hours

1.1 Flexi-time

Employees have some flexibility in starting and finishing times, but work the prescribed core working hours each day.

1.2 Compressed Workweek

With this option employees can extend the number of hours they work per day thereby working their weekly contractual hours over 4 or 4.5 days instead of 5.

1.3 Shift Arrangements

Employees can exchange shifts to meet personal commitments. This arrangement is common in industry.

1.4 Part-year Work

Employees work only a certain number of months per year. For example:

- a semi-retired accountant works for an accounting firm during its busy season from January through May.
- an otherwise full-time professional does not work for 8 weeks in the summer.

2. Flexibility in the Number of Hours Worked

2.1 Part-time Work

Working occurs on a continuing basis for less than the full-time weekly hours of the job at mutually agreed times. It requires an individual agreement between employee and employer, which may be concluded at the commencement of the employment relationship or during its existence, and must be in writing (Greek Law 1892/1990, Law 2639/1998 and Law 2874/2000).

2.2 Job Sharing

Job sharing involves two people sharing the duties and responsibilities of one full-time post, on the appropriate pay scale and terms of employment designed for that particular job. The division of hours is usually 50 / 50, two and a half days a week each, although some job-share arrangements

involve other options (e.g., alternate weeks, mornings / afternoons, two days / three days alternate weeks, etc).

3. Flexibility in the Place of Work

3.1 Tele-work / Home work

Flexibility in work locations is probably the most ad-hoc and variable option, but two main types of scheme appear to be in operation. Firstly, management or professional staff with employee status who are fully integrated within the organisation's culture and who work flexibly in accordance with their own assessment of the demands of their workload and appropriate form of work location. Secondly, staff engaged in more routine and / or independent types of work (e.g., data entry, typing, editorial or research work).

3.2 Tele-work / Satellite Location

Workers work remotely from a designated satellite work center. For example, a worker works from a nearby telework center Monday through Friday to avoid a long commute to work.

4. Flexible Leave Arrangements

4.1 Unpaid Leave

This option gives employees the opportunity to take time away from work for an agreed period of time which is unpaid.

4.2 Career Breaks

These breaks from the workplace are usually for 6 months to 5 years and are usually but not always associated with women taking time away from work to look after a young family.

4.3 Study Leave / Sabbatical Leave

A period of absence for the purposes of study, research or scholarship. The traditional academic sabbatical leave is usually taken in periods of at least a term, but study leave may also be available in the form of time off (typically half-day or day release) throughout the academic year.

4.4 Leave Associated with Caring for Dependents

There is legislation covering many types of leave associated with caring for dependents, but organisations are not limited to providing the minimum requirements under the law: some organisations choose to provide even further flexibility in areas such as maternity, paternity, parental, adoption, compassionate and dependent leave.

4.5 Disability Leave

Some employers make special provision for workers who either become disabled or have a progressive disability, and, therefore, have special needs within the workplace. Provision may involve time off to attend an employment assessment of need, training / retraining by the employee

and / or time off for changes in access, equipment and / or work patterns to be made within the employee's workplace.

4.6 Purchased Leave / Self Funded Leave (also known as Voluntary Reduced Work Time; '48 on 52'; and '4 over 5 years')

Employees work full-time or part-time hours with proportionately reduced pay to self-fund additional leave. The income earned is averaged and paid over the full period of work and leave.

- '4 over 5 years' arrangements - employees work for 4 years and have the 5th year off work with pay by receiving 80per cent of their normal pay over the full 5 year period.
- '48 on 52' arrangements - employees work full-time at a reduced salary for 44 weeks of the year, taking annual leave and an additional 4 weeks self funded leave. The income accrued for the 48 weeks of work and annual leave is averaged and paid over the full 52 weeks.

4.7 Cashing Out Leave Entitlements

Half of an annual leave entitlement, can be exchanged for 'an equivalent benefit'. For example, employees who have extra holidays and do not want to take all of them can sell these back to the employer. Nevertheless, employees should take at least two weeks annual leave each year for rest and relaxation.

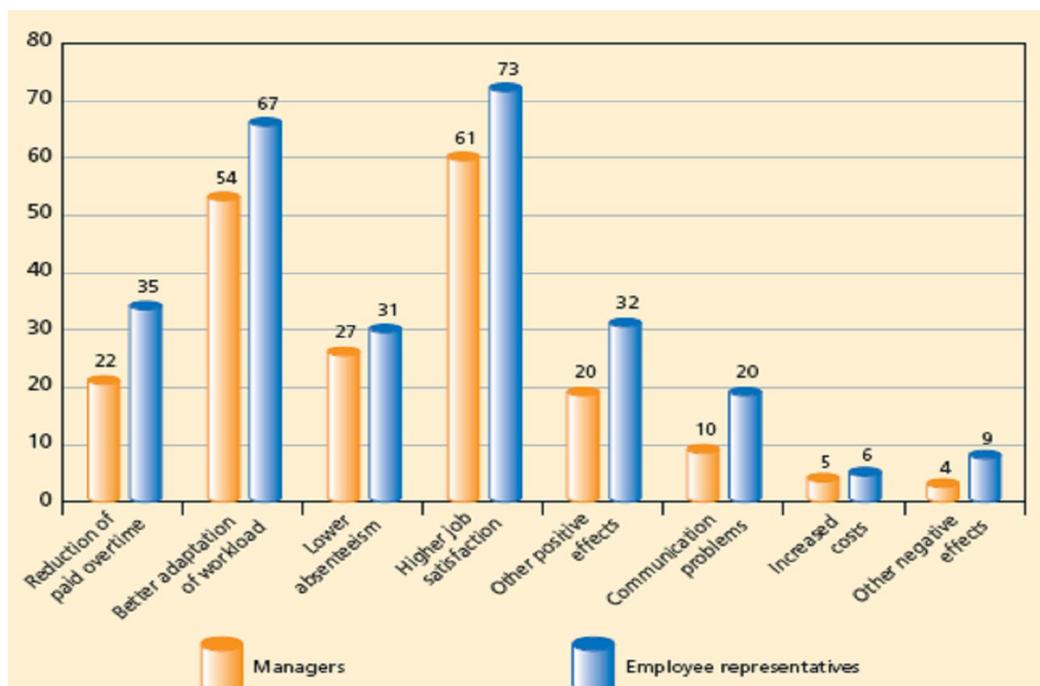
2.3 The Effects of Labour Flexibility on Business Organisations and Employees

One of the main reasons for which companies introduce flexible work arrangements relates to the cost benefits that can be derived from such practices. According to Houseman (2001), business organisations can reduce costs by adapting promptly to market and economic fluctuations. Another way of reducing labour costs is to reduce fringe benefits or social security contributions by hiring workers on temporary contracts. In addition, flexible arrangements can also be used to screen new recruits before offering them open-ended employment contracts (Chung et al., 2007; Houseman, 2001). Improving quality and service, along with meeting the needs of customers, are additional reasons why companies introduce various flexibility arrangements, such as extended or varying working hours (Chung et al., 2007; Reilly, 2001). Flexible work practices have also been related to indirect benefits for organisations, such as reduced turnover and absenteeism rates of employees, higher productivity, morale, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Another benefit for organisations is that labour flexibility increases the ability to attract and retain a better-qualified, more diverse workforce including those who cannot work full-time or within standard hours (Lee, 1991; Dex and Scheibl, 2001; Raabe, 1990; Scandura and Lankau, 1997; Chapman et al., 1995; Lee et al., 2000).

On the other hand, labour flexibility has been criticised for the development of additional administrative problems in organisations. Since flexible practices are

not available to all employees but mainly to low-level employees, work coordination and scheduling problems, difficulties in evaluating performance and equity issues are noted (Charron and Lowe, 2005; Scandura and Lankau, 1997; Lawrence and Corwin, 2003). Figure 2.2 presents the results from the ‘Eurofound’s Establishment Survey on Working Time’, launched in 2004, with regard to the reported effects of flexible working time arrangements for both managers and employee representatives.

FIGURE 2.2 Reported Effects Arising from the Introduction of Flexible Working Time Arrangements (%)



Source: Riedmann et al., (2006); ESWT 2004-2005

From the employees' point of view, flexible work arrangements have been related to the work and family balance and to the reduction of physical and psychological stress (Grover and Crooker 1995; MacDermid et al., 2001; Thomas and Ganster 1995; Hill et al., 2004). For instance, for mothers who still have primary responsibility for the care of children, moving from full-time to part-time work can be an attractive proposition for maintaining attachment to the paid labour market while taking care of their children. In addition, women who are out of the labour market enter part-time work as a transitional step into full-time employment. The increasing need for lifelong learning, in the form of vocational training or education breaks, can also be another form of motivation for workers to take leave or deviate from the standard work schedule (Chung et al., 2007).

Nevertheless, challenges for individuals derived from alternative work-arrangements include difficulties in managing career advancement and maintaining a professional image. The reduced income and the difficulty in participating in social activities in the workplace as well as the difficulties in the professional networking enhance the marginalisation of flexible workers (Hill et al., 2004; MacDermid, 2001; Lawrence and Corwin, 2003).

From the above analysis we can conclude that an additional way to categorize labour flexibility is from the organisations' and the employees' point of view. We can categorize different types of alternative work arrangements based on criterion of the benefits for organisations and workers and thus to differentiate between worker-oriented and company-oriented flexibility (Table 2.1).

TABLE 2.1 Workers' and Companies' Oriented Flexibility

Worker-oriented	Company-oriented
Flexibility in the Scheduling of Hours	Flexibility in the Scheduling of Hours
<i>Flexi-time</i>	<i>Flexi-time</i>
<i>Compressed workweek</i>	<i>Compressed workweek</i>
<i>Shift arrangements</i>	<i>Shift arrangements</i>
	<i>Overtime</i>
	<i>Part-year work</i>
Flexibility in the Number of hours	Flexibility in the Number of Hours
<i>Part-time work</i>	<i>Part-time work</i>
<i>Job sharing</i>	
Flexibility in the Place of Work	Flexibility in the Place of Work
<i>Home work</i>	<i>Satellite Location</i>
Flexible Leave Arrangements	
<i>Unpaid leave, Parental leave etc</i>	

Developed based on Chung et al., (2007)

3. General Trends of Flexible Work Arrangements in Greece and the EU

Official statistics report that Greece is among the European countries with the lowest share of companies that provide either worker-oriented or company-oriented flexibility (see Appendix I Figure I.1 and I.2). In this chapter we give a general description of the trends for each one of the four categories of flexible work arrangements in Greece compared to other EU countries. Specifically, we examine part-time work (flexibility in the number of hours worked), ‘flexi-time’ (flexibility in the scheduling of hours), telework (flexibility in the place of work), parental leave and long- term leaves (flexible leave arrangements). This section is based mainly on research work published by the ‘European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions’ and statistical data provided by the European Labour Force Survey (Eurostat).

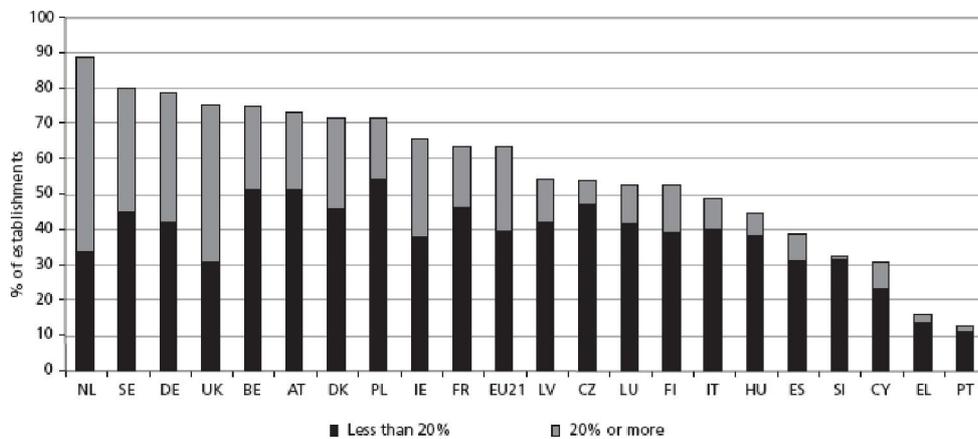
3.1 Part-time Work

3.1.1 Extent of Part-time Work

Part-time work has become a widespread work arrangement in European establishments. In 64 per cent of all establishments covered by the Eurofound’s Establishment Survey on Working Time (ESWT) (i.e., organisations with 10 or more employees), the management reports that there is currently at least one part-time

worker employed, where part-time employment is defined as ‘less than the usual full-time hours’. A cross country examination reveals that the extent of part-time work varies significantly between EU countries. While in the Netherlands, almost nine in ten organisations have experience of part-time work, in Greece and Portugal only around two in ten firms employ part-time workers. In the remaining European countries, part-time experience ranges somewhere between these two extremes (Figure 3.1). Among those Dutch establishments that do employ workers on a part-time basis, 46 per cent indicate that more than 20 per cent of their workforce work part-time. For Greece only 15 per cent of the organisations indicated that more than 20 per cent of their workforce work on a part-time basis.

FIGURE 3.1 Proportion of Establishments Using Part-Time Work, by Country (%)



Source: Fagan et al., (2007a); ESWT 2004-2005

Eurostat reports that part-time employment in EU27 reached 17.9 per cent of total employment at the end of 2008 (see Appendix II, Table II.1). The highest proportion is observed in the Netherlands (47.0 per cent), Germany (25.7 per cent)

and the United Kingdom (25.1 per cent), while, part-time employment is less prevalent in Bulgaria (2.4 per cent), Slovakia (3.2 per cent) and in Greece (5.7 per cent), among other Eastern and Mediterranean European countries.

The expansion of part-time employment is encouraged by the policy objectives of promoting flexibility and work-life balance set out in the EU's European Employment Strategy as well as national policies that have developed either in response to, or independently from, this strategy. However, the policy objectives of flexibility and work-life balance are separate, even if they are often linked in policy discussions. Some part-time work is designed primarily for securing flexibility for operational purposes (such as extended or variable operating hours), while other forms of part-time work are mainly used as a human resource (HR) tool to enhance work-life balance for employees (such as recruitment and retention or equal opportunities). Hence, it is likely that the degree of work-life balance provided by part-time arrangements varies across jobs and according to the characteristics of the part-time employees in terms of age, care responsibilities, skill level, voluntary or involuntary employed on a part-time basis (Fagan et al., 2007a).

These differing approaches to flexibility illustrate two different national models of part-time work. The Dutch model of part-time employment is one of the better-practice models across Europe in terms of (a) the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for part-time workers in working conditions and prospects for career advancement; (b) the penetration of part-time employment into the higher occupational levels and organisational hierarchies; and (c) regulations that establish the right for individual reversibility of working time arrangements between

full-time and part-time working. In contrast, the regulatory protection offered in the UK is much more limited (in both statute and collective bargaining coverage), and the penalty incurred through part-time employment is severe: there is a pronounced pay gap between full-time and part-time workers, and a period of part-time employment has a prolonged scarring effect on earnings and labour market advancement (Fagan et al., 2007a).

While the Netherlands and the UK are countries where government policy has facilitated the expansion of part-time employment (although with quite different regulatory approaches), other European countries have displayed less concern about its promotion or have actively resisted it. For example, in Greece trade unions oppose the legislative initiatives for the expansion of part-time work, advocating instead a model of full-time employment (Mihail, 2003).

3.1.2 Extent of Part-time Work in the Services Sector

The results of the Eurofound's Establishment Survey on Working Time (ESWT 2004-2005), indicated that the proportion of establishments practising part-time work is higher in the services sector than in industry: 68 per cent of managers of establishments in services report that there are part-time workers among the workforce, compared with 51 per cent of managers in industry.

More precisely, services rely on a high proportion of establishments with a high level of experience (20 per cent or more) of part-time workers (Table 3.1). Indeed, nearly one-third (31 per cent) of companies in the services sector have a

workforce where at least one-fifth of employees work part time compared with the average 24 per cent for all sectors.

In contrast, the pattern in the industrial sector reveals little or no experience of part-time workers: nearly half of establishments (49 per cent) do not have any part-time employees and 44 per cent have a low incidence (less than 20 per cent) of part-time work. Business organisations with a high incidence of part-time work are particularly widespread in health and social work, education, other community, social and personal services, and hotels and restaurants.

TABLE 3.1 Proportion of Establishments Using Part-time Work, by Sector of Activity (%)

Sector	No Part-time work	Less than 20% are part-time workers	20% or more are part-time workers	All
<i>Mining</i>	51	46	3	100
<i>Manufacturing industries</i>	46	45	9	100
<i>Electricity, gas, water supply.</i>	46	48	6	100
<i>Construction</i>	58	39	3	100
Total Industries	49	44	7	100
<i>Retail, repair</i>	39	37	23	100
<i>Hotels and restaurants</i>	26	30	43	100
<i>Transport and communication</i>	49	40	10	100
<i>Financial intermediation</i>	26	48	26	100
<i>Real estate</i>	34	44	21	100
<i>Public administration</i>	37	39	23	100
<i>Education</i>	7	34	58	100
<i>Health and social work</i>	10	29	61	100
<i>Other community, social and personal services</i>	21	34	44	100
Total Services	31	37	31	100
All Sectors	36	39	24	100

Source: Fagan et al., 2007a; ESWT 2004-2005

Note: Some items in the table do not add up to precisely 100% due to rounding effects

3.1.3 The Feminisation and the Low Quality of Part-time Work

The trend of part-time work affects women particularly. Official statistical data clearly show that women are overrepresented in part-time work. Part-time workforce at the end of 2008 in the EU, accounted 30.5 per cent for women but only 7.7 per cent for men (see Appendix II. Table II.1). The proportion of female part-timers remains higher than male part-timers in all European countries. It is notable that in the Netherlands the rate of female part-time work reaches 75.0 per cent compared to 23.4 per cent for male employees. Accordingly, the rate of Greek female part-time work is more than three times that of the Greek males (9.7 and 2.7 per cent, respectively) (Eurostat, 2009).

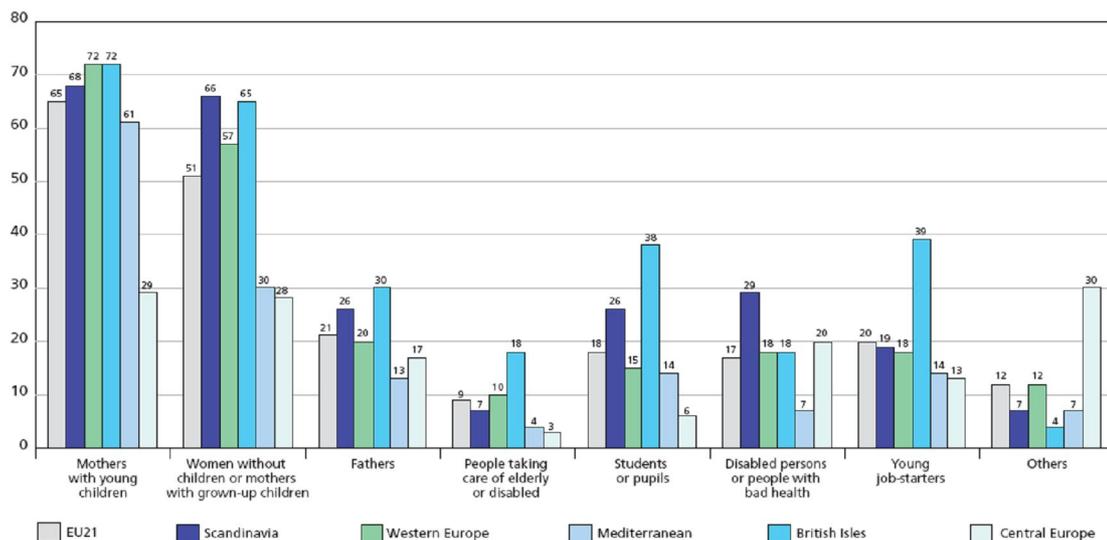
The ESWT survey investigated whether part-time workers relate to one specific group of employees (such as mothers), or whether a broader range of people make use of this working time arrangement. As was expected, the most frequently mentioned category of employees who work part time are mothers. On average, about two thirds (65 per cent) of the organisations that have any form of part-time work state that their part-time employees include mothers with pre-school or school-age children. In addition, just over half (51 per cent) of the establishments employ women without children or with grown-up children among their part-time workforce. Evidently, the need to care for children is still one of the most immediate and common reasons for working part time (Figure 3.2).

A particularly interesting finding, especially in relation to work-life balance, relates to fathers who work part time. Some 21 per cent of the organisations with part-time working options indicate that fathers are among their part-time workforce.

A country comparison reveals that part-time working fathers are more frequently found in firms in Belgium, the Netherlands, Sweden and the UK. In contrast, few workplaces in the Czech Republic, Italy, Portugal, Slovenia and Greece count fathers among their part-time workforce. In cases where fathers are employed part time in an establishment, it can be interpreted as an indicator that the general climate within the organisation is relatively open with regard to gender roles. Another specific group of part-time workers referred to in the ESWT survey is ‘young people early in their working lives’. Part-time employment is used by firms as a way of enabling young people to access the labour market. One in five of the business organisations with part-time workers indicated that these young ‘job starters’ were among their part-time workforce.

Nevertheless, as shown in Figure 3.2, the composition of the part-time workforce in most firms is dominated by groups that mainly or exclusively consist of women (Riedmann, 2006).

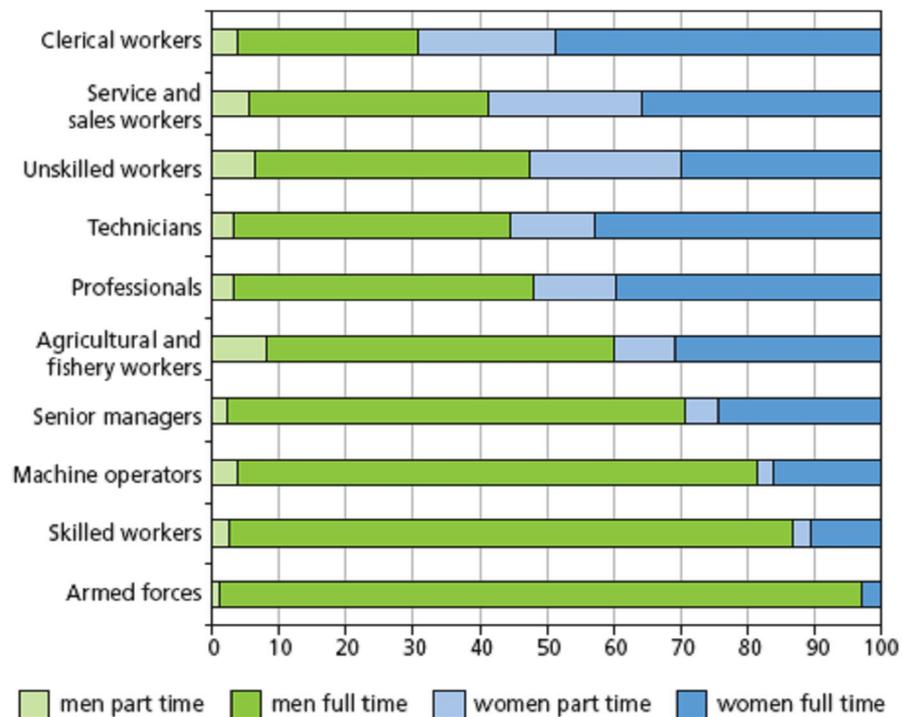
FIGURE 3.2: Categories of Part-time Workers, by Country Group (%)



Source: Riedmann, 2006; ESWT 2004-2005

What is also noteworthy is the quality of part-time work for female employees. Figure 3.3 indicates that the occupational categories of unskilled workers, clerical workers, as well as service and sales workers are not only dominated by women employees but also by women working on a part-time basis. On the other hand, men account for the majority of agricultural and fishery workers, senior managers, machine operators, skilled workers and members of the armed forces (Parent-Thirion et al., 2007).

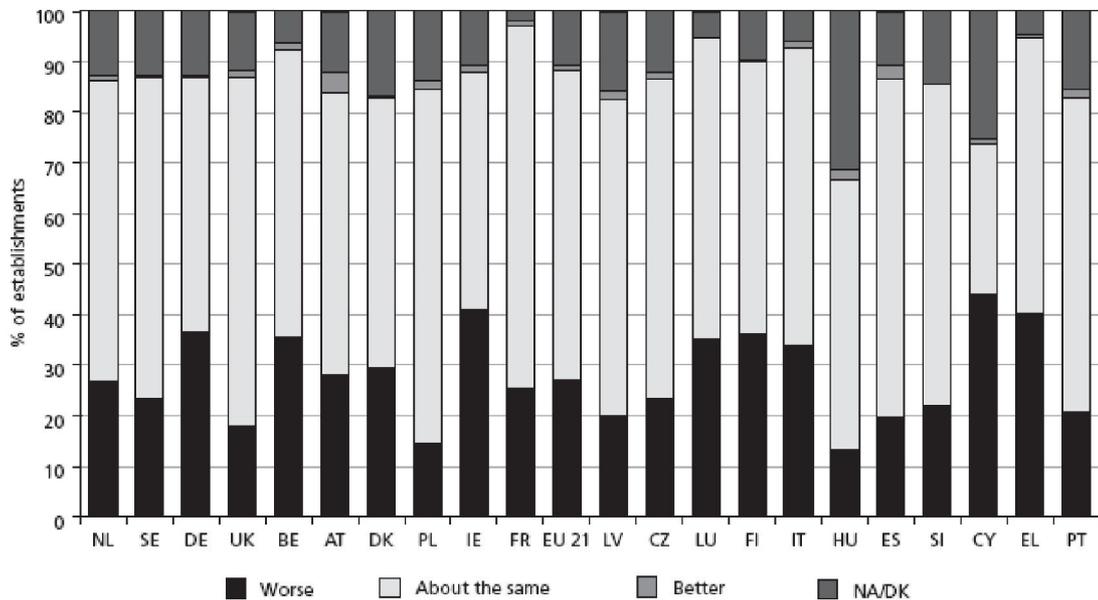
FIGURE 3.3 Occupational Segregation of Women’s and Men’s Employment, EU27 (%)



Source: Parent-Thirion et al., (2007); ESWT 2004-2005

In addition, Figure 3.4 shows that, in most EU countries, the promotion prospects of part-time workers are viewed as being ‘about the same’ as those of full-time workers by between 50 per cent and 70 per cent of managers. However, in Greece, Cyprus, Finland, Luxembourg, Ireland, Germany and Belgium, managers were more negative with the career prospects of part-time workers. Specifically, between 35 per cent and 44 per cent of managers reported ‘slightly worse’ or ‘significantly worse’ promotion prospects for part-time workers (compared to 27 per cent on average) (Fagan et al., 2007a).

FIGURE 3.4 Career Prospects of Part-time Workers, by Country (%)

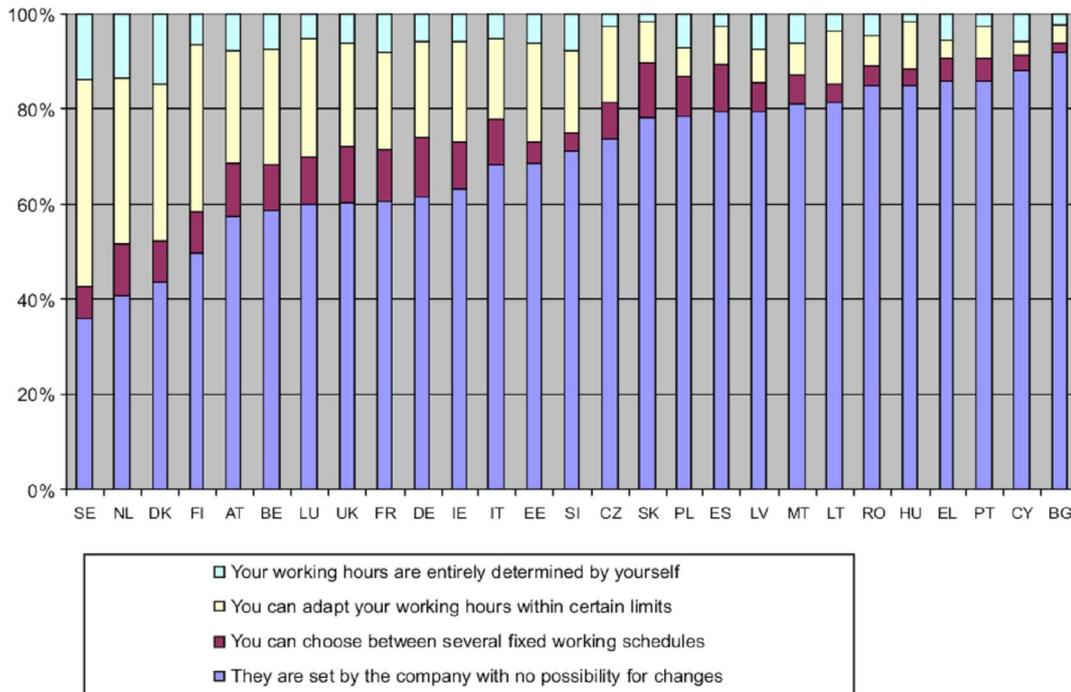


Source: Fagan et al., 2007a; ESWT 2004-2005

3.2 Flexible Working Time Arrangements

The term ‘flexi-time’ refers to a variety of working time arrangements that enable employees to vary the beginning and end of their daily working time, in order to adapt it to their personal needs and preferences. The Eurofound’s Establishment Survey on Working Time (ESWT) found that working time flexibility - even limited manifestations such as the ability to start or conclude work within a range of hours rather than at a fixed time - remains the preserve of a minority of European workers. Only in the Nordic countries and Netherlands do more than half of the workers have some measure of control over their working time arrangements. For Greece almost 85 per cent of employees reported that their working time arrangements are set by the company with no possibility for change (Figure 3.5).

FIGURE 3.5 How Working Time Arrangements are Set by Country (Employees Only)



Source: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working, 2008; ESWT

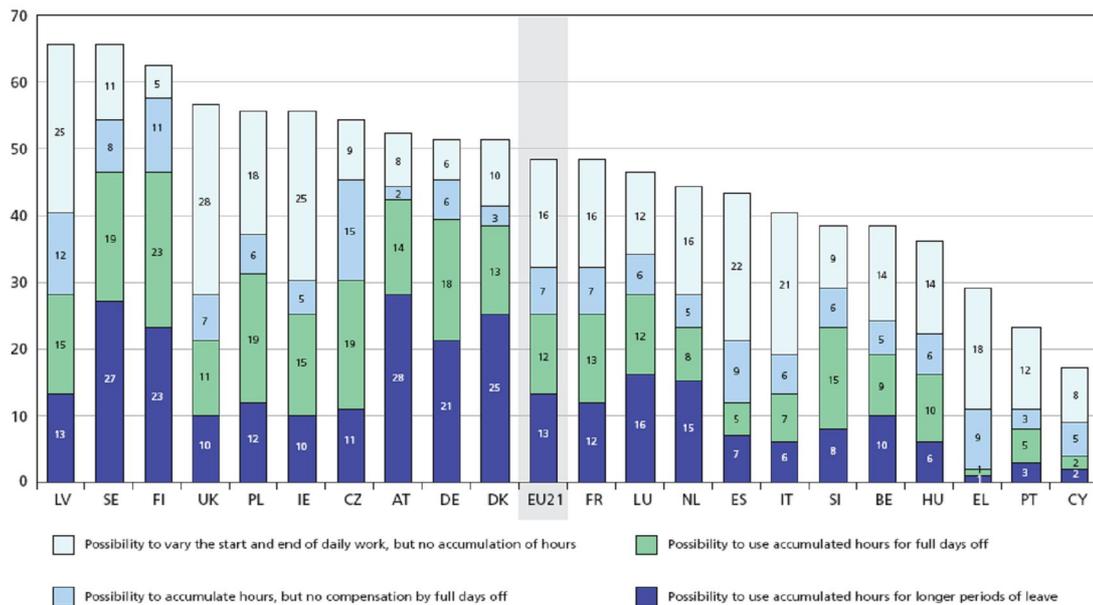
In addition, in the ESWT questionnaire, respondents were asked about flexible working time arrangements according to different degrees of flexibility - starting from the possibility of varying the start and end time of work only on a daily basis and ranging to systems that offer broad possibilities for the accumulation and compensation of hours over longer periods of time. The results are presented in Figure 3.6.

- The lowest degree of flexibility is offered by schemes that only allow the starting and finishing times to vary on the same day, without the possibility of accumulating credit or debit hours. In this scheme, only the start and finish times of each day are flexible, not the number of hours actually worked per day. Therefore, variations usually have to be evened out in the same day, e.g., by finishing the working day an hour later in the afternoon if the employee started work an hour later that morning. This type of flexibility is practised by 16 per cent of all the establishments surveyed.
- Other schemes allow for the accumulation of credit or debit hours, within certain limitations, over a longer period of time (such as a week or a month) but do not permit credit hours to be compensated by full days off. This means that longer working hours some days can be compensated by working fewer hours on other days. Some 7 per cent of all organisations surveyed offer this arrangement to at least some of their employees.
- In more advanced flexi-time schemes, employees are permitted to take full days off to compensate for accumulated credit hours. Such schemes are practised in 12 per cent of all establishments.

- The highest degree of flexibility is offered by schemes that allow credit hours to be compensated for by longer periods of time off work. Such schemes are often referred to as ‘working time accounts’ or ‘annualised working hours’ and exist in 13 per cent of the organisations surveyed (Fagan et al., 2007a).

Significant differences exist in the overall incidence of flexible working time arrangements practised in the 21 countries. While in Cyprus, Portugal and Greece, fewer than one-third of firms offer some flexibility with regard to working hours, about two-thirds of all establishments in Sweden, Latvia and Finland do so. Apart from these two groups of countries, the proportion of organisations offering some form of flexible working hours is relatively even, ranging from between 40 and 55 per cent in a significant number of countries (Figure 3.6)

FIGURE 3.6. Incidence of Different Forms of Flexible Working Time Arrangements, by Country (%)

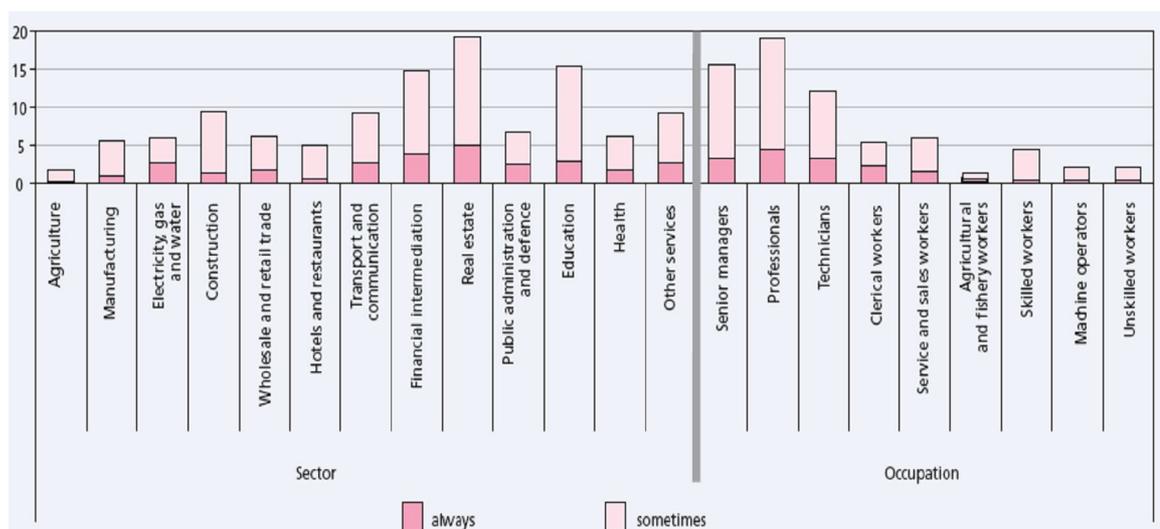


Source: Fagan et al., 2007a; ESWT 2004-2005

3.3 Telework

In the Fourth ‘European Working Conditions Survey’, there is a specific indicator on telework, which is defined as working from home and with a PC. The overall proportion of people doing telework is very low: slightly more than 8 per cent of all EU workers do any telework at all, and less than 2 per cent regularly work from home and with a PC. Although generally very low everywhere, the proportion of people teleworking is highest in the Scandinavian countries and the Netherlands and lowest in the southern European countries. In terms of sectors, Figure 3.7 shows that three stand out with a considerably higher use of telework than all the rest: real estate, financial intermediation and education. Only professional, managerial and technical occupations have more than 10 per cent of workers working sometimes or always from home and with PC (Parent-Thirion et al., 2007).

FIGURE 3.7 Telework by Sector and Occupation, EU27 (%)



Source: Parent-Thirion et al., (2007); ESWT 2004-2005

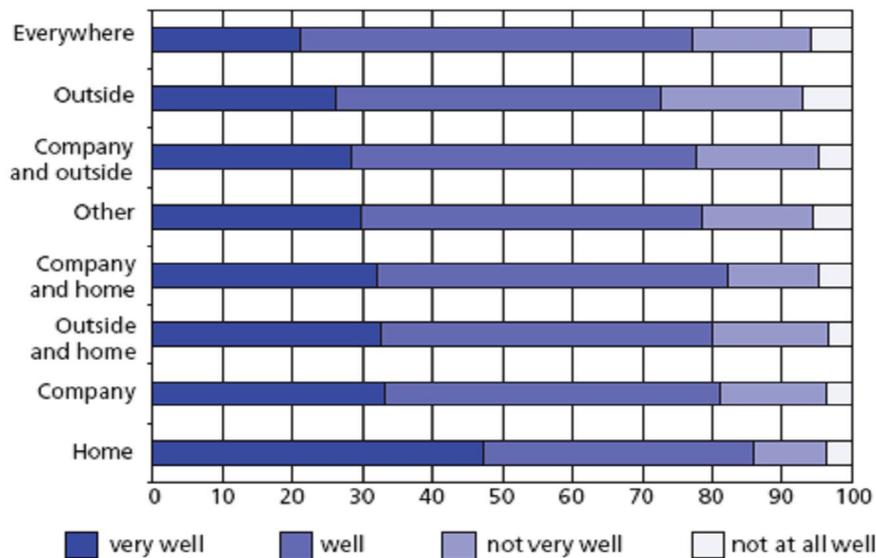
Due to inadequate statistical monitoring, it is difficult to precisely determine the number of people who are working in the telework sector in Greece. A 2003 study by the Ministry of Employment and Social Protection reports that the actual number of people engaged in telework in Greece is probably unknown. Nonetheless, certain unofficial statistics estimate the number of teleworkers to be in the region of 50.000 people - or 1.14 per cent of the country's total workforce of 4.4 million people. This new form of employment mainly draws interest from large enterprises or multinationals whose parent companies abroad have begun to adopt practices and models for organising telework and self-employed people whose occupations require familiarity with and use of new information and communication technologies (ICT) including computers and the internet, such as authors, journalists, translators, accountants, programmers and architects.

The Greek government mainly highlights the opportunities that telework provides for the integration in the workplace of vulnerable social groups, such as people with special needs and special population groups, such as people living in island areas. Trade unions and employer organisations maintain a generally positive outlook in relation to telework. However, the unions have raised questions over the nature of the telework agreement, since, in practice, cases have emerged where contracting agreements replace the traditional labour agreement and where individual employment contracts replace the collective regulation of teleworking relationships. Meanwhile, employer organisations are mainly concerned about the implications that the growth of telework has in relation to issues, such as the practical control of workers, the risk of leaking confidential business data, possible burdens on

companies due to the misuse of electronic equipment and problems relating to vocational training opportunities for teleworkers. Thus, both the trade unions and employer organisations agree that a more specific regulatory framework should be introduced (Lampousaki, 2008).

Figure 3.8 shows the levels of satisfaction with work-life of the workers in the different places of work (EU 27). Although the levels of satisfaction with work-life balance are quite high across all categories, there is a clear correlation between satisfaction with work-life balance and usual place of work. Specifically, those working from home are considerably more satisfied with their work-life balance than all other workers and those working outside and everywhere are least satisfied. This finding suggests that not only working hours but also the place of work has an impact on the work-life balance of workers (Parent-Thirion et al., 2007).

FIGURE 3.8 Work-life Balance, by Usual Place of Work, EU27 (%)



Note: Question asked 'Do your working hours fit in your family or social commitments outside work?'
 Source: Parent-Thirion et al., (2007); ESWT 2004-2005

3.4 Flexible Leave Arrangements

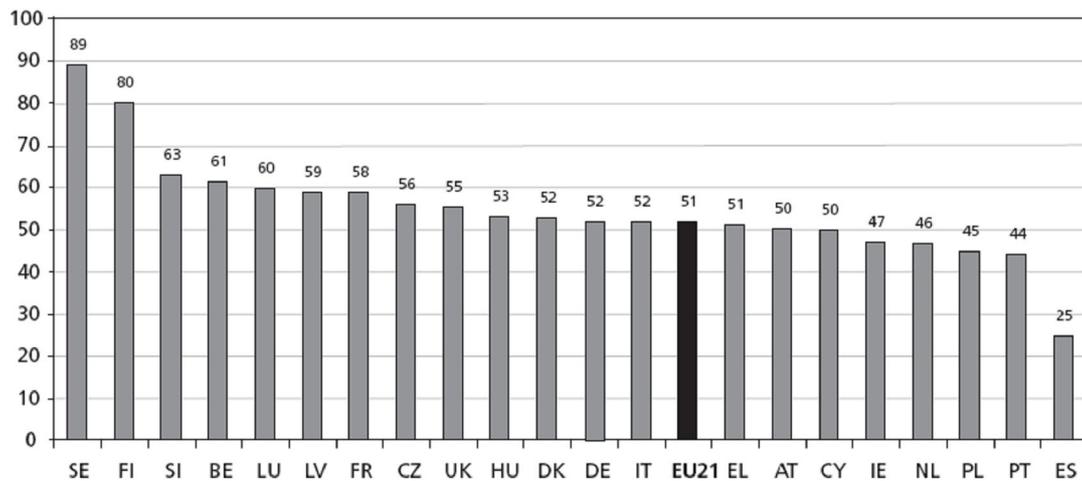
3.4.1 Parental Leave

Parental leave is the most frequent reason for taking a long period of absence from an establishment, with the intention of returning later on. Many organisations in Europe have recent experience of employees making use of their right to take parental leave.

In 51 per cent of all firms interviewed for the Eurofound's Establishment Survey on Working Time (ESWT), at least one employee has been on parental leave in the three years preceding the interview (Figure 3.9). The proportion of organisations with employees on parental leave varies from 45 per cent to 60 per cent of companies in most of the 21 countries surveyed. The incidence of employees taking parental leave is significantly higher in Sweden, with employees in 89 per cent of the organisations surveyed availing of this option, followed by Finland, with employees in 80 per cent of organisations taking up such leave. Slovenia ranks third, after Sweden and Finland, with 63 per cent of establishments having had an employee on parental leave in the past three years. A high take-up might be expected in Slovenia, given the full earnings replacement provided for employees on parental leave. In the middle of the country-rank is a group of mainly western and eastern European countries, witnessing an incidence of parental leave higher than the EU21 average. In Greece 51 per cent of the firms (the same as the EU21 average) have had an experience with parental leave. At the same time, there is a tendency for many of the southern European countries to have lower rates close to or below the EU21

average. In Ireland, the Netherlands, Poland and Portugal, less than 50 per cent of the establishments surveyed have had any experience of employees requesting parental leave, which declines to only 25 per cent of firms in Spain (Fagan et al., 2007b).

FIGURE 3.9 Establishments with Employees on Parental Leave in Past Three Years, by Country (%)



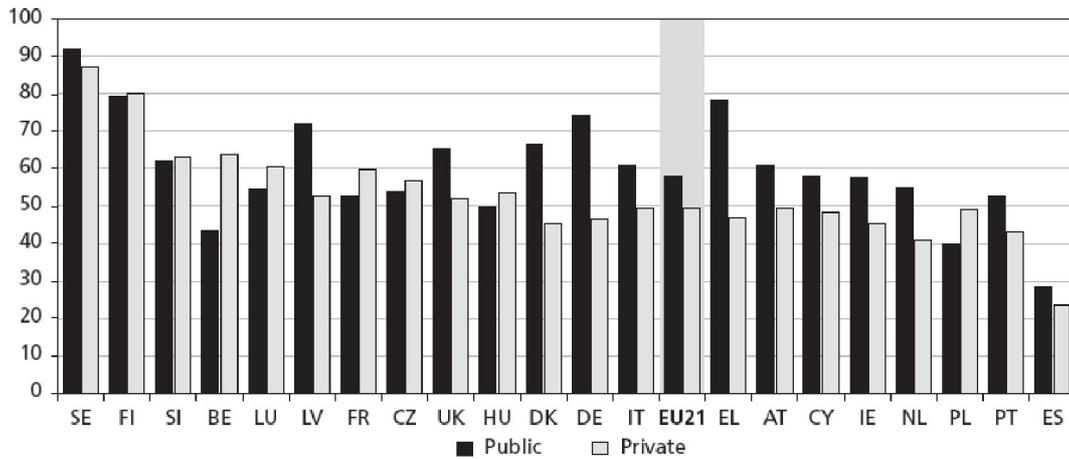
Source: Fagan et al., 2007b; ESWT 2004-2005

Some countries, such as Sweden and Slovenia, reserve a specific part of the parental leave period exclusively for fathers as an individual entitlement. On average, 30 per cent of the organisations with recent experience of parental leave reported that one or more male employees were among those who took parental leave. Nonetheless, there is a large variation in this respect across the countries, with values ranging from as little as 5 per cent or even less in Greece, Cyprus, the Czech Republic and Hungary to as high as 69 per cent of establishments in Sweden, a country that is often cited as exemplifying a ‘positive model’ with regard to the involvement of fathers in childcare duties. In Slovenia, a similarly high proportion of

66 per cent of firms is reported (European Foundation for Improvement Living and Working Conditions, 2006).

Additionally, public sector establishments are more likely to have some experience of parental leave than those in the private sector: on average, 58 per cent of public sector establishments surveyed by Eurofound had employees taking parental leave in the past three years compared with 50 per cent of private sector companies (Figure 3.10). This gap between the two sectors is found in 13 of the 21 countries in this study and is particularly pronounced in Greece, Denmark, Germany, Latvia, the Netherlands and the UK. However, a smaller group of countries reveal a significant gap in the reverse direction, with private sector companies much more likely to have experience of parental leave, for example, in Belgium, France, Luxembourg and Poland, as well as the Czech Republic and Hungary. These sector differences are likely to arise from a number of different employment conditions in the public and private sectors, one of which may be different leave entitlements across the sectors. For example, in Greece, the leave entitlement is much more generous in the public sector, whereas the Belgian legislation does not extend all leave entitlements to the public sector. Another factor that may explain this sectoral difference is the high proportion of women in the public sector workforce, taking into account that more mothers make use of their parental leave entitlement than fathers do (Fagan et al., 2007b).

FIGURE 3.10 Establishments with Employees on Parental Leave in Past Three Years, by Public and Private Sector (%)



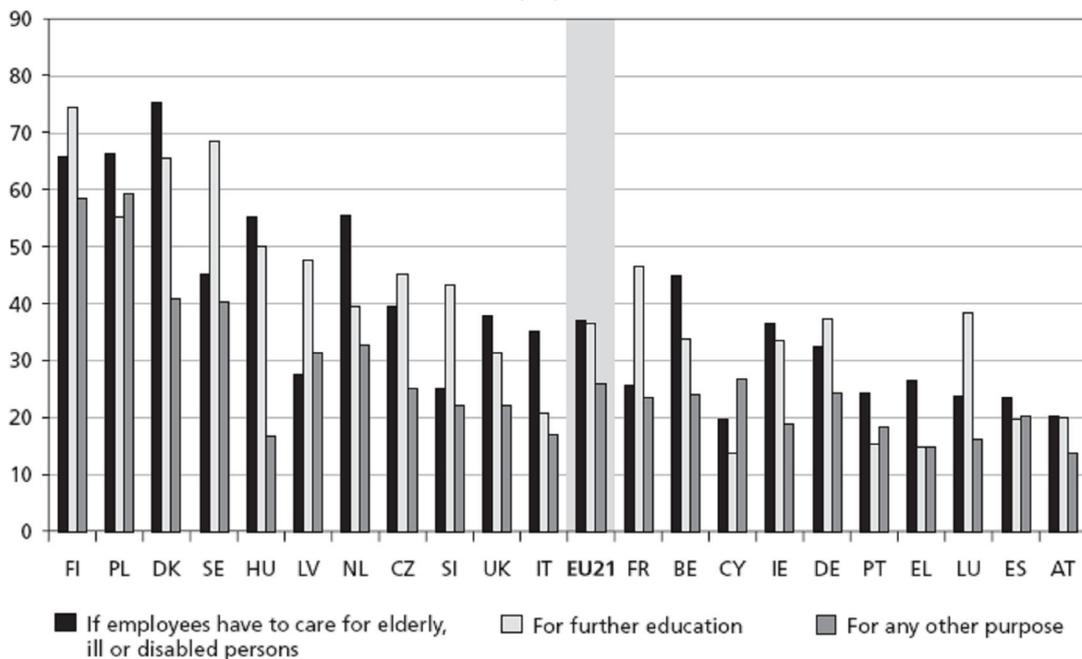
Source: Fagan et al., 2007b ; ESWT 2004-2005

3.4.2 Other Forms of Long-term Leaves

In the ESWT questionnaire, managers were asked if their establishment offered their employees the possibility of taking periods of long-term leave (paid or unpaid) to care for older, ill or disabled persons, for further education or for any other reason, except parental leave. Just over one-third (37 per cent) of organisations did not provide any of these additional forms of long-term leave arrangements. Overall, 37 per cent of firms offered long-term leave arrangements for care, 36 per cent of companies for further education, and 26 per cent of enterprises for any other purpose. The availability of long-term leave possibilities is more widespread within organisations in the Nordic countries, in most eastern European countries and also in the Netherlands (Figure 3.11). More than 40 per cent of companies provide extended care leave options in Finland, Poland, Denmark, Sweden, Hungary, the Netherlands and Belgium.

Education and training leave is most widespread in companies in Finland, Denmark and Sweden, followed by enterprises in the eastern European countries. Sizeable proportions of establishments in France, the Netherlands, Germany and Luxembourg also provide employees with opportunities for education and training leave (Fagan et al., 2007b).

FIGURE 3.11 Establishments According to Long-term Leave Arrangements, by Country (%)



Source: Fagan et al., 2007b; ESWT 2004-2005

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PART III

Flexibility in the

Secondary

Labour Market

4. Motivation of Part-time Employees with Special Focus on Women

4.1 Introduction

In the last two decades there has been a growing body of literature concerning the attitudinal differences between full-time and part-time employees. The explanation for this research interest lies in the international proliferation of part-time employment. According to official statistics, part-time work represents approximately 18 per cent of the total employment in EU countries (Eurostat, 2009) and 19 per cent of the US workforce (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009).

As it has been already noted it is remarkable that this expansion of part-time work affects women especially. Labour statistics clearly reveal the feminisation of part-time employment. Specifically, the part-time workforce at the end of 2008 accounted for 30.5 per cent for women, but only 7.7 per cent for men in the EU (Eurostat, 2009). In addition, women's overrepresentation in part-time employment is more evident if we focus on the retail sector. According to the Labour Force Survey, women accounted for 61 per cent of the workforce in retail trade across the EU in 2005. In addition, 30 per cent of people employed were working part-time, while 75 per cent of the latter were women (Urbanski, 2007).

However, special attention should be given to the nature and quality of part-time employment in the retail sector. Previous studies have indicated that part-time workers and retail sales workers are more likely to be concentrated in the 'secondary

labour market' in low-level jobs (Dickens and Lang, 1992; Tilly, 1992; Barker, 1993; Freathy 1993; Dickens, 1996; Harley and Whitehouse, 2001; Jenkins, 2004; Tomlinson 2007a; Walsh, 2007). Employees in the 'secondary labour market' face low compensation, low training, minimal skill level, low job security and a low level of demarcation between jobs. Nevertheless, there is a scarcity of empirical research focusing on the motivation of part-time employees, and especially of female part-time employees, in such a demanding and stressful work environment.

Individuals choose to work part-time for different reasons. In the literature it is evident that many people choose to work part-time because of personal preferences for flexibility (e.g., more leisure time) (Wetzel et al., 1990; Warren, 2004; Shittu and Omar, 2006), family obligations (childcare, eldercare) (Legault and Chasserio, 2003; Thornley, 2007), health reasons (Wetzel et al., 1990) or because of the lack of alternative employment options (Feldman, 1990; Fagan and Rubery, 1996; Sinclair et al., 1999; Maynard et al., 2006a; Maynard et al., 2006b).

However, it is suggested that in order to dispel many of the stereotypes and negative connotations associated with part-time work (e.g., weak commitment), it is essential to examine more directly the work motivation of part-timers (Warne et al., 1992; Kalleberg, 1995). Moreover, it is important to shed light on motivation, because of its link with job performance (Oldham, 1976; Mitchell, 1982), as well as with job satisfaction (Lam and Zhang, 2003; Linz, 2003) and organisational commitment of employees (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Lam and Zhang, 2003; Linz 2004).

Furthermore, replicating previous research on employee motivation will allow us to draw comparisons across countries. The results of this survey study contribute to the existing employee motivation research that utilises data from the USA, China, Russia and Poland (Silverthorne, 1992; Huddleston and Good, 1999; Linz, 2002; 2003; 2004).

Moreover, to our knowledge, there are no updated studies that examine the motivation of employees by work status for the Greek case. Since the rate of Greek female part-time work is more than three times that of the Greek males (9.7 and 2.7 per cent, respectively) (Eurostat, 2009), clearly it would be valuable to shed light on the behaviour of the female part-time employees in the Greek retail sector.

Focusing on employees in retail trade, and especially on female employees, we identify the job rewards part-time employees find important in the workplace when compared to those of full-time salespeople. In addition, we explore their expectations of receiving such rewards. Furthermore, this thesis enhances researchers' understanding of motivation by exploring the relationship between individual characteristics of employees and their perceptions of whether they receive what they deem as important in the workplace. In particular, apart from the actual working conditions, we enquire whether there are any subjective factors that may influence employees' perceptions with regard to rewards.

This chapter begins with the theoretical background of the research and the development of the hypotheses. We then give a description of the sample as well as outline the details of the method adopted for the survey. After empirical results are presented, the most important findings are summarised.

4.2 Research Hypotheses

4.2.1 Expectations of Receiving Job Motivators by Full-time / Part-time Work Status

A central idea of the motivation theories is that different people are motivated by different rewards (Alderfer, 1977; Mitchell, 1982). In recent years, the literature on motivation has provided valuable information based on this argument. Previous studies have demonstrated how motivational factors may differ across cultures, job level (managers, workers), age and gender (Silverthorne, 1992; Huddleston and Good, 1999; Analoui, 2000; Linz 2002; Linz, 2003; Linz, 2004; Parsons and Broadbridge, 2006). Much of this research was based on the expectancy theory developed by Vroom (1964). According to the expectancy theory, motivation of employees is related to the valence, which is the intensity of the desire for extrinsic (e.g., pay, promotion, benefits etc.) or intrinsic (e.g., self-satisfaction, skill development, learning etc.) rewards and to the expectation of receiving these rewards.

In particular, Huddleston and Good (1999) examined, firstly, what work characteristics motivate employees of Russian and Polish retail firms and, secondly, employees' expectations of receiving these rewards. Results indicated that for Russian sales employees, the most important work motivators were pay and friendliness of co-workers, while Polish employees, very similarly, rated the amount of pay they receive, the chance they have to do something important about

themselves and the friendliness of co-workers highest. Nonetheless, this study also presented the finding that the expectations of sales employees in both countries for receiving these important rewards were lower than the rewards' importance ratings. In other words, employees do not receive what they perceive as important. Specifically, it was found that both Russian and Polish sales employees were least expectant to receive promotion, pay and freedom in their workplace.

In another empirical study, Linz (2004) extended the research of Huddleston and Good by taking into account job level (managers compared to workers) and gender and age differences of employees. In accordance with previous findings, Linz confirmed that for each motivator the expectations of receiving a desired reward is significantly lower than the relative importance attached to it. In particular, gender comparisons based on mean values showed that women are more likely than men to report that specific motivators (i.e., pay, the chance to do something that makes you feel good, job security, praise from supervisor, respect and friendliness of co-workers) are more important in their workplace. However, further analysis again showed that women consistently reported lower expectations of receiving a desired reward despite the quality of their work.

Associating the motivation theory and the work status (full-time / part-time) of employees is especially widespread in studies that explore attitudinal differences at work. In particular, during the 1990s, this association was evident in studies concerning the job satisfaction of employees (Logan and Roberts, 1973; Wortuba, 1990; Shockey and Mueller, 1994; Fenton, 1995; Kalleberg, 1995). Job satisfaction is defined as a positive state that depends not only on the quality of the employment

but also on the job experience (Locke, 1976). In particular, job satisfaction results from the comparison between the expectations of rewards that should be received and perceptions of actual rewards received (Lawler, 1973). The greater the gap between the two the greater the level of job dissatisfaction.

Studies conducted during the 1990s, which reported part-timers to be more satisfied than their full-time counterparts, hypothesised that this outcome may be an indication that part-timers hold different expectations for work and have different motivation compared to full-timers (Logan and Roberts, 1973; Wortuba, 1990; Fenton, 1995). It was suggested that part-timers are not expected to be motivated by intrinsic work characteristics, while full-timers may be more responsive to the nature of the job itself and to opportunities for promotion (Logan and Roberts, 1973). Additionally, it was hypothesised that part-time employees compared to full-time employees may place lower priority on pay and advancement and higher priority on the flexibility of working hours. Based on this rationale, it was suggested that when the initial expectations of part-timers are lower, then their reaction to a similar workplace will be more positive. Thus, not surprisingly, they are more easily satisfied, and, compared to full-timers, they tend to report greater levels of job satisfaction (Wortuba, 1990; Fenton, 1995).

Nevertheless, empirical research revealed a different picture. Shockey and Mueller (1994) found that women full-time and women part-time employees enter the work experience with similar orientations, expectations and perceptions. Hence, the authors suggest that it is the less rewarding structural conditions for women part-time employees that influence later negative responses to work. Structural

conditions refer to the actual working conditions usually controlled by the employer such as pay, promotional opportunities, job variety and job autonomy.

In another study, Kalleberg (1995) focused on two dimensions of work motivation: the role of work in a person's life and the importance a person places on the various facets of work. Empirical results indicated that part-time and full-time employees are similar in both the work roles and the characteristics they find important in a job. Nevertheless, differences exist in the rewards that these two groups receive. Part-timers receive lower pay and fringe benefits, while male part-timers exercise lower, job autonomy and have fewer opportunities for advancement compared to full-time workers.

Similarly, recent studies indicate that part-time employment is associated with adverse working conditions. Part-timers are not satisfied with the variety of tasks or opportunities for occupational mobility (Tomlinson, 2007b), are allocated to unfavourable tasks, are treated as inferior and 'second class' (Walsh, 2007), and enjoy less job autonomy (Harley and Whitehouse, 2001). In addition, Stamper and Masterson (2002) suggested that employees who spend less time at work (e.g., part-timers) could be stigmatised as 'outsiders' with profound consequences for their status and involvement in organisations.

Focusing on the retail sector, the literature supports the contention that part-time workers are indeed less involved in organisational functioning, have shorter tenure and spend fewer hours in the workplace (Wortuba, 1990; Sinclair et al., 1999; Jenkins, 2004). Consequently, based on previous findings, we would expect full-time and part-time, female sales employees to be similar in the work motivators

(rewards) that they find important in retail firms. However, taking into account the poor working conditions of part-time work in the retail sector, it is suggested that for part-timers, compared to full-timers, the expectations of receiving the desired rewards are significantly lower.

Hypothesis 1. Full-time and part-time employees are similar in the work motivators that they find important in their workplace.

Hypothesis 2. Part-time compared to full-time employees hold lower expectations of receiving the desired work motivators in their workplace.

4.2.2 The Effect of Demographic and Work-related Characteristics on Work Motivation

Previous research exploring the attitudes of employees also developed indicators of ‘fit’ of job rewards (Kallenberg, 1995; Lam and Zhang, 2003; Linz, 2003). These indicators were constructed by subtracting the expectations for rewards from the importance (perceptions) that the respondents attached to them. A positive gap implies that there is a gap in motivation and employees do not receive what they perceive as important.

Kallenberg (1995) indicated that full-timers, compared to part-time employees, expressed greater gaps with regard to having a job that provides flexible working hours, while full-time men, compared to part-time men, expressed greater

gaps with regard to job security. In another study, Linz (2003) reported that the biggest gap between the ‘importance’ of rewards and the ‘likelihood’ of receiving intrinsic rewards occurred for the chance to learn new things, the sense of freedom and the development of skills. For extrinsic rewards, the greatest gaps appeared for the amount of pay and the chances of getting a promotion. Likewise, Lam and Zhang (2003) showed that in the fast-food industry, there is a significant difference between expectations and perceptions of rewards among new employees. Additionally, they found that the largest gap mean (unmet expectations) was for ‘job characteristics’, followed by ‘training and development’ and ‘compensation’. Huddleston and Good (1999, pg. 391) proposed:

...When expectations are consistently unmet, motivation can be severely curtailed. If workers are not motivated, then turnover will increase and/or workers will become apathetic and decrease their productivity.

Nevertheless, past research has not elaborated on the factors predicting the development of these gaps in motivation. Apart from the work conditions and the actual rewards provided by an employer (objective factors), are there any subjective factors that affect employees’ perceptions of the importance of work motivators and their expectations of receiving rewards?

Previous studies suggest that demographic (gender, age, marital status etc.) and work-related characteristics of individuals (tenure, experience with

unemployment, number of jobs held etc.) should be considered when attempting to explain attitudes and behaviours of part-time employees (Feldman, 1990; Bennet et al., 1994; Nardone, 1995; Sinclair et al., 1999; Krausz et al., 2000; Linz, 2003; Maynard et al., 2006a). In particular, Feldman (1990), argued that:

...different demographic groups may use systematically different frame of references to evaluate their part-time work experiences, and they may focus on different context factors when they determine their partial inclusion in the workforce is attractive, irritating, or irrelevant (1990, pg. 104)...demographic groups might weight facets of part-time work differently when they assess their overall job satisfaction or motivation. (1990, pg. 107)

A thorough examination of the demographic heterogeneity of part-time employees has been provided by Sinclair et al. (1999), Maynard et al. (2006a) and Martin and Sinclair (2007). These researchers remarked that part-time workers are not a homogenous workforce, but instead they differ not only from full-timers but also from each other. In particular, they identified different subgroups of part-timers based on demographic profiles, on the reasons for taking up part-time work and on 'life-circumstances' (i.e., 'moonlighters', 'supplementers', 'primaries', 'students', 'caretakers', etc). For instance, Sinclair et al. (1999) reported that 'supplementers' part-timers are more likely to be married women, over thirty years old, with the care of children and with low level of college education. On the other hand, 'student'

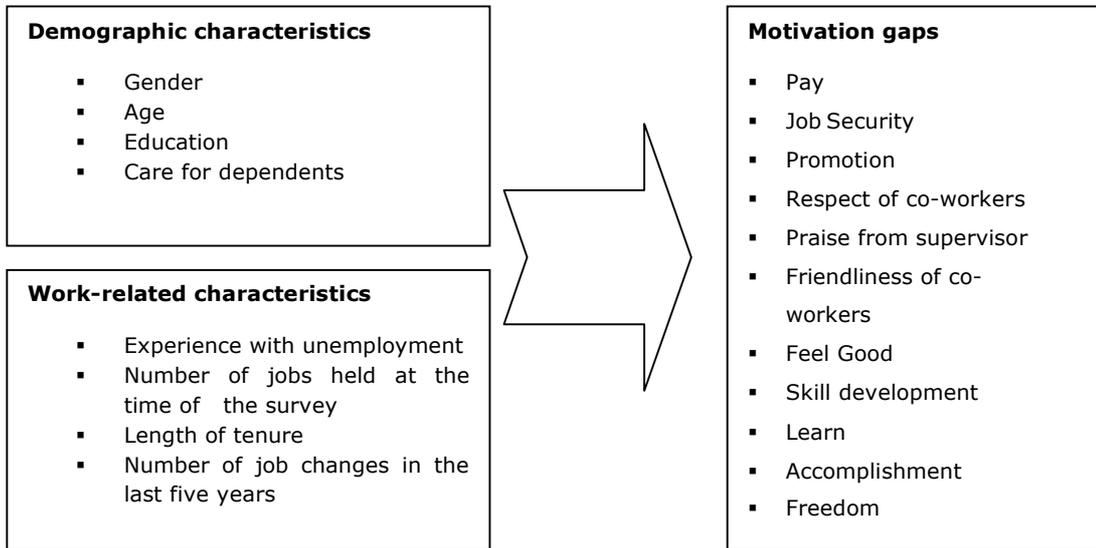
part-timers are more likely to be younger, single, and without children. These studies highlighted the significant demographic differences of the part-time subgroups and indicated how these groups differ from each other with regard to job attitudes and behaviours.

Hence, based on the above findings, one would expect that demographic and work-related characteristics of part-time employees have a significant impact on employees' perceptions of the importance of work motivators as well as, their expectations of receiving rewards. For instance, part-time employees with the burden of care for dependents ('caretakers' based on Maynard et al., 2006a, pg. 152) may place greater importance on the motivator of flexibility of work schedule and on having more leisure time. In accordance, 'caretakers' are more likely to hold a stronger perception that through part-time work they receive the reward of flexibility. On the other hand, part-time employees that earn over 50 per cent of their total family income ('primaries' based on Sinclair et al., 1999, pg. 343; Martin, and Sinclair, 2007) may place a greater importance on the motivators of pay and job security.

Hypothesis 3. For part-time compared to full-time employees, the demographic and work-related characteristics of individuals have a significant impact on the reported importance of work motivators and the expectations of receiving these rewards (motivation gaps).

Figure 4.1 illustrates the hypothesised relationships for work motivation.

FIGURE 4.1 Hypothesised Relationships for Motivation



4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Measures

Work motivators. Work motivators were measured with the instrument developed by Huddleston and Good (1999). The specific instrument was developed to measure the importance and the likelihood of receiving work rewards in retail firms. This methodology has also been applied by Linz (2002; 2003; 2004). Specifically, six extrinsic and five intrinsic work motivators are evaluated. The extrinsic rewards include pay, promotion, job security, praise from supervisor, friendliness, and respect of co-workers. The intrinsic rewards include self-satisfaction, skill development, learning, accomplishment, and freedom.

Initially, participants were asked to rate the importance of each of the total eleven rewards on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 = not important and 5 = extremely important). For example, *'How important is the amount of pay you get?'*. After the completion of this set of eleven questions concerning their perceptions of what is important, a second series of eleven questions was given asking respondents about their expectations of receiving these eleven motivators. The design of the questions was as follows: *'How likely is it that you would get a bonus or pay increase if you performed your job extremely well?'*. Once again the questions used a 5-point scale, with 1 = not at all likely and 5 = extremely likely (see Appendix III, Table III.4).

The 'motivation gap' variables used in this analysis were calculated by subtracting the 'likelihood' mean values from the 'importance' mean values. A positive value score for each of the eleven variables implies that unmet expectations regarding motivation exist. In other words, a positive value implies that even if they performed their jobs extremely well, respondents were not likely to receive what they perceived as important.

Demographic characteristics. In this study a number of demographic variables are considered. We obtained information regarding the gender of participants (0 = female, 1 = male), their educational level (EDUC, 0 = at most high school diploma, 1 = Bachelor's degree or higher) and whether they provided care to dependent people – childcare, eldercare, dependents with disabilities – (CARE, 0 = No, 1 = Yes). In order to secure a high response rate of female employees, instead of using an open-ended question to assess age, we provided a closed question based on six age groups. However, because 23.2 per cent of the respondents were less than 24

years old and 76.8 per cent were 25 to 54 years old, age was treated as a dummy variable (AGE 0 = 18-24 years old, 1 = older than 25 years old). Similarly, previous research has shown that there is a relatively large proportion of part-timers in the young age group (< 25 years old).

Work-related characteristics. Tenure in an organisation was measured in months (TENURE). Data concerning experience with unemployment, number of jobs held at the time of survey and number of times they had changed employers in the last five years were obtained adopting the questions applied by Linz (2003). Experience with unemployment was obtained with the following question: “*In the last five years, have you been unemployed, that is, without work, for more than two weeks, when you wanted to be working?*” (UNEMPLOY, 0 = No, 1 = Yes). Also, respondents were asked to report the number of jobs held at the time of survey (NJOBS, 0 = Two or more regular jobs for pay, 1 = This is the only regular job that I have), as well as to report the number of times they had changed employers in the previous five years (CHJOBS).

4.3.2 Procedure and Participants

Data were conveniently collected from sales employees from fifteen retail firms in Northern Greece. After permission was obtained from each employer, the questionnaires were hand-delivered by the researcher to the sales employees. Prior to the completion, participants were informed of the purpose of the study and the fact that all identities would be kept completely confidential. The function of this

preface was to set the participants at ease, so they would express their unmet job expectations more openly.

A total of 488 completed questionnaires were handed back to the researcher. The response rates by workplace reached 37.5 per cent, while almost 75 per cent of the distributed questionnaires were collected. With regard to the work status, the sample consisted of 275 full-time and 213 part-time employees (Figure 4.2). Not surprisingly, 71.5 per cent of the participants were women, compared to only 28.5 per cent for men. In accordance, 76.5 per cent of the part-timers were women compared to 23.5 per cent for men (Figure 4.3). These trends reflect the prevalence of female employees in both the retail sector and part-time work. Most participants were aged over 25 years old (76.8 per cent), held a high school diploma (69.7 per cent) and had been employed in the current company for no more than 24 months (62.1 per cent). It is notable that 73.7 per cent of the part-time employees indicated that they had been employed in the current position for no more than two years (Figure 4.4). This trend reflects the high turnover of part-timers compared to full-timers. A detailed description (count, per cent, means and standard deviations) of the total sample population, as well as by gender, is presented in Appendix III.

FIGURE 4.2 Total Sample by Work Status

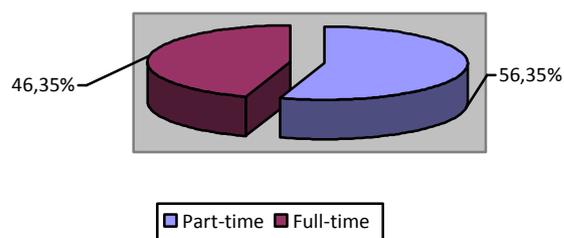


FIGURE 4.3 Work Status and Gender

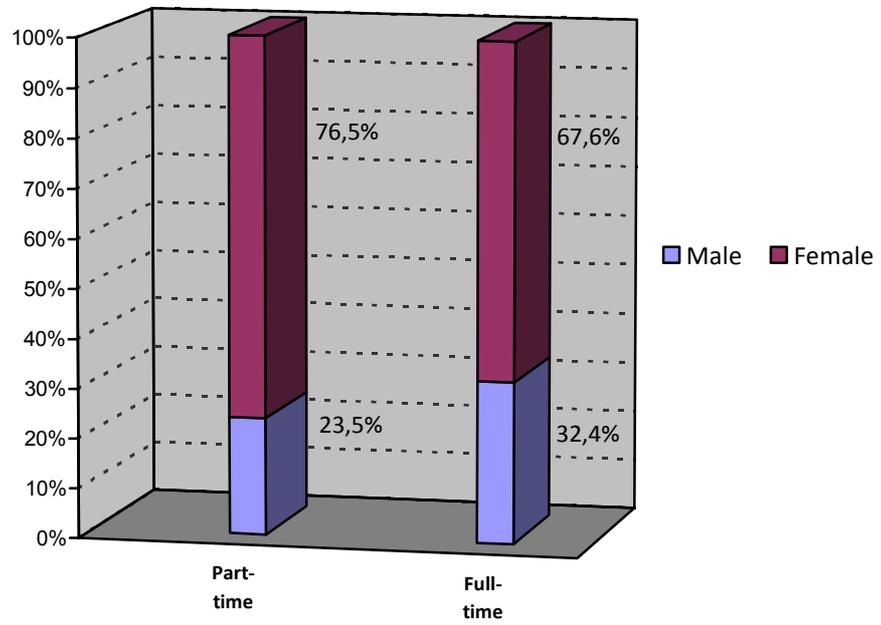
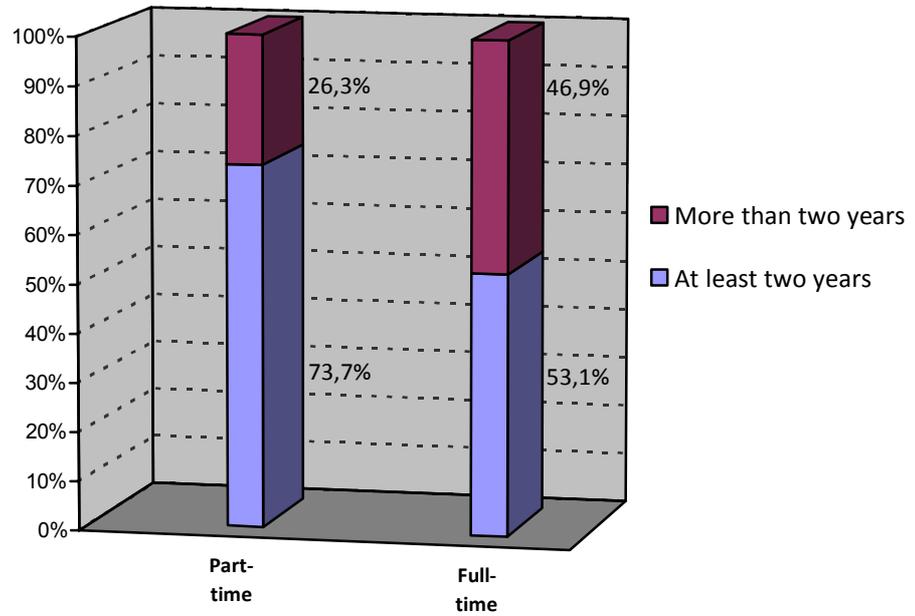


FIGURE 4.4 Work status and Tenure



4.3.3 Data Analyses

Since we were interested in exploring not only the work motivators of the total sample but also the work motivators of female employees in detail, the motivation of females is examined separately. This special focus on the protagonists of part-time work, female employees will allow us to examine comprehensively and in depth the issue of motivation.

The data were analysed in two stages. In the first stage, a series of analyses of variance of demographic and work-related characteristics by work status were conducted. The purpose of this analysis was to identify the different covariates for the total sample and separately for female employees. Next, in order to examine whether the work status (full-time/part-time) of employees has an effect on the importance (Hypothesis 1) and the expectations (Hypothesis 2) of receiving work motivators we performed multivariate analyses of covariance (MANCOVAs) and repeated univariate analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs). By using a multivariate analysis method, we were able to examine multiple dependent variables simultaneously without increasing the risk of Type I-errors (Sharma, 1996). A short description of the statistical methods is provided in Appendix IV.

In the second stage, we used hierarchical regression analyses to test Hypothesis 3. Using hierarchical regression allowed us to identify the unique explanatory power of the demographic and work-related characteristics of employees. As dependent variables we included the eleven 'motivation gaps'. We entered the demographic characteristics in step 1 and the work-related characteristics in step 2. Specifically, the equations adopted are presented in Table 4.1 and the

dependent and independent variables in Table 4.2. Finally, while conducting these analyses, we assessed the potential influence of multicollinearity. Specifically, we calculated the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and the Tolerance scores. For a description of the multicollinearity issue on regression models refer to Appendix III in Table III.11.

TABLE 4.1 Conceptual Models of Motivation for Total Sample and Female Employees

Total Sample

$$M_i = a + b_1 D_1 + b_2 D_2 + b_3 D_3 + b_4 D_4 + b_5 W_1 + b_6 W_2 + b_7 W_3 + b_8 W_4$$

Female Employees

$$M_i = a + b_2 D_2 + b_3 D_3 + b_4 D_4 + b_5 W_1 + b_6 W_2 + b_7 W_3 + b_8 W_4$$

TABLE 4.2 Dependent and Independent Variables

Dependent Variables

- M_i is the eleven 'motivation gaps', for $i = 1...11$ and
 1. Pay, 2. Job Security, 3. Promotion, 4. Respect of co-workers, 5. Praise from supervisor, 6. Friendliness of co-workers, 7. Feel Good, 8. Skill development, 9. Learn, 10. Accomplishment, 11. Freedom)

Independent Variables

Demographic characteristics

- D_1 is gender
(*GENDER, female = 0, male = 1*),
- D_2 is age
(*AGE, 18-24 = 0, 25 and over = 1*),
- D_3 is level of education
(*EDUC, At most high school diploma = 0, Bachelor's degree or higher = 1*),
- D_4 is care for dependents
(*CARE, No = 0, Yes = 1*).

Work-related Characteristics

- W_1 is experience with unemployment
(*UNEMPLOY, No = 0, Yes = 1*),
 - W_2 is number of jobs held at the time of the survey
(*NJOBS Two or more regular jobs for pay = 0, This is the only regular job = 1*),
 - W_3 is the length of tenure
(*TENURE, Discrete variable measured in months*),
 - W_4 is the number of job changes in the last five years
(*CHJOBS, Discrete variable*).
-

4.4 Research Findings

4.4.1 Exploring Work Motivation of Part-time and Full-time Employees

With the aim of ensuring that any reported differences in motivation across groups are indeed attributed to the work status of employees, it is essential to use covariates. A series of analyses of variance of demographic and work-related characteristics by work status were conducted for the total sample and females separately. Not surprisingly, according to the theoretical background, part-time employees are more likely to be women ($F = 4.68, p \leq .05$), to have experienced unemployment ($F = 55.05, p \leq .001$), to have shorter job tenure ($F = 49.89, p \leq .001$) and to have changed more jobs in the last five years ($F = 106.61, p \leq .001$) (see Appendix III, Table III.5). In addition, female part-time employees, compared to their full-time counterparts, are more likely to care for dependents ($F = 5.72, p \leq .05$) (see Appendix III, Table III.6). As a result, the coded variables of GENDER, UNEMPLOY, TENURE and CHJOBS were retained as control variables for the analyses with regard to the total sample population and the coded variables of CARE, UNEMPLOY, TENURE and CHJOBS were controlled for the analyses with regard to female employees.

Firstly, in order to evaluate the effect of work status (full-time / part-time) on the importance of all of the eleven work motivators, simultaneously (i.e., Hypothesis 1), a multivariate analysis of covariance was conducted. The independent variable was work status and the dependent variables were the reported importance of pay,

promotion, job security, praise from supervisor, friendliness of co-workers, respect of co-workers, self-satisfaction, skill development, learning, accomplishment and freedom. Results indicated a statistically significant effect of work status on the importance of the work motivators for both the total sample ($F = 5.031, p \leq .001$) (see Appendix III, Table III.7) and female employees ($F = 3.788, p \leq .001$) (see Appendix III, Table III.8). In other words, MANCOVA indicated that, even after taking into account key characteristics of employees, there is a relationship between part-time / full-time work status and the motivators that employees find desirable in their workplace.

Furthermore, separate analyses of covariance were conducted with the aim of investigating each dependent variable that was included in the previous multivariate analysis. Again, the independent variable was work status and the dependent variables were the importance scores of the eleven work motivators. The results are presented in Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 for the total sample and female employees, respectively.

It is noteworthy that the relative ranking of work motivators in both analyses (total sample population and female employees) indicates that both part-time and full-time employees believe that the rewards of pay, job security, and friendliness of co-workers are among the most important motivators in the workplace.

In addition, Table 4.3 shows that statistically significant differences between full-time and part-time employees are observed in six of the eleven work motivators. Specifically, part-time employees find selected extrinsic and intrinsic rewards most desirable in the workplace. Specifically, part-timers express a preference for the

extrinsic rewards of job security ($F = 8.35, p \leq .01$), promotion ($F = 8.96, p \leq .01$) and the intrinsic rewards of self-satisfaction ($F = 6.21, p \leq .05$), skill development ($F = 36.04, p \leq .001$), learning ($F = 23.25, p \leq .001$) and sense of accomplishment ($F = 9.92, p \leq .01$). Conversely, Table 4.4 shows that full-time female employees express a preference for the extrinsic rewards of friendliness ($F = 5.75, p \leq .05$) and respect ($F = 6.39, p \leq .05$) of co-workers.

Therefore, the ANCOVAs results indicate that Hypothesis 1 is partially supported. Part-time and full-time employees alike rate pay, job security and friendliness of co-workers as the most important rewards in a workplace. Focusing on female employees, it is found that in more than half of the cases full-time and part-time female employees are similar in the work motivators that they find important in the workplace. However, it is clear that part-time employees express a preference for the intrinsic rewards while full-timers a preference for the extrinsic rewards.

TABLE 4.3 ANCOVAs Tests on the Importance of Motivators for the Effect of Work Status for Total Sample

	Full-time mean (n=275)	Rank	Part-time mean (n=213)	Rank	F statistic
Extrinsic Motivators					
Pay	4.78	1	4.90	1	2.74
Job security	4.71	3	4.78	2	8.35**
Promotion	4.50	8	4.70	7	8.96**
Respect of co-workers	4.69	4	4.67	8	1.13
Praise from supervisor	4.57	6	4.65	9	1.50
Friendliness of co-workers	4.76	2	4.74	5	.35
Intrinsic Motivators					
Self-satisfaction	4.62	5	4.76	3	6.21*
Skill development	4.43	10	4.75	4	36.04***
Learning	4.42	11	4.71	6	23.25***
Accomplishment	4.46	9	4.64	10	9.92**
Freedom	4.53	7	4.63	11	3.43

Note: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

TABLE 4.4 ANCOVAs Tests on the Importance of Motivators for the Effect of Work Status for Female Employees

	Full-time mean (n=186)	Rank	Part-time mean (n=163)	Rank	F statistic
Extrinsic Motivators					
Pay	4.79	2	4.88	1	.23
Job security	4.74	3	4.77	2	2.61
Promotion	4.46	9	4.68	6	2.50
Respect of co-workers	4.73	4	4.66	8	6.39*
Praise from supervisor	4.63	6	4.65	9	.19
Friendliness of co-workers	4.81	1	4.74	3	5.75*
Intrinsic Motivators					
Self-satisfaction	4.66	5	4.72	5	.51
Skill development	4.45	10	4.73	4	15.58***
Learning	4.43	11	4.67	7	5.56*
Accomplishment	4.47	8	4.64	10	5.72*
Freedom	4.59	7	4.63	11	.32

Note: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

Next, in order to explore possible differences of full-time compared to part-time employees with regard their expectations of receiving the desired motivators (Hypothesis 2), we followed a similar methodology.

Initially, multivariate analysis of covariance was completed in testing the effect of work status (full-time / part time) simultaneously, on all of the reported expectations of rewards. Again, we introduced the work status of employees as the independent variable, while the dependent variables included the likelihood of retail employees to receive pay, promotion, job security, praise from supervisor, friendliness of co-workers, respect of co-workers, self-satisfaction, skill development, learning, accomplishment and freedom. The MANCOVA results revealed a statistically significant overall effect of work status on the expectations of employees to receive the specific rewards for both the total sample ($F = 10.604$, $p \leq .001$) (see Appendix III, Table III.9) and female employees ($F = 6.891$, $p \leq .001$) (see Appendix III, Table III.10). Therefore, even after controlling for key characteristics, work status seems to have a considerable impact on work motivation of employees. Specifically, it is found that there is a relationship between part-time / full-time work status of employees and their expectations of receiving the desirable motivators in their workplace.

Furthermore, a second series of eleven univariate ANCOVAs were conducted. Again, the work status of employees was introduced as the independent variable, while the dependent variables included the likelihood of retail employees to receive the eleven extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Table 4.5 and Table 4.6 present

the findings of the univariate ANCOVAs for the total sample and female employees, respectively.

Table 4.5 reports that part-time employees are less optimistic in their expectations of receiving the desired extrinsic rewards. Statistically significant differences in expectations of rewards are observed in three of the eleven total work motivators. Hence Hypothesis 2 is partially confirmed. Part-time retail employees report lower expectations of receiving the rewards of pay ($F = 24.03, p \leq .001$), job security ($F = 5.25, p \leq .05$) and friendliness of co-workers ($F = 12.15, p \leq .01$).

Nevertheless, it is notable how this picture changes when we focus only on female employees. Contrary to Hypothesis 2, Table 4.6 shows that female part-time employees report not lower but higher expectations of receiving rewards. Female part-timers are more optimistic about receiving the rewards of promotion ($F = 3.85, p \leq .05$) and the intrinsic rewards of skill development ($F = 6.51, p \leq .05$), learning ($F = 6.69, p \leq .01$) and the feeling of accomplishment ($F = 12.45, p \leq .001$).

Furthermore, the relative ranking of the likelihood of receiving the desired work motivators is quite diverse. Both full-timers and part-timers indicated that they are likely to experience the feeling of self-satisfaction through their job. Apart from this common point, full-timers reported that they are more likely to receive the extrinsic rewards of friendliness and respect of co-workers. On the other hand, part-timers reported that they are more likely to receive intrinsic rewards and, in particular, the feeling of accomplishment, skill development, and learning.

TABLE 4.5 ANCOVAs Tests on the Likelihood of Receiving Rewards for the Effects of Work Status for Total Sample

	Full-time mean (n=275)	Rank	Part-time Mean (n=213)	Rank	F statistic
<i>Extrinsic Motivators</i>					
Pay	3.27	11	2.64	11	24.03***
Job security	3.54	4	3.34	9	5.25*
Promotion	3.29	9	3.43	7	.03
Respect of co-workers	3.55	3	3.44	6	2.57
Praise from supervisor	3.53	5	3.47	5	1.43
Friendliness of co-workers	3.66	1	3.33	10	12.15**
<i>Intrinsic Motivators</i>					
Self-satisfaction	3.62	2	3.61	1	.27
Skill development	3.29	8	3.58	2	.45
Learning	3.33	6	3.59	3	1.37
Accomplishment	3.30	7	3.56	4	.19
Freedom	3.28	10	3.39	8	.02

Note: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

TABLE 4.6 ANCOVAs Tests on the Likelihood of Receiving Rewards for the Effects of Work Status for Female Employees

	Full-time mean	Rank	Part-time mean	Rank	F statistic
<i>Extrinsic Motivators</i>					
Pay	3.21	11	2.96	11	2.99
Job security	3.51	5	3.58	10	.25
Promotion	3.22	10	3.74	5	3.85*
Respect of co-workers	3.53	3	3.72	7	.74
Praise from supervisor	3.52	4	3.73	6	.23
Friendliness of co-workers	3.62	2	3.65	9	.09
<i>Intrinsic Motivators</i>					
Self-satisfaction	3.68	1	3.84	3	.23
Skill development	3.27	7	3.90	2	6.51*
Learning	3.31	6	3.83	4	6.69**
Accomplishment	3.26	8	3.93	1	12.45***
Freedom	3.23	9	3.66	8	3.80

Note: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

Moreover, it is noteworthy that the combined results of ANCOVA tests indicate that part-time employees especially do not receive the desired rewards in retail firms. Clearly there is a significant discrepancy between what employees desire and what they expect to receive in the workplace. It is notable that while Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 show part-time employees to desire mostly the motivators of pay, job security, and friendliness of co-workers, Table 4.5 and Table 4.6 indicate that, for these three work motivators, employees express the lowest expectations of receiving them in the workplace (11th, 9th and 10th relative rank position, respectively). Similarly, but less remarkable, full-time employees do not receive the desired rewards. While Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 show full-time employees to mostly desire the motivator of pay, Table 4.5 and Table 4.6 indicate that these employees least expect to receive the specific motivator in their workplace (11th relative rank). Consequently, for employees in the retail sector, and especially for part-time employees, despite the quality of their work, there is a considerable gap between what employees perceive as important and what they expect to receive.

4.4.2 Testing the Effects of Demographics and Work-related Characteristics on Work Motivation

In Appendix III, Tables III. 12 and III.13 present the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among the variables for the total sample and for female employees, respectively. These tables show that no high correlations between the independent variables exist; thus multicollinearity does not seem to be a

problem. To assess the relationships between predictors included in the analysis more rigorously, more sophisticated collinearity statistics were estimated. We computed the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and the Tolerance coefficient values. Hair et al. (1998) suggest that a VIF value above 10 and tolerance value below .1 signifies multicollinearity problems. The highest VIF value of the models was 1.78 and the lowest tolerance value was .562, hence the predictors of the study can be included in the regression analyses (see Appendix III, Table III.14 and Table III.15).

With the purpose of identifying how individual characteristics of employees may impact the reported importance of work motivators and the expectations of receiving these rewards (Hypothesis 3), a series of separate hierarchical regression analyses was conducted by work status (full-time / part-time) for the total sample and for female employees, separately. Dependent variables included the eleven 'motivation gaps'. For each analysis, Step 1 is comprised of the demographic variables of gender, (GENDER), age (AGE), education (EDUC), and care for dependents (CARE). Step 2 evaluated the amount of variance explained by work-related characteristics after controlling for demographics. Work-related variables included experience with unemployment (UNEMPLOY), number of jobs held at the time of the survey (NJOBS), length of tenure (TENURE), and number of job changes in the last five years (CHJOBS). The results of these hierarchical regression analyses for full-time employees are summarised in Tables 4.7 and 4.8, for total sample and female employees, respectively, whereas the results with regard to part-time employees are summarised in Tables 4.9 and 4.10, for total sample and female employees, respectively.

Table 4.7 and Table 4.8 show that for full-time employees the initial entry of the demographic variables is significant for all of the reported gaps at the level of $p \leq .001$, apart from the gap regarding pay ($F = 2.764$), $p > .05$) for female employees. Furthermore, demographic characteristics jointly explain 4.4 to 20.6 per cent of the variance of motivation gaps for the total sample and 12.2 to 23.3 per cent of the variance of motivation gaps for female employees. The entry of work-related characteristics (step 2) indicated that for all of the eleven models the variance explained (R^2) is significant at the level of .001. However, the change of R^2 is quite low, ranging from .3 to 2.5 per cent for the total sample and from 1 to 10.8 per cent for female employees. It is worth mentioning that both tables indicate that the development of gaps in motivation is strongly related to the age (negative relationship) and particularly to the educational level of employees (positive relationship). In other words, the greater the age of employees, the smaller the reported gap between expectations of receiving rewards and the importance attached to them; furthermore, the higher the level of education, the greater the gap in motivation.

Accordingly, Table 4.9 and Table 4.10 show that for part-time employees the gap variables in Step 1 are all significant at the level of $p \leq .001$. The variance explained (R^2) for the significant regressions ranged from 24.5 to 45.5 per cent for the total sample and from 15.6 to 30 per cent for female employees. The entry of the work-related characteristics (Step 2) improved the R^2 for all of the motivation gaps. Specifically, the change of R^2 ranged from 5.3 to 10.5 per cent for the total sample and from 1.8 to 20.7 per cent for female employees. Therefore, the results of the

hierarchical regression analyses provide support for Hypothesis 3. For part-time employees, the demographic and work-related characteristics of individuals have a significant impact on the reported importance of work motivators and the expectations of receiving these rewards. Specifically, for part-time female employees it is evident that the development of motivation gaps has a strong and negative relationship with the age of employees. The greater the age of employees, the smaller the gap between the perceptions of an important reward and the expectation of receiving this reward. Furthermore, the findings reveal that part-time female employees report smaller gaps in motivation when they care for dependents, have experienced unemployment, have changed several jobs in the last five years, and currently hold one regular job.

TABLE 4.7 Hierarchical Regression Results for the Full-time Employees of the Total Sample

	Pay	Job Security	Promotion	Respect of co-workers	Praise from supervisor	Friendliness of co-workers	Feel Good	Skill development	Learn	Accomplishment	Freedom
Step 1: Demographic characteristics											
<i>GENDER</i>	-.053	-.047	-.009	-.057	-.070	-.074	.020	-.027	-.017	-.043	-.076
<i>AGE</i>	-.102	-.140*	-.136*	-.162*	-.108	-.153**	-.114*	-.109	-.146*	-.042	-.126*
<i>EDUC</i>	.188**	.401***	.428***	.400***	.294***	.340***	.448***	.299***	.404***	.426***	.345***
<i>CARE</i>	.032	.037	.080	.028	.073	.084	-.010	.084	.082	.108	.125*
R ²	.044	.168	.182	.174	.095	.131	.206	.092	.166	.176	.132
Adjusted R ²	.030	.155	.170	.162	.081	.118	.195	.079	.153	.164	.119
F	3.121*	13.601***	15.001***	14.223***	7.067***	10.179***	17.556***	6.865***	13.390***	14.394***	10.247***
Step 2: Demographic and work-related characteristics											
<i>GENDER</i>	-.063	-.039	-.017	-.055	-.074	-.078	.023	-.027	-.017	-.044	-.083
<i>AGE</i>	-.025	-.125*	-.107	-.134*	-.080	-.119	-.066	-.095	-.134*	-.023	-.102
<i>EDUC</i>	.172**	.397***	.421***	.390***	.289***	.327***	.438***	.296***	.399***	.421***	.335***
<i>CARE</i>	.084	.043	.103	.050	.091	.115	.017	.089	.092	.119*	.143*
<i>UNEMPLOY</i>	.021	.010	-.001	.018	.004	-.010	.022	-.078	-.018	-.046	-.125
<i>NJOBS</i>	.005	.086	-.019	.068	.004	.051	.076	.053	.035	.039	.056
<i>TENURE</i>	-.234**	-.037	-.083	-.043	-.088	-.076	-.143*	-.108	-.030	-.092	-.137
<i>CHJOBS</i>	.017	.008	.026	.066	.001	.085	-.001	-.027	.035	-.001	.035
R ²	.098	.176	.190	.186	.102	.146	.232	.104	.168	.183	.152
Adjusted R ²	.071	.152	.166	.162	.075	.121	.208	.077	.143	.158	.126
ΔR ²	.054	.009	.008	.012	.007	.015	.025	.011	.003	.007	.020
F change	3.949**	.698	.696	.978	.514	1.197	2.173	.851	.211	.559	1.553
F	3.603**	7.119***	7.815***	7.598***	3.765***	5.703***	10.017***	3.851***	6.722***	7.429***	5.942***

Note: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

TABLE 4.8 Hierarchical Regression Results for Full-time Female Employees

	Pay	Job Security	Promotion	Respect of co-workers	Praise from supervisor	Friendliness of co-workers	Feel Good	Skill development	Learn	Accomplishment	Freedom
Step 1: Demographic characteristics											
<i>AGE</i>	-.090	-.147*	-.163*	-.164*	-.181*	-.157*	-.134*	-.129	-.194**	-.101	-.201**
<i>EDUC</i>	.197**	.435***	.439***	.436***	.326***	.329***	.469***	.352***	.466***	.472***	.443***
<i>CARE</i>	.069	.060	.098	.039	-.036	.045	.054	.097	.110	.124	.134*
R ²	.044	.195	.202	.202	.122	.160	.223	.130	.233	.218	.217
Adjusted R ²	.028	.182	.188	.189	.107	.142	.210	.115	.221	.205	.204
F	2.764	14.717***	15.312***	15.396***	8.423***	8.641***	17.394***	9.042***	18.448***	13.323***	16.842***
Step 2: Demographic and work-related characteristics											
<i>AGE</i>	.027	-.120	-.128	-.126	-.146	-.122	-.084	-.106	-.164*	-.060	-.176*
<i>EDUC</i>	.179*	.431***	.428***	.429***	.319***	.324***	.464***	.353***	.459***	.463***	.434***
<i>CARE</i>	.140	.074	.130	.066	-.021	.067	.079	.098	.131	.151*	.158*
<i>UNEMPLOY</i>	.056	.003	-.012	.054	.039	.031	.074	.001	-.019	-.010	-.053
<i>NJOBS</i>	.063	.141*	.008	.078	.016	.022	.130	.125	.101	.113	.095
<i>TENURE</i>	-.296***	-.051	-.088	-.037	-.072	-.074	-.072	-.075	-.070	-.094	-.076
<i>CHJOBS</i>	.057	.089	.075	.115	.043	.029	.090	-.005	.091	.100	.105
R ²	.152	.223	.215	.230	.132	.209	.266	.149	.253	.247	.237
Adjusted R ²	.119	.192	.185	.200	.098	.173	.237	.116	.224	.218	.207
ΔR ²	.108	.028	.013	.028	.010	.048	.043	.019	.020	.029	.020
F change	5.689***	1.569	.791	1.615	.536	2.701*	2.590*	1.027	1.188	1.713	.331
F	4.557***	7.283***	6.984***	7.610***	3.879***	5.834***	9.195***	4.464***	8.618***	8.335***	7.904***

Note: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

TABLE 4.9 Hierarchical Regression Results for the Part-time Employees of the Total Sample

	Pay	Job Security	Promotion	Respect of co-workers	Praise from supervisor	Friendliness of co-workers	Feel Good	Skill development	Learn	Accomplishment	Freedom
Step 1: Demographic characteristics											
<i>GENDER</i>	.265***	.155*	.257***	.295***	.147*	.335***	.174**	.280***	.297***	.322***	.267***
<i>AGE</i>	-.171**	-.046	-.065	-.217**	-.188**	-.083	-.084	-.199**	-.062	-.185**	-.072
<i>EDUC</i>	.081	.222***	.120*	.087	.013	.047	.182**	.035	.141*	.120*	.212***
<i>CARE</i>	-.336***	-.382***	-.363***	-.183**	-.312***	-.346***	-.364***	-.278***	-.259***	-.332***	-.268***
R ²	.374	.330	.347	.298	.245	.389	.321	.336	.290	.455	.314
Adjusted R ²	.362	.317	.335	.285	.230	.377	.308	.323	.277	.444	.301
F	31.083***	25.564***	27.664***	22.093***	16.851***	33.116***	24.559***	26.293***	21.287***	43.403***	23.775***
Step 2: Demographic and work-related characteristics											
<i>GENDER</i>	.182**	.080	.173**	.283***	.058	.301***	.119	.205**	.252***	.261***	.265***
<i>AGE</i>	-.156**	-.054	-.079	-.229***	-.188**	-.118*	-.099	-.202**	-.090	-.194***	-.096
<i>EDUC</i>	.054	.148*	.068	.009	-.041	-.036	.112	-.039	.051	.040	.126*
<i>CARE</i>	-.248**	-.275***	-.229**	-.112	-.150	-.254***	-.250**	-.164*	-.138	-.218**	-.187**
<i>UNEMPLOY</i>	-.006	-.046	.016	-.163*	-.061	-.044	-.067	-.073	-.088	-.098	-.157*
<i>NJOBS</i>	.055	-.034	-.151**	-.101	-.174**	-.181**	-.140*	-.040	-.203***	-.090	-.185**
<i>TENURE</i>	.009	.149*	-.010	.147*	-.091	.158*	.073	.121	.122	.120*	.142*
<i>CHJOBS</i>	-.282***	-.391***	-.315***	-.131	-.223**	-.284***	-.257**	-.353***	-.272***	-.301***	-.114
R ²	.429	.434	.434	.351	.328	.479	.389	.428	.390	.537	.384
Adjusted R ²	.407	.412	.411	.326	.302	.459	.366	.405	.366	.518	.359
ΔR ²	.055	.105	.086	.053	.083	.090	.069	.092	.099	.082	.070
F change	4.907**	9.437***	7.780***	4.165**	6.306***	8.842***	5.737***	8.196***	8.308***	8.988***	5.779***
F	19.162***	19.575***	19.525***	13.801***	12.439***	23.476***	16.267***	19.064***	16.293***	29.529***	15.869***

Notes: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

TABLE 4.10 Hierarchical Regression Results for Part-time Female Employees

	Pay	Job Security	Promotion	Respect of co-workers	Praise from supervisor	Friendliness of co-workers	Feel Good	Skill development	Learn	Accomplishment	Freedom
Step 1: Demographic characteristics											
<i>AGE</i>	-1.401	-.093	-.094	-.219**	-.174*	-.108	-.111	-.153*	-.034	-.197**	-.075
<i>EDUC</i>	1.678	.260***	.130	.124	.064	.069	.223**	.118	.197**	.190**	.214**
<i>CARE</i>	-5.690***	-.372***	-.434***	-.220**	-.354***	-.424***	-.378***	-.347***	-.334***	-.380***	-.310***
R ²	.239	.283	.262	.156	.201	.232	.272	.206	.189	.300	.194
Adjusted R ²	.224	.269	.268	.141	.186	.217	.258	.191	.174	.287	.179
F	16.605***	20.992***	18.785***	9.833***	13.346***	15.994***	19.756***	13.776***	12.360***	22.704***	12.796***
Step 2: Demographic and work-related characteristics											
<i>AGE</i>	-.104	-.129*	-.108	-.242***	-.176*	-.146*	-.124	-.174*	-.066	-.224***	-.103
<i>EDUC</i>	.100	.178**	.088	.055	.022	-.023	.159*	.025	.119	.103	.147*
<i>CARE</i>	-.332***	-.208**	-.297***	-.129	-.156	-.272***	-.219**	-.180*	-.217*	-.213**	-.247**
<i>UNEMPLOY</i>	-.036	-.087	-.054	-.197*	-.116	-.171*	-.193*	-.288***	-.161	-.211**	-.170*
<i>NJOBS</i>	.005	-.097	-.147*	-.145*	-.165*	-.241***	-.171*	-.050	-.238***	-.142*	-.184*
<i>TENURE</i>	-.025	.108	-.020	.124	-.118	.142	.010	.106	.134	.094	.162*
<i>CHJOBS</i>	-.127	-.344***	-.172*	-.057	-.159	-.191*	-.103	-.174*	-.115	-.193*	-.031
R ²	.256	.406	.318	.225	.292	.368	.350	.325	.396	.408	.271
Adjusted R ²	.223	.379	.288	.19	.260	.339	.321	.294	.264	.381	.238
ΔR ²	.018	.123	.056	.069	.091	.136	.078	.119	.207	.108	.077
F change	.446	8.046***	3.218*	3.413*	4.943***	8.341***	4.678**	6.792***	5.856***	7.092***	4.087**
F	7.638***	15.154***	10.339***	6.420***	9.112***	12.887***	11.923***	10.646***	9.291***	15.274***	8.246***

Notes: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

4.5 Summary

The aim of this chapter was to explore the motivation of part-time compared to full-time employees in the Greek retail sector with special focus on women employees. Initially, we examined which work motivators part-time and full-time employees find important. We sought to answer the question of whether these groups of employees value things differently in their work environment.

Findings revealed that both part-timers and full-timers feel that the rewards of pay, friendliness of co-workers, and job security are among the most valuable motivators. These results are in accordance with the previous findings of Huddleston and Good (1999) and Linz (2004). In particular, these studies showed that both Russian and Polish employees report these motivators to be the most valuable ones. Further, we found that women full-time employees are more responsive to extrinsic rewards, while women part-timers expressed a preference for intrinsic rewards. Specifically, full-timers compared to part-timers valued the motivators of respect and friendliness of co-workers highest. On the other hand, part-time female employees expressed a preference for opportunities to learn new things, develop skills, and feel a sense of accomplishment.

Furthermore, for both part-time and full-time employees we investigated their expectations of receiving the rewards that they find important in the workplace, asking whether there are any differences in their expectations of rewards even when they perform their jobs extremely well. In line with these past findings regarding different countries, we found that for both full-time and part-time Greek employees

there is significant discrepancy between what employees desire and what they actually expect to receive in the workplace. Not surprisingly, part-time employees express lower expectations of receiving the rewards of pay, job security and friendliness of co-workers.

Nevertheless, contrary to our hypothesis, results indicated that women part-timers are more optimistic about receiving intrinsic rewards. Part-timers indicated that they are more likely to receive promotions, develop skills, learn new things, and feel a sense of accomplishment in the workplace

Furthermore, we investigated how individual characteristics of employees may impact the reported importance of work motivators and the expectations of receiving these rewards. In other words, we have identified subjective factors that influence whether working people perceive that they receive what is desired and ranked important in the workplace.

Results indicated that for full-time employees unmet expectations with regard to rewards are more likely to develop when employees are young and have high educational qualifications. On the other hand, for part-time workers, the reported gaps in motivation decrease when employees experience personal and occupational hardships. In particular, for female part-timers it is evident that they express limited unmet expectations with regard to rewards when they are older, have the burden of care for dependents, and have faced an unstable employment status characterised by periods of unemployment and frequent jobs changes. The main findings of this chapter are summarised in Table 4.11.

TABLE 4.11 Full-time and Part-time Subgroup Differences in Work Motivation

Hypothesised relationship	Findings
Importance of work motivators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Both full-time and part-time retail employees believe that the rewards of pay, job security and friendliness of co-worker are among the most valuable motivators. <li>▪ Part-time compared to full-time employees express a preference for job security, promotion opportunities, skill development, learning opportunities, feeling of self-satisfaction and the sense of accomplishing a worthwhile task. <li>▪ Part-time female employees express a preference for the intrinsic rewards of skill development, learning opportunities and sense of accomplishing a worthwhile task. <li>▪ Full-time female employees express a preference for the extrinsic rewards of respect and friendliness of co-workers.
Likelihood of receiving rewards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ For full-time and part-time employees there is a significant discrepancy between what employees desire and what they actually expect to receive in their workplace. <li>▪ Part-time employees express lower expectations of receiving the valuable rewards of pay, job

security and friendliness of co-workers.

- Part-time female compared to full-time female employees indicated that they are more likely to receive promotion, as well as the intrinsic rewards of skills development, learning new things and feeling a sense of accomplishment.
- For full-time employees unmet expectations with regard to rewards are more likely to develop when they are young with high educational qualifications.
- For part-time employees unmet expectations with regard to rewards are less likely to develop when employees experience personal and occupational hardships (older age, care for dependents, faced high periods of unemployment and frequent job changes). These effects are particularly strong for female employees.

The effect of demographics and work-related characteristics on work motivation

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5. Job Attitudes of Part-time and Full-time Employees

5.1 Introduction

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment have attracted considerable research attention due to their impact on both work and life behaviour of employees. Specifically, previous studies have documented that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are positively related to job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour, performance (Iaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985; Ostroff, 1992; Petty et al., 1984), while they are negatively related to turnover and absenteeism rates as well as to stress and work-family conflict (Mowday, 1979; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Tett and Meyer, 1993; Meyer et al., 2002; Levy, 2003; Jaramillo et al., 2005).

A sizeable body of research has focused on the comparison between the job attitudes of full-time and part-time employees. Nevertheless, the literature review reveals that the findings regarding the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of full-time compared to part-time employees have been inconsistent, contradictory and paradoxical (Lee and Johnson, 1991; Sinclair et al., 1999; Conway and Briner 2002; Rosendaal, 2003; Thorsteinson, 2003; Clinebell and Clinebell, 2007). Some studies report that part-timers exhibit greater job satisfaction and greater commitment to their company, some report that part-timers are less satisfied

and less committed, and some recent studies report no significant difference on job satisfaction and organisational commitment between part-time and full-time employees (see Appendix IV, Table IV.1 and Table IV.2).

With regard to past research, however, we should notice the following two points. Firstly, research on job attitudes of full-time and part-time employees has been criticised as being atheoretical in design and having sought to document simple empirical differences between these two groups (Lee and Johnson, 1991; Barling and Gallagher, 1996; Conway and Briner, 2002). Secondly, previous research examined a diversity of part-time job positions, for example, call-centre employees, nurses, teachers, salespeople, bank and insurance employees among others. Consequently, it is clear that it is over-simplistic to compare and generalise past cross-sectional findings. Different groups of part-timers may develop different job attitudes. For instance, one would expect that a part-time sales worker may differ on attitudes compared to a part-time white-collar professional employee.

Taking into consideration that previous research has been criticised as being atheoretical in design and has tried to compare a diversity of part-time jobs, the current study attempts to shed light on the debate over the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of full-time versus part-time employees. To contribute to this debate and to the existing job attitudes literature we focus on low-level jobs of the secondary labour market and, in particular, we focus on employees in the retail sector. Second, we use the psychological contract theory as a framework for evaluating the level of not only general job satisfaction (Conway and Briner, 2002), but also facets of job satisfaction, as well as the organisational commitment of

part-time and full-time employees. Third, apart from just identifying the level of job attitudes, this thesis enhances researchers' understanding of why full-time and part-time retail employees might differ on attitudes, by examining the different predictors of job satisfaction and organisational commitment for both groups of employees. In particular, we develop three conceptual models with the aim of exploring whether work status congruence, facets of job satisfaction and the perceptions of actual rewards received provide significant evidence regarding the variation in job attitudes of part-time and full-time employees. Furthermore, there is a dearth of empirical studies that examine employees' attitudes for the Greek case. In particular, there are no updated studies that examine the job attitudes of full-time compared to part-time Greek employees.

This chapter is organised in five parts. Following the first, which serves as an introduction, the second presents the theoretical framework of the study and stipulates the research hypotheses. The third discusses the methodology of the survey and presents a description of the participants. The fourth outlines the main findings of the empirical investigation. Finally, in the last part of this chapter, the most important conclusions are summarised.

5.2 Research Hypotheses

5.2.1 Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment for Part-time and Full-time Employees

5.2.1.1 Job Satisfaction and the Psychological Contract

The literature is filled with empirical studies presenting contradictory findings with regard to the level of job satisfaction of full-time versus part-time employees. A number of studies report that part-time workers are more satisfied than their full-time counterparts (Jackofsky and Peters, 1987; Wortuba, 1990; Barker, 1993; Fenton O’Creevy, 1993; Sinclair et al., 1999; Martin and Sinclair 2007), other studies report that part-time workers are less satisfied (Hall and Gordon, 1972; Shockey and Mueller, 1994), and some studies report no significant difference on job satisfaction between part-time and full-time employees (Logan and Roberts, 1973; Steffy and Jones, 1990; Morrow et al., 1994; Kalleberg, 1995; Krausz et al., 2000; Thorsteinson, 2003; Rosendaal, 2003; Maynard et al., 2006a). In order to clarify these contradictory findings in this chapter we will examine the dimensions of job satisfaction separately using the psychological contract theory as the theoretical framework.

According to Rousseau (1990) psychological contracts are an individual’s beliefs regarding reciprocal obligations and refer to written or unwritten expectations that operate between employees and employers. For instance, the employee has

expectations in the areas of pay, promotion, job security, recognition in return for hard work, commitment and loyalty. Psychological contract fulfilment has been associated with increased job satisfaction and organisational commitment, while psychological contract violation has been associated with lower organisational citizenship, reduced commitment, reduced satisfaction, increased absenteeism and turnover (Robinson and Rousseau, 1994; Robinson and Morrison, 1995; Griffet et al., 2000; Turnley and Feldman, 2000).

Conway and Briner (2002, pg. 282), suggested that full-time and part-time employees may differ to the extent to which psychological contracts are fulfilled. Possible reasons for these differences were organised under four groups: reasons at the organisational level (differential treatment by the organisation), at the individual level (different career orientations), reasons at the interpersonal level (differential treatment by supervisors and co-workers), and reasons connected with the reduced time spent in the workplace.

Based on this reasoning and because part-time work is associated with low quality jobs, we argue that psychological contract violations are more frequent and more intense for part-time retail employees. Hence, we expect part-time employees to report not only lower general job satisfaction but also lower facet satisfaction, than their full-time counterparts.

In particular, a sizeable body of studies has highlighted the disadvantageous wage conditions of part-time work generally (Connolly and Gregory, 2002; Preston, 2003; Green and Ferber, 2005; Hirsch, 2005), and, in particular, within the retail sector (Tilly, 1992; Burgess, 1997; Broadbent, 2002; Corral and Isusi, 2002; Jenkins,

2004; Zeytinoglu et al., 2004). If part-time employees perceive themselves to be treated differently than full-time employees in terms of pay, then it is likely to affect how they perceive their psychological contract (Conway and Briner, 2002).

Additionally, the literature review indicates that part-time employees are more likely to work under temporary employment contracts, and, therefore, they tend to have shorter job tenures and to feel more insecure compared to full-timers (Pupo and Duffy, 2000; Corral and Isusi, 2002). Not surprisingly, studies focusing on the retail sector replicated these findings and reported six-month employment contracts (Broadbent, 2002), high turnover (Wortuba, 1990; Tilly, 1992; Sinclair et al., 1999; Jenkins, 2004) and job insecurity among part-timers (Zeytinoglu et al., 2004). Therefore, the following hypotheses will be tested:

Hypothesis 1. Part-time retail employees report lower satisfaction with pay than full-time employees.

Hypothesis 2. Part-time retail employees report lower satisfaction with job security than full-time employees.

In order to paint a clear picture of the satisfaction with the interpersonal work relationships and promotion opportunities between full-time and part-time employees, we should examine the quality of part-time work in more detail. Several researchers provide support to the argument that part-time work in many instances is synonymous with poor working conditions. For instance, Warren and Walters

(1998) noted that the part-time / full-time dichotomy revealed part-time workers to be more disadvantaged in structurally inferior positions in the labour market compared to full-time workers. Past research suggests that part-time employees are not satisfied with the variety of tasks or opportunities for occupational mobility (Tomlinson, 2007b), enjoy less job autonomy (Harley and Whitehouse, 2001) and less access to participative workplace practices (Markey et al., 2002; Markey et al., 2003). In another study, Corral and Isusi, (2002) indicated that part-time workers, apart from experiencing poorer job content, face lower promotion opportunities and reduced access to training possibilities. In addition, Stamper and Masterson (2002) suggested that employees who spend less time at work (e.g., part-timers) could be stigmatised as ‘outsiders’ with profound consequences for their status and involvement in organisations. Indeed, evidence provides support for the contention that part-time employees are treated as ‘peripheral’ (Broadbent, 2002), as inferior and ‘second class’ (Walsh, 2007).

With regard to the retail sector, it is suggested that part-time workers are actually less involved in organisational functioning, as they have lower tenure and spend fewer hours in the workplace (Wortuba, 1990; Sinclair et al., 1999; Jenkins, 2004). Furthermore, it is argued that retail part-time workers have jobs involving fewer skills and responsibilities, at irregular work hours and schedules and with limited training and promotion opportunities (Tilly, 1992; Zeytinoglu et al., 2004). More specifically, Jenkins (2004) argued that part-time workers in the retail sector (i.e., supermarkets) are either ‘peak’ or ‘ancillary’. ‘Peak’ part-timers are employed to cover surges in demand across the working day and week and undertake a wide

diversity of tasks, while ‘ancillary’ part-timers are the most marginalised employees, characterised by the routinised content of work (e.g., stock replenishing), which they undertake outside of the normal working hours.

Therefore, we argue that the adverse working conditions and the marginalisation of part-time employees negatively affect their interpersonal work relationships as well as their career prospects and promotion opportunities.

Hypothesis 3. Part-time retail employees report lower satisfaction with supervisors than full-time employees.

Hypothesis 4. Part-time retail employees report lower satisfaction with co-workers than full-time employees.

Hypothesis 5. Part-time retail employees report lower satisfaction with promotion opportunities than full-time employees.

5.2.1.2 Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment is an attitude that reflects the nature of the relationship between an employee and an employer (Mowday et al., 1979; Meyer and Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed that commitment is multidimensional and that a distinction should be made between the three components of commitment: affective, continuance and normative. Affective commitment is defined as ‘the relative strength of an individual’s identification with,

and involvement in, a particular organisation' (Porter et al., 1974, pg. 604) and can be characterised by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in, and acceptance of, the organisation's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. Employees with strong affective commitment remain in the organisation because they *want to*. Continuance commitment refers to the perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation. Employees with strong continuance commitment remain because they *need to*. Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with strong normative commitment remain in the organisation because they feel they *ought to* do so (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

5.2.1.2.1 Affective Commitment and the Psychological Contract

Organisational commitment researchers have shown that structural and job-related characteristics are among the most important antecedents of affective commitment (Mowday et al., 1982; Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Eby et al., 1999).

Based on both structural and job-related characteristics, Jacobsen (2000, pg.189) proposed that part-time employees who are assigned to less enriched jobs and who do not participate in internal organisational decision processes are less affectively committed to the employer.

In the previous section, with regard to job satisfaction and the quality of part-time work, it was highlighted that part-timers compared to full-time employees

appear more disadvantaged in terms of the content and the quality of work as well as their involvement in organisations.

In particular, past research revealed that part-timers in the retail sector are not satisfied with compensation and with the variety of tasks or opportunities for occupational mobility, are less involved in organisational functioning, are allocated to unfavourable tasks, are treated as inferior and 'second class, enjoy less job autonomy and tend to have shorter job tenure. Consequently, if part-time employees perceive themselves to be treated differently from full-time employees in terms of structural characteristics, then it is likely to affect how they perceive their psychological contract. One could propose that psychological contract violations are more frequent and more intense for part-time retail employees and therefore, part-timers compared to full-timers are more likely to report that they do not *want* to remain in the organisation.

Hypothesis 6. Part-time employees, compared to full-timers, are less affectively committed to the organisation.

5.2.1.2.2 Continuance Commitment. The Moderating Effect of Employment Status and Gender

With regard to continuance commitment, past studies revealed that antecedents include (a) the costs associated with leaving the organisation (side-bet theory) and (b) the lack of alternatives.

Side bets can be highly idiosyncratic and can be work or non-work related (Powell and Meyer, 2004, pg. 160). Some examples are the threat of wasting the time and effort spent acquiring non-transferable skills, giving up seniority-based benefits, having to up-root family, the loss of friendship-ties with co-workers and social networks, among others (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991). On the one side, it may be proposed that part-timers make fewer side bets than full-timers, because they receive less training, they spend fewer hours in the organisation and they do not become attached to co-workers, clients etc (Jacobsen, 2000, pg. 189). However, on the other side, we argue that a part-timer who leaves an organisation makes more side-bets because she / he loses priority for that firm's full-time vacancies. Indeed, Greek Law 2639/1998 established that part-time employees who wish to work on a full-time basis have priority in filling openings that occur in their occupational category (Article 10), while the employer is obligated to inform employee representatives about such openings (Article 12). In view of the high unemployment rate in Greece - around 9.4 per cent in January 2009 - (General Secretariat of National Statistical Service of Greece 2009), and based on the argument of losing priority for the organisations full-time vacancies, we expect part-timers to make more side-bets than full-timers.

Hypothesis 7. Part-time employees, compared to full-timers, develop higher continuance commitment to the organisation.

In addition, as noted above, continuance commitment depends also on the availability of alternatives. Increasingly popular in studies of part-time employment is the idea of voluntary and involuntary part-time employment status (Feldman, 1990; Fagan and Rubery, 1996; Sinclair et al., 1999; Maynard et al., 2006a; Maynard et al., 2006b). Voluntary part-time employees are those employees that desire to work on a part-time basis, while involuntary are those that desire to work on a full-time basis but are unable to do so, due to the unavailability of full-time jobs. Hence, it is proposed that:

Hypothesis 8. Involuntary part-time employees, compared to voluntary part-time employees, develop higher continuance commitment to the organisation.

A main characteristic of part-time employment is that it affects women especially. The part-time workforce at the end of 2008 accounted for 30.5 per cent of women, but only 7.7 per cent of men (Eurostat, 2009). Moreover, women's overrepresentation in part-time employment is more evident in the retail sector. According to the Labour Force Survey, 75 per cent of the part-timers in retail trade across the EU in 2005 were women (Urbanski, 2007). In consideration of the high and persistent total unemployment rate in Greece, and in particular the high unemployment rate of females compared to males, 13.3 per cent and 6.7 per cent, respectively during 2009 – January (Eurostat, 2009), it is anticipated for women part-timers in the 'secondary labour market' to feel more threatened by these ongoing

adverse employment conditions. Women are twice as likely to be unemployed as men. Hence, because of the lack of alternatives, women part-timers are expected to report a greater *need* to remain in their current employer. On the basis of the above facts the following hypothesis is examined:

Hypothesis 9. Part-time female, compared to part-time male employees, develop higher continuance commitment to retail organisations.

5.2.1.2.3 Normative Commitment. The Moderating Effect of Employment Status and Care responsibilities

The least studied component of organisational commitment is normative commitment. Originally, antecedents of normative commitment were based on Weiner's (1982) study on socialisation experiences. According to Weiner, socialisation experiences create within the employee a sense of *obligation* to remain in the organisation (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Bergman, 2006). These socialisation experiences may be both prior to (familial / cultural socialisation) and following (organisational socialisation) the entry into the organisation (Weiner, 1982; Allen and Meyer, 1990).

However, recently, the revised measures of normative commitment allow the possibility that the receipt of benefits (e.g., paying college tuition) can create a feeling of *obligation* to reciprocate (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 2002). When an employee is experiencing a positive situation she / he feels that she / he

ought to give something in return, i.e., to remain a valuable employee in the organisation.

In the literature, it is evident that many employees voluntarily choose to work part-time because of personal preferences for flexibility (e.g., more leisure time) (Wetzel et al., 1990; Warren, 2004; Shittu and Omar, 2006), family obligations (childcare, eldercare) (Legault and Chasserio, 2003; Thornley, 2007) or health reasons (Wetzel et al., 1990). Based on the rationale of obligation to reciprocate, it is argued that workers who desire and who are given the option to work on flexible arrangements may view flexibility as an additional benefit (Scandura and Lankau, 1997; Jacobsen, 2000). For example, employees with the need for work-life balance (e.g., because of childcare, eldercare or social and recreational activities – hobbies – etc.) may feel that the offer of a part-time arrangement is an indication that the organisation is concerned for the work and family balance of employees.

In another study, Maynard et al., (2006a) identified four groups of part-timers: voluntary, involuntary, students and caretakers. The empirical results of this study clearly revealed that part-timers with strong preference for flexibility (i.e., caretakers and voluntary) exhibit a higher level of normative commitment compared to part-timers who have a weak or no desire for flexibility (i.e., students and involuntary), as well as compared to full-time employees. Hence, it is proposed that:

Hypothesis 10. Voluntary part-time employees develop higher normative commitment to the organisation, compared to both (i) involuntary part-time and (ii) full-time employees.

Hypothesis 11. Part-time employees with care responsibilities develop higher normative commitment to the organisation, compared to both (i) part-timers without care responsibilities and (ii) full-time employees.

5.2.2 Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment for Part-time and Full-time Employees

Mowday et al. (1979) remarked that as an attitude, commitment differs from the concept of job satisfaction in several ways. Firstly, commitment as a construct is more global, reflecting a general affective response to the organisation as a whole. Job satisfaction, on the other hand, reflects one's response either to one's job or to certain aspects of one's job. Hence, commitment emphasises attachment to the employing organisation, including its goals and values, while satisfaction emphasises the specific task environment where an employee performs his or her duties. Secondly, organisational commitment should be somewhat more stable over time than job satisfaction. Although day-to-day events in the workplace may affect an employee's level of job satisfaction, such transitory events should not cause an employee to seriously re-evaluate his or her attachment to the overall organisation (Porter et al., 1974). Commitment attitudes appear to develop slowly but consistently over time as individuals think about the relationship between themselves and their

employer. Satisfaction, on the other hand, has been found to be a less stable measure over time, reflecting more immediate reactions to specific and tangible aspects of the work environment.

In a similar vein, a number of studies conducted by Allen and Meyer (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Allen and Meyer, 1996; Meyer et al., 1998), indicate that, although there is a strong positive correlation between commitment and job satisfaction, these two attitudes are distinguishable from each other. As there are many reasons one could have similar feelings toward the organisation and other 'units' within it, this is not at all unexpected. It is fair to conclude, therefore, that job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment should both be considered in efforts to understand employee behaviour (Tett and Meyer, 1993) and that findings obtained in the prediction of job satisfaction have implications for the prediction of commitment and vice versa (Meyer et al., 1998).

5.2.2.1 Voluntary and Involuntary Employment Status

Central in studies of part-time labour is the distinction between voluntary and involuntary part-time workers (Barker, 1993; Sinclair et al., 1999; Thorsteinson, 2003; Maynard et al., 2006a). Voluntary part-time employees are those employees that choose to work part-time, while involuntary are those that desire to work on a full-time basis but are unable to find an available post (due to lack of availability of jobs, reduction of hours at work, etc.).

It is noteworthy that a large number of part-time workers can be classified as involuntary. Specifically, Eurostat (2008) reports that the rate of involuntary part-time employment in 2007 reached 21.60 per cent of the total part-time work in the EU27. Accordingly, the General Secretariat of National Statistical Service of Greece (2008) reports that the rate of Greek part-time workers who could not find a full-time post reached 41.5 per cent in the third trimester of 2008.

Nevertheless, despite the great numbers of involuntary part-time workers, relatively few empirical attitudinal studies have distinguished between these two groups of part-time employees. The importance of understanding the volitional nature of an individual's work arrangement in general, and part-time employment in particular, has been noted by several authors and recently has begun to receive empirical support (Maynard, 2006a).

Feldman (1990) argued that differences in job attitudes and job behaviours among voluntary and involuntary part-time workers should exist. Feldman also suggested that people gravitate toward different types of work arrangements and, consequently, these groups of part-time employees have different perceptual maps and frames of reference for attitudinal variables, such as commitment and job satisfaction.

Van Emmerik and Sanders (2005, pg. 715) made the assumption that when employers consider the preferences of employees concerning the number of working hours, employees will consider the psychological contract fulfilled and will be more satisfied with their work. Indeed, the results of this study showed that the association of a mismatch because of wanting to work more hours with affective commitment is

most strongly positively associated for part-time employees. In other words, involuntary part-time employees perceive a breach and violation of their psychological contract, as they do not make the contract choice by themselves, but rather their employers do not accommodate their preferences for longer working hours. As voluntary part-time employment reflects one's choice in accepting to work in paid part-time work, we expect the employment status (voluntary / involuntary) to moderate both job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Hypothesis 12. There is a significant impact of employment status (voluntary / involuntary) over the level of job satisfaction of part-time employees.

Hypothesis 13. There is a significant impact of employment status (voluntary / involuntary) over the level of affective commitment of part-time employees.

5.2.2.2 Facets of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction theory suggests that the extent to which an individual is satisfied with different aspects or facets of the job determines the overall degree of job satisfaction (Nerkar et al., 1996, pg. 169). Measures of specific facet satisfactions can be combined algebraically to form a composite index of global satisfaction. Forming a composite by combining responses to individual facet satisfactions,

however, is not equivalent to assessing global job satisfaction directly. More specifically, Ferratt (1981) found that general job satisfaction is a linear function of satisfaction with various job facets. In particular, satisfaction with job facets explains 50 per cent to 60 per cent of general job satisfaction based on a linear combination of facet satisfactions.

Hence, based on the argument of the poor quality of part-time jobs in the retail sector, and consistent with the previous hypotheses with regard to the different facets of satisfaction, that is, pay (Hypothesis 1), job security (Hypothesis 2), supervisors (Hypothesis 3), co-workers (Hypothesis 4) and promotion opportunities (Hypothesis 5), we expect part-time retail workers to exhibit lower general job satisfaction compared to their full-time counterparts.

Hypothesis 14. For both part-time and full-time employees, facets of job satisfaction contribute to the prediction of general job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 15. Part-time employees will report lower general satisfaction, than full-time employees.

Numerous studies have documented that job satisfaction is a significant determinant of organisational commitment. (Porter et al., 1974; Brown and Peterson, 1993; Knoop, 1995; Young et al. 1998; Testa, 2001). According to Stevens et al. (1978) one of the primary mechanisms that influence organisational commitment is the exchange process. Organisational commitment results from ones evaluation of

whether individual needs and desires are satisfied. Based on this rationale, Boles et al. (2007) proposed that various facets of a job may have different exchange processes or evaluations. This argument indicates a need to look at the job satisfaction / organisational commitment relationship from a more detailed perspective of job satisfaction facets rather than global or overall job satisfaction.

Indeed, empirical findings provide support for the argument that facets of job satisfaction are of vital importance for affective commitment. In addition, different facets have different effect on commitment. In particular, Yew (2007) found that only satisfaction with pay has a significant relationship with affective commitment. Similarly, Boles et al. (2007) indicated that satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with company policy, and satisfaction with work content are related to affective organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 16. For both part-time and full-time employees, facets of job satisfaction contribute to the prediction of affective commitment.

5.2.2.3 Expectations of Desired Rewards and Perceptions of Actual Rewards

Lawler (1973) suggested that job satisfaction results from the comparison between the expectations of rewards that should be received and perceptions of actual rewards received. In other words, the greater the gap between the two the greater the level of job dissatisfaction. Accordingly, Locke (1976) defined job

satisfaction as a positive state that depends not only on the quality of the employment but also on the work experience and on the perception that the job is fulfilling.

Similarly, work experiences have been identified as one of the main predictors of affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) reported that employees whose work experiences (i.e., personal comfort and perceived competence) within the organisation are consistent with their expectations tend to develop a stronger affective attachment to the organisation. On the contrary, employees whose experiences are less satisfying than expected to be tend to develop weaker affective commitment.

Kalleberg (1995) constructed indicators of 'fit' between various work values and job rewards by subtracting the actual reward level from the importance placed on it. A positive score of the 'fit' variables indicates that work experiences are less satisfying than they were expected to be, and employees do not receive what they want. Results indicated that full-time employees, compared to part-time employees, expressed greater gaps with regard to having a job that provides flexible working hours. Additionally, full-time men, compared to part-time men expressed greater gaps with regard to job security, while full-time women reported poorer fit with regard to having a job that leaves a lot of leisure time.

Likewise, Linz (2003) identified the gap between the importance and likelihood values for receiving extrinsic and intrinsic rewards in the workplace and evaluated the extent to which the reported gap affects the level of job satisfaction of employees. The findings of this study indicated that the level of job satisfaction depends on whether employees perceive a greater likelihood that their job provides

(a) opportunities to develop skills and abilities, (b) a chance to accomplish something worthwhile, (c) possibilities for additional pay and (d) the respect of their co-workers.

In another study, Lam and Zhang (2003) empirically studied the relationship between less satisfying work experiences than initially expected (unmet expectations) and job attitudes (affective commitment, job satisfaction) of employees in the fast-food industry. Results indicated that affective commitment can be predicted by unmet expectations for ‘job characteristics’ (i.e., challenging job, sense of accomplishment, job security, meaningful work and friendly co-workers), ‘training and development’ (i.e., training for personal growth and development, promotion opportunity, having personal responsibility, opportunity to exercise independent thought and opportunity to use creativity in work) and ‘compensation and fairness’ (competitive salary, competitive fringe benefits, and respect and fair treatment from managers). This study also reported that job satisfaction can be predicted by unmet expectations for ‘job characteristics’ and ‘training and development’. On the other hand, ‘compensation and fairness’ cannot enhance the job satisfaction of employees.

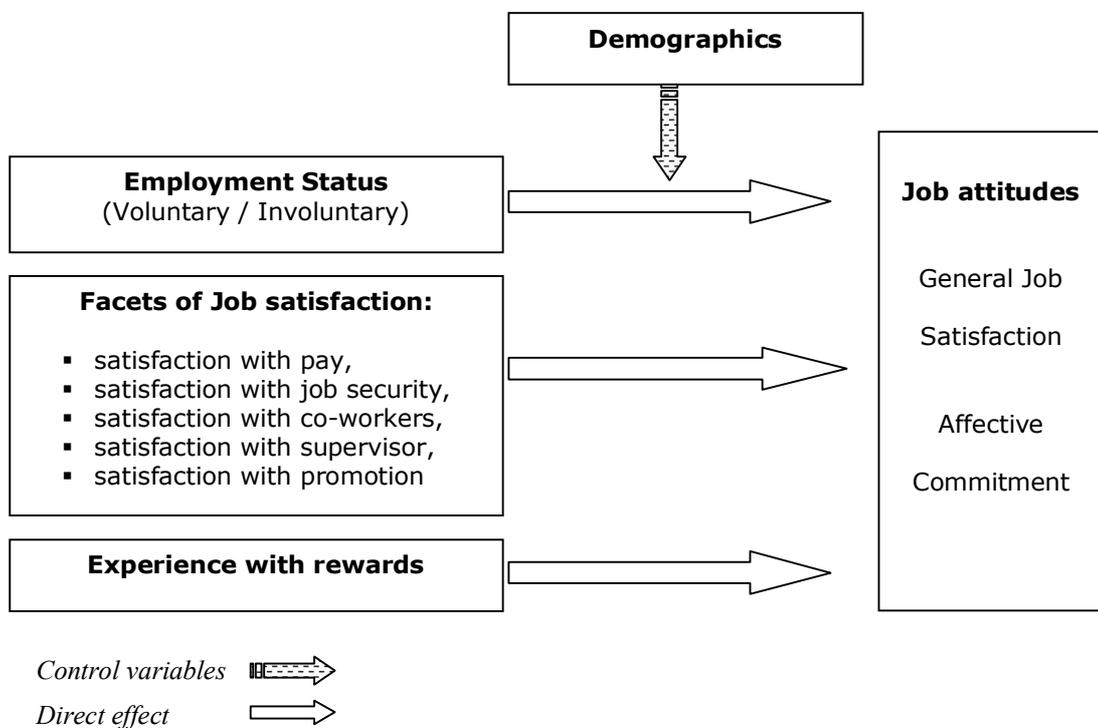
Therefore, based on the argument of the expectations of receiving the desired rewards it is proposed that:

Hypothesis 17. Part-time and full-time employees, whose expectations for rewards that should be received are consistent with their perceptions of actual rewards received, develop higher levels of job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 18. Part-time and full-time employees, whose expectations for rewards that should be received are consistent with their perceptions of actual rewards received, develop higher affective commitment.

Figure 5.1 illustrates the hypothesised relationships between employment status, facets of job satisfaction and job rewards, with employee attitudes / general job satisfaction and affective commitment.

FIGURE 5.1 Hypothesised Relationships for Job Attitudes



5.3 Methodology

5.3.1 Measures

Job satisfaction. We measured general job satisfaction and facets of job satisfaction (satisfaction with pay, job security, co-workers, supervisors and promotion opportunities) using the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) developed by Hackman and Oldman (1980). Each of the items was measured on a seven point scale ranging from ‘*Extremely Dissatisfied*’ to ‘*Extremely Satisfied*’. The internal consistency estimate (Cronbach’s alpha) for general satisfaction (5 items), satisfaction with pay (2 items), job security (2 items), co-workers (3 items), supervision (3 items) and satisfaction with promotion opportunities (4 items) was .94, .82, .90, .75, .76, and .80, respectively.

Organisational Commitment. We measured affective, continuance and normative commitment using the 24-items developed by Meyer and Allen (1997). Each of the items was measured on a seven point Likert scale ranging from ‘Strongly Disagree’ to ‘Strongly Agree’. The coefficient alpha reliability for affective (8 items), continuance (8 items) and normative commitment (8 items) was .89, .84, and .88, respectively.

Work status and voluntary/involuntary employment status. Work status is coded 0 for part-time employment and 1 for full-time employment. According to Feldman (1990) one element of ‘voluntariness’ for part-timers concerns whether the number of hours they are working is consistent with their desires. Hence, a question asked employees whether they would prefer to work more hours, fewer hours or

exactly the same number of hours as they agreed in the employment contract. When the respondent indicates that she / he would prefer to work the same hours as she/he agreed in the employment contract then this employee is considered to be voluntary (1 = voluntary). In all other cases, she / he is considered to be involuntary (0 = involuntary), and a disparity in preferred number of working hours and actual working hours is revealed.

Job rewards. We investigated experiences with job rewards with the instrument developed by Huddleston and Good (1999). The comprehensive description of the measure is presented in Chapter 4, section 4.3.1. The specific instrument was developed to measure the importance and the likelihood of receiving job rewards in retail firms. Two sets of eleven questions were placed with the aim of measuring the importance and the likelihood of receiving job motivators in retail firms. Specifically, six extrinsic and five intrinsic job rewards are evaluated. The extrinsic job rewards include the following: pay, promotion, job security, praise from supervisor, friendliness and respect of co-workers. The intrinsic job rewards include the following: self-satisfaction, skill development, learning, accomplishment and freedom.

The 'job rewards' variables used in this analysis were calculated by subtracting the 'likelihood' mean values from the 'importance' mean values. A positive value score for each of the eleven variables implies that employees' expectations of rewards that should be received are not consistent with their perceptions of actual rewards received. In other words, even if employees perform

their job extremely well, they are not likely to receive what they perceive as important.

Control Variables. According to Maynard et al. (2006a), the demographic variables of gender, age, level of education and tenure in the job have an influence on the job attitudes between part-time and full-time employees. Therefore, in this study these demographic variables are treated as control variables. We included a dummy variable for gender (0 = female, 1 = male), age (0 = 18-24 years old, 1 = older than 25), education (0 = high school graduate, 1 = university graduate) and tenure in the organisation (measured in months).

5.3.2 Procedure and Participants

The sample population of this study and the procedure adopted to collect data is the same as the population and procedure described in Chapter 4, section 4.3.2. At this point, we should note that a total of 488 completed questionnaires were returned to the researcher (275 full-time and 213 part-time employees). Not surprisingly, the majority of the participants were women (71.5 per cent compared to only 28.5 per cent for men).

Regarding the employment status, for part-time employees (Mean = .41, SD = .49), 58.7 per cent indicated that they wanted to work more hours, and, not surprisingly, none indicated a desire to work fewer hours (Figure 5.2). Therefore, 58.7 per cent of the part-time employees can be considered as involuntary and the rest 41.3 per cent can be considered as voluntary (Figure 5.3). For full-time employees (Mean = .52, SD = .50) 8.7 per cent indicated they wanted to work more

hours, 38.9 per cent indicated a desire to work fewer hours (Figure 5.2). Hence, the sum of 47.6 per cent can be considered as involuntary and 52.4 per cent can be considered as voluntary (Figure 5.3).

FIGURE 5.2 Desire for Working Hours by Work Status

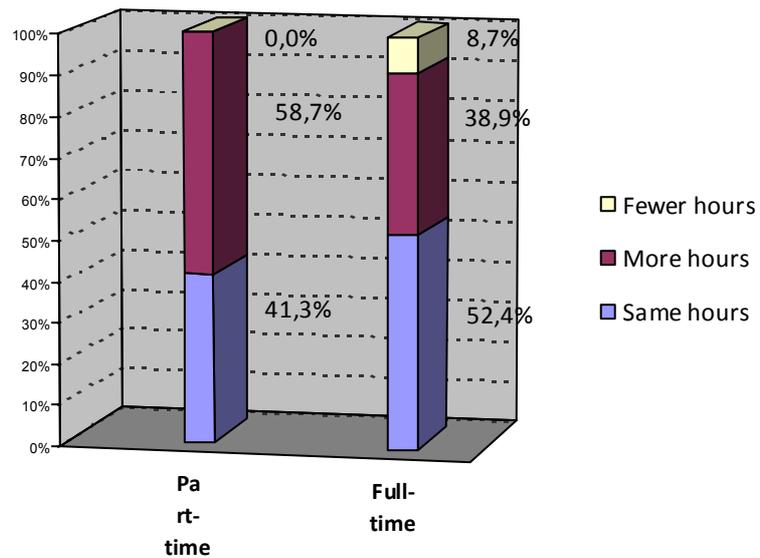
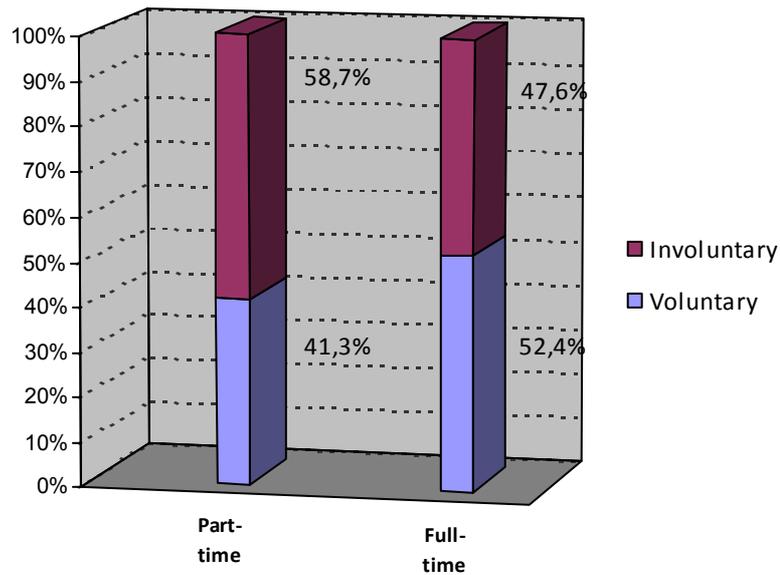


FIGURE 5.3 Voluntary and Involuntary Employees by Work Status



5.3.3 Data Analyses

In order to evaluate the effect of work status (full-time / part-time) on job satisfaction, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted. The aim of this analysis was to examine the effect of work status on the general job satisfaction and all the facets of job satisfaction simultaneously. Next, repeated univariate analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) were used with the aim of investigating each dependent variable (general job satisfaction and five facets of job satisfaction).

Likewise, in order to examine the effect of work status on the three components of organisational commitment simultaneously, a multivariate analysis of covariance was conducted. The independent variable was work status (part-time/full-time) and the dependent variables included affective, continuance and normative commitment of employees. To further investigate each one of the components of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) a series of analyses of variance (ANOVAS) and univariate analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) were performed.

To test the effects of employment status, facets of satisfaction and experience with job rewards on general job satisfaction and on affective commitment we used hierarchical regression analyses. Three conceptual models were examined for both general job satisfaction and affective commitment. The demographic variables of gender, age, level of education and tenure were controlled in step 1 in all of the three models. Model 1 evaluated the amount of variance on general satisfaction and on affective commitment explained by the employment status of participants (Model 1:

demographics and employment status). Model 2 assessed the contribution of facets of satisfaction (Model 2: demographics and facets of satisfaction). Finally, Model 3 evaluated the amount of variance in general satisfaction and affective explained by employees' experience with job rewards (Model 3: demographics and job rewards). The equations used are presented in Table 5.1. Dependent variables are coded S for general satisfaction and A for affective commitment. The coding of independent variables is showed in Table 5.2. In addition, for each regression analysis we assessed the potential influence of collinearity. Specifically, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and the Tolerance scores were calculated. For a description of the multicollinearity issue on regression models refer to Appendix III in Table III.11.

TABLE 5.1 Conceptual Models of Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment

Model 1 Demographics and Employment Status
$S = a + b_1 C_1 + b_2 C_2 + b_3 C_3 + b_4 C_4 + b_5 E_1$ $A = a + b_1 C_1 + b_2 C_2 + b_3 C_3 + b_4 C_4 + b_5 E_1$
Model 2 Demographics and Facets of Satisfaction
$S = a + b_1 C_1 + b_2 C_2 + b_3 C_3 + b_4 C_4 + b_5 F_1 + b_6 F_2 + b_7 F_3 + b_8 F_4 + b_9 F_5$ $A = a + b_1 C_1 + b_2 C_2 + b_3 C_3 + b_4 C_4 + b_5 F_1 + b_6 F_2 + b_7 F_3 + b_8 F_4 + b_9 F_5$
Model 3 Demographics and Experience with Job Rewards
$S = a + b_1 C_1 + b_2 C_2 + b_3 C_3 + b_4 C_4 + b_5 R_1 + b_6 R_2 + \dots + b_{15} R_{11}$ $A = a + b_1 C_1 + b_2 C_2 + b_3 C_3 + b_4 C_4 + b_5 R_1 + b_6 R_2 + \dots + b_{15} R_{11}$

TABLE 5.2 Dependent and Independent Variables

Dependent Variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ S is general satisfaction, ▪ A is affective commitment.
Independent Variables
Control variables
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ C₁ is gender (<i>female = 0, male = 1</i>), ▪ C₂ is age (<i>18-24 = 0, 25 and over = 1</i>), ▪ C₃ is level of education (<i>At most high school diploma = 0, Bachelor's degree or higher = 1</i>), ▪ C₄ is the length of tenure, (<i>discrete measured in months</i>).
Employment Status
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ E₁ is the employment status (<i>voluntary = 1, involuntary = 0</i>),
Facets of Job Satisfaction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ F₁ is satisfaction with pay, ▪ F₂ is satisfaction with job security, ▪ F₃ is satisfaction with supervisors, ▪ F₄ is satisfaction with co-workers, ▪ F₅ is satisfaction with promotion opportunities.
Experience with Job Rewards
<i>Extrinsic rewards</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ R₁ is experience with pay, ▪ R₂ is experience with job security, ▪ R₃ is experience with promotion, ▪ R₄ is experience with the respect of co-workers, ▪ R₅ is experience with the praise from supervisor, ▪ R₆ is experience with the friendliness of co-workers.
<i>Intrinsic rewards</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ R₇ is experience with self-satisfaction, ▪ R₈ is experience with skill development, ▪ R₉ is experience with learning, ▪ R₁₀ is experience with accomplishment, ▪ R₁₁ is experience with freedom.

5.4 Research Findings

5.4.1 Exploring Job Satisfaction of Part-time and Full-time Employees

Initially, in order to evaluate the effect of work status (full-time / part-time) on job satisfaction, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted. The aim of this analysis was to examine the effect of work status on the general job satisfaction and all the facets of job satisfaction simultaneously. The independent variable was work status (full-time / part-time); the dependent variables included general satisfaction, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with job security, satisfaction with co-workers, satisfaction with supervisor and satisfaction with promotion opportunities. In addition, with the intention of removing the influence of gender, age, level of education and tenure in the organisation, these four variables were used as covariates in following analyses. Results are reported in Table 5.3. The MANCOVA model was significant at $p \leq .001$ level and the partial eta square was 23 per cent. The partial eta square indicated the importance of work status in explaining the variations in job satisfaction for sales employees. The intercept refers to the remaining variance (usually the error variance).

TABLE 5.3 MANCOVA Tests of Job Satisfaction for the Effect of Work Status

	F	Significance	Partial η^2
Intercept	909.22	.000	.92
Gender	4.56	.000	.05
Age	5.83	.000	.07
Education	12.30	.000	.13
Tenure	7.38	.000	.09
Work status (FT/PT)	23.76	.000	.23

Furthermore, a series of analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) was used with the aim of investigating each dependent variable that was included in the previous multivariate analysis. Once again, after controlling for demographic characteristics, the independent variable was work status, and the dependent variables included the general satisfaction and the five facets of satisfaction. The results are presented in Table 5.4. Not surprisingly, part-time sales employees were significantly less satisfied with pay and job security than full-timers. Therefore, Hypothesis 1, and Hypothesis 2 are verified. In addition, Hypotheses 3, 4, 5 and 15 are not supported. Specifically, no statistically significant differences ($p \leq .05$) were found for satisfaction with supervisors, satisfaction with promotion opportunities and general satisfaction between the two groups of employees. In addition, contrary to Hypothesis 4, part-time sales employees reported greater satisfaction with their co-workers than did full-time employees.

TABLE 5.4 ANCOVAs for the Effect of Work Status on Job Satisfaction

Dependent Variable	Hypothesis	Full-time	Part-time	F
		mean (n=275)	mean (n=213)	
Satisfaction with pay	H1	3.47	2.75	36.47***
Satisfaction with job security	H2	5.92	5.04	33.478***
Satisfaction with supervisors	H3	5.72	5.73	1.32
Satisfaction with co-workers	H4	5.43	5.87	29.83***
Satisfaction with promotion	H5	5.60	5.65	.79
General satisfaction	H15	5.62	5.39	1.03

Note: *** $p \leq .001$

5.4.2 Exploring Organisational Commitment of Part-time and Full-time Employees

Initially, in order to examine the effect of work status on the three components of organisational commitment simultaneously, a multivariate analysis of covariance was conducted. The independent variable was work status (part-time / full-time) and the dependent variables included affective, continuance and normative commitment of employees. The variables of gender, age, education and tenure were treated as covariates. Results in Table 5.5 revealed a statistically significant effect of work status on organisational commitment ($F = 16.28, p \leq .001$). In other words, MANCOVA indicated that even after taking into account key characteristics of

employees, there is a relationship between work status (part-time / full-time) and the three components of organisational commitment.

TABLE 5.5 MANCOVA Tests Organisational Commitment for the Effect of Work Status

	F	Significance	Partial η^2
Intercept	1199.14	.000	.88
Gender	12.85	.000	.07
Age	11.75	.000	.07
Education	21.78	.000	.12
Tenure	8.51	.000	.05
Work status (FT/PT)	16.28	.000	.10

To further investigate each one of the components of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, normative) a series of ANCOVAs and ANOVAs were conducted (Table 5.6). The influence of gender, age, educational level and tenure in the organisation was controlled for the analyses with regard to the total sample population. Table 5.6 reveals that part-time sales employees report significantly lower affective commitment ($p \leq .01$), but significantly higher continuance commitment ($p \leq .001$), compared to their full-time co-workers. Therefore, both Hypothesis 6 and Hypothesis 7 are verified. In addition, further analysis indicated that Hypothesis 8 is not supported. In particular, no significant differences are observed on continuance commitment between involuntary part-time and voluntary part-time employees. On the other hand, female part-timers report a higher level of continuance commitment (Hypothesis 9 verified). With regard to normative commitment, findings in Table 5.6 provide support for both Hypothesis 10 and Hypothesis 11. Specifically, 'voluntary' and 'caretakers' part-time employees develop higher normative commitment to the organisation compared to full-timers as well as compared to 'involuntary' and 'without care' part-timers.

TABLE 5.6 ANOVA's and ANCOVA's Results for Organisational Commitment

Dependent Variable	Hypothesis	Full-time (n=275)	Part-time (n=213)	F
Affective Commitment	H6	5.52	5.46	.23*** ^a
Continuance Commitment	H7	5.83	6.13	23.06**** ^a
		Part-time Involuntary (n=125)	Part-time Voluntary (n=88)	
	H8	6.09	6.18	.559 ^b
		Part-time Female (n=163)	Part-time Male (n=50)	
	H9	6.29	5.58	24.715**** ^b
Normative Commitment	H10	Part-time Voluntary (n=88)	Part-time Involuntary (n=125)	
	(i)	6.27	5.45	24.978**** ^b
		Part-time Voluntary (n=88)	Full-time Employees (n=275)	
	(ii)	6.27	5.47	36.042**** ^b
	H11	Part-time Caretakers (n=107)	Part-timers without Care (n=106)	
	(i)	6.34	5.23	52.769**** ^b
		Part-time Caretakers (n=107)	Full-time Employees (n=275)	
	(ii)	6.34	5.47	47.120**** ^b

Note: ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001, a: ANCOVA test, b: ANOVA test

5.4.3 Modeling Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment for Part-time and Full-time employees

The effects of employment status, facets of satisfaction and experience with job rewards on general job satisfaction and on affective commitment were estimated separately using hierarchical regression analyses. Before testing the hypothesised conceptual models, we examined the correlation between variables in order to detect the presence of multicollinearity. In Appendix IV, Table IV.3 presents the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among the variables. There is significant correlation between all the independent variables as listed in Table IV.3. The majority of the correlations present correlation coefficients greater than .40. A rule of thumb is that multicollinearity may be a problem if the Pearson's r of several independent variables is over .90 (Cohen et al., 2003, pg. 422-425). Bryman and Cramer (1997, pg. 257) suggest .80 instead of .90 as the threshold. However, there are no high correlations of .80 or above. The highest correlation among the independent variables (.76) is between the reward of promotion and the sense of accomplishment for part-time employees is below the cut-off of .80 for the collinearity problem.

Nevertheless, since the correlation between the independent variables is significantly high, we also calculated the Tolerance as well as the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). The findings are presented in Table. IV.4, in Table. IV.5 and in Table. IV.6, for Model 1, Model 2 and Model 3, respectively (see Appendix IV). The VIF can be regarded as high if it exceeds the value of 10. Accordingly, tolerance values

smaller than .10 are considered low (Hair et al., 1998). Results showed no Variation Inflation Factor was greater than 10 and no Tolerance value lower than .10, indicating that the models should have no serious problems of multicollinearity. For Model 1 the highest VIF value is 1.343 and the lowest Tolerance value is .745. For Model 2 the highest VIF value is 3.189 and the lowest Tolerance value is .314. For Model 3 the highest VIF value is 5.033 and the lowest Tolerance value is .199.

5.4.3.1 Testing the Effect of Employment Status

Model 1 evaluated the amount of variance on general satisfaction and on affective commitment explained by the employment status (voluntary, involuntary) after controlling for demographic variables (Model 1: Demographics and Employment Status). For this purpose two hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. The results are presented in Table 5.7. In both analyses the demographic variables of gender, age, level of education and tenure were controlled in step 1.

For job satisfaction, as shown in Table 5.7, the initial entry of the demographics characteristics of full-time employees (Step 1) was significant ($p \leq .001$, $F = 12.60$) and the amount of variance explained by these variables reached only 16 per cent ($R^2 = .16$). Specifically, job satisfaction of full-time employees was positively related to age ($b = .154$) and negatively related to the educational level ($b = -.340$). For part-time employees the demographic variables (step 1) was significant at the level of $p \leq .001$ ($F = 27.79$). The results show that 35 per cent of the variance of general job satisfaction could be explained by this group of personal variables (R^2

= .35). Specifically, part-time salespeople are more likely to express higher job satisfaction when they are female ($b = -.378$) with basic educational level ($b = -.268$). These results indicate that for part-time retail employees, compared to full-timers, demographic variables are stronger predictors of the job satisfaction of part-timers.

Moreover, the entry of the employment status (step 2) for both full-time ($F = 11.84$, $R^2 = .18$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$) and part-time ($F = 25.03$, $R^2 = .38$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$) employees was significant ($p \leq .001$). These results verify Hypothesis 12 and indicate that part-time retail employees develop higher levels of job satisfaction when they are employed voluntarily on a part-time basis ($b = .171$).

With regard to affective commitment, for both full-time and part-time employees, the initial entry of the demographics characteristics (Step 1) was significant ($p \leq .001$, $F = 9.59$; $F = 30.71$) and the amount of variance explained by these variables reached 12 per cent ($R^2 = .12$) for full-time and 37 per cent ($R^2 = .37$) for part-time employees. Likewise with job satisfaction, the results suggest that for part-time retail employees, compared to full-timers, demographic variables are stronger predictors of the affective commitment. In particular, affective commitment of full-time employees was positively related to age ($b = .185$) and negatively related to the educational level ($b = -.286$). On the other hand, part-time employees are more likely to express higher affective commitment when they are female ($b = -.281$), older than 25 years old ($b = .173$) with basic educational level ($b = -.262$) and with longer length of tenure to the organisation ($b = .234$).

Contrary to the finding of job satisfaction, the entry of the employment status (step 2) was significant ($p \leq .001$) only for part-time ($F = 29.70$, $R^2 = .42$, $\Delta R^2 = .05$)

employees. These results verify Hypothesis 13 and indicate that part-time retail employees develop higher levels of job satisfaction when they are employed voluntarily on a part-time basis ($b = .218$).

TABLE 5.7 Model 1 for General Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment by Work Status

Hierarchical Regression Analyses	General Job Satisfaction				Affective Commitment			
	Full-time		Part-time		Full-time		Part-time	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Model 1								
Demographics and Employment Status								
Demographic Characteristics								
<i>Gender</i>	.008	.007	-.378***	-.382***	-.049	-.049	-.281***	-.287***
<i>Age</i>	.154**	.175**	.115	.112	.185**	.195**	.173**	.169**
<i>Education</i>	-.340***	-.349***	-.268***	-.242***	-.286***	-.291***	-.262***	-.229***
<i>Tenure</i>	.109	.103	.132*	.121	.071	.068	.234***	.219***
R ²	.16		.35		.12		.37	
Adjusted R ²	.15		.34		.11		.36	
F	12.60***		27.79***		9.59***		30.71***	
Employment Status		.154**		.171**		.078		.218***
<i>(0=Involuntary/1=Voluntary)</i>								
R ²		.18		.38		.13		.42
Adjusted R ²		.17		.36		.11		.40
ΔR ²		.02		.03		.01		.05
F change		7.60**		9.50**		1.84		16.47**
F		11.84***		25.03***		8.07***		29.70***

Note: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .00

5.4.3.2 Testing the Effect of Facets of Satisfaction

Table 5.8 presents the impact of facets of job satisfaction on general satisfaction and affective commitment after controlling for demographic variables (Model 2: Demographics and Facets of Satisfaction). The results indicate that the effect of facets of satisfaction on general job satisfaction is significant ($p \leq .001$) for both full-time and part-time employees. Therefore, Hypothesis 14 is supported. Specifically, full-time employees ($p \leq .001$, $F = 128.74$, $R^2 = .81$, $\Delta R^2 = .65$) are more likely to report greater job satisfaction when they are satisfied with the promotion opportunities ($b = .361$), as well as with their supervisors ($b = .344$) and co-workers relationships ($b = .300$). On the other hand for part-time employees ($p \leq .001$, $F = 41.40$, $R^2 = .65$, $\Delta R^2 = .30$) the satisfaction with promotion opportunities ($b = .384$), satisfaction with job security ($b = .235$) and satisfaction with pay ($b = .172$) are statistically significant and seem to affect the level of general job satisfaction.

In addition, with regard to affective commitment, Table 5.8 indicates that Hypothesis 16 is verified. For both full-time and part-time employees, the entry of the facets of satisfaction (Step 2) was significant ($p \leq .001$, $F = 59.54$; $F = 33.40$) and the amount of variance explained by these variables reached 67 per cent ($R^2 = .67$, $\Delta R^2 = .55$) for full-time and 60 per cent ($R^2 = .60$, $\Delta R^2 = .23$) for part-time employees. It is shown that the affective commitment of full-time employees has a strong positive relationship with satisfaction with co-workers ($b = .352$), satisfaction with promotion opportunities ($b = .342$), satisfaction with supervisors ($b = .237$) and satisfaction with job security ($b = .144$). Moreover, Table 5.8 shows that part-time employees are more

likely to report greater affective commitment when they are satisfied with the promotion opportunities ($b = .337$) and with the sense of job security ($b = .300$).

TABLE 5.8 Model 2 for General Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment by Work Status

Hierarchical Regression Analyses	General Job Satisfaction		Affective Commitment	
Model 2	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
Demographics and Facets of Satisfaction	Step 2	Step 2	Step 2	Step 2
Demographic Characteristics				
<i>Gender</i>	.029	-.084	-.017	-.022
<i>Age</i>	.078**	.015	.113**	.074
<i>Education</i>	-.060*	-.208***	-.018	-.201***
<i>Tenure</i>	.030	.039	.030	.103
Facet-specific Satisfaction				
<i>Satisfaction with pay</i>	-.059	.172**	-.062	.042
<i>Satisfaction with job security</i>	-.059	.235***	.144***	.300***
<i>Satisfaction with supervisors</i>	.344***	.014	.237***	-.070
<i>Satisfaction with co-workers</i>	.300***	.120	.352***	.115
<i>Satisfaction with promotion opportunities</i>	.361***	.384***	.342***	.337***
R ²	.81	.65	.67	.60
Adjusted R ²	.81	.63	.66	.58
ΔR ²	.65	.30	.55	.23
F change	186.97***	34.43***	87.25***	22.72***
F	128.74***	41.40***	59.54***	33.40***

Note: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

5.4.3.3 Testing the Effect of Experience with Job Rewards

Model 3 evaluated the amount of variance on general satisfaction and on affective commitment explained by individuals' experience with job rewards after controlling for demographic variables (Model 3: Demographics and Job Rewards). The results of the hierarchical regression analyses are presented in Table 5.9.

The findings provide support to Hypothesis 17. Results indicate that for both full-time ($F = 42.57$) and part-time ($F = 43.84$) retail employees the contributions of job rewards variables on job satisfaction were significant at the level of $p \leq .001$. For full-time employees the amount of variance of general job satisfaction explained by the job rewards reached 71 per cent ($R^2 = .71$, $\Delta R^2 = .55$). Specifically, the level of job satisfaction for full-time employees increases when their work experiences are positive for the extrinsic rewards of pay ($b = -.365$), friendliness of co-workers ($b = -.200$) and respect of co-workers ($b = -.176$). We should note that there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and the job rewards variables. The smaller the gap between the importance and the likelihood of receiving these rewards the greater the level of job satisfaction. For part-time employees the predicted value of the model increased by 42 per cent ($R^2 = .77$, $\Delta R^2 = .42$). It is found that part-time salespeople are more likely to report greater job satisfaction when their job provides chances for promotion ($b = -.212$), a sense of accomplishment ($b = -.183$), praise from supervisor ($b = -.153$) and chances to learn new things ($b = -.146$).

Additionally, for affective commitment the results in Table 5.9 provide support for Hypothesis 18. In particular, for both full-time and part-time employees

individuals' experience with job rewards (Step 2) was significant ($p \leq .001$, $F = 35.51$; $F = 30.82$) and the amount of variance explained by these variables reached 67 per cent ($R^2 = .67$, $\Delta R^2 = .55$) for full-time and 70 per cent ($R^2 = .70$, $\Delta R^2 = .33$) for part-time retail employees. In accordance with the findings with regard to job satisfaction, the level of affective commitment for full-time employees increases when their work experiences are positive for the extrinsic rewards of pay ($b = -.270$), respect of co-workers ($b = -.223$), friendliness of co-workers ($b = -.191$) and the intrinsic reward of skill development ($b = -.166$). On the other hand, for part-time retail employees the level of affective commitment increases when their job provides opportunities for promotion ($b = -.162$).

TABLE 5.9 Model 3 for General Job Satisfaction and Affective Commitment by Work Status

Hierarchical Regression Analyses	General Job Satisfaction		Affective Commitment	
Model 3	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
Demographics and Job Rewards	Step 2	Step 2	Step 2	Step 2
Demographic Characteristics				
<i>Gender</i>	-.059	-.036	-.124***	.022
<i>Age</i>	.074*	-.014	.109**	.067
<i>Education</i>	-.095	-.122**	-.041	-.125**
<i>Tenure</i>	-.018	.005	-.032	.132**
Experience with Job Rewards				
<i>Pay</i>	-.365***	-.072	-.270***	-.034
<i>Job security</i>	-.090	.025	-.042	-.068
<i>Promotion</i>	-.157*	-.212**	.005	-.162*
<i>Respect of co-workers</i>	-.176**	-.018	-.223***	-.020
<i>Praise from supervisor</i>	-.005	-.153**	-.072	-.080
<i>Friendliness of co-workers</i>	-.200**	-.117	-.191**	-.101
<i>Feel Good</i>	-.004	-.031	.034	-.090
<i>Skill development</i>	-.103	-.027	-.166*	-.084
<i>Learn</i>	.100	-.146*	.078	-.067
<i>Accomplishment</i>	.115	-.183*	-.004	-.069
<i>Freedom</i>	-.036	-.038	-.064	-.010
R ²	.71	.77	.67	.70
Adjusted R ²	.70	.75	.65	.68
ΔR ²	.55	.42	.55	.33
F change	45.22***	32.73	39.47***	19.77***
F	42.57***	43.84***	35.51***	30.82***

Note: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

5.5 Summary

In this chapter, we have examined the debate relating to the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of full-time versus part-time employees. It has been argued that, because part-time work varies widely in terms of quality and content, it is not appropriate to generalise and compare job attitudes of cross-sectional workers. Hence, we focused on the retail sector, which is of particular interest in terms of part-time arrangements. Specifically, based on psychological contract theory and on the facts that the retail sector is characterised by the large number of part-time workers and the low quality of work, we investigated the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees by work status (full-time / part-time).

As was hypothesised, results support the argument that significant differences for part-time and full-time employees are observed in satisfaction with pay and job security. Existing literature suggests that part-time workers face low wages and job insecurity. Not surprisingly, our study supported these arguments by pointing out lower satisfaction with pay and job security for part-time compared to full-time retail employees. However, it is found that part-time and full-time employees report no significant differences for satisfaction with supervisors, promotion opportunities and general satisfaction. Furthermore, contrary to our hypotheses, part-time sales employees indicated greater satisfaction with their co-workers.

With regard to organisational commitment, we adopted Meyer and Allen's (1991) 'Three Component Model of Commitment', to evaluate differences between

full-time and part-time sales employees. Results revealed that these two groups of employees clearly differ on affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Specifically, as was hypothesised, part-time workers compared to full-timers develop lower affective and greater continuance commitment to retail firms. In other words, part-timers are less likely to report that they *want to* and more likely to report that they *need to* remain in retail firms. Furthermore, the current research revealed that women part-timers especially exhibit a greater *need to* remain in their current employer. Additionally, the distinction between voluntary and involuntary part-timers provided no significant differences on continuance commitment. With regard to normative commitment, as was expected, employees who desire and indeed are given the option to work part-time develop greater commitment. Specifically, it is suggested that caretakers and voluntary employees consider part-time arrangements as an additional benefit that provides them the opportunity to achieve better work-life balance. Hence, these two subgroups of part-timers, compared to full-timers, feel *obligated* to their employer.

In addition, apart from identifying the level of job attitudes, this study explored factors that increase job satisfaction and affective commitment by work status. Initially, it is found that demographic characteristics provide significant evidence regarding the variation in job satisfaction and affective commitment. Specifically, findings indicated that the subgroup of part-timers who are more likely to report greater job satisfaction and affective commitment is women with a basic educational level and great length of tenure. Likewise, for full-time employees, the level of job satisfaction and commitment decreases as educational qualifications

increase. Moreover, in accordance with previous research, the results of the survey suggest that the level of job satisfaction and affective commitment increases when people are employed voluntarily on a part-time basis.

Furthermore, this study adopted two more methods for identifying determinants of general job satisfaction and affective commitment. In the first one, as described by Ferratt (1981), each facet of job satisfaction was treated as an independent variable. For the second method, the expectations for rewards that should be received and perceptions of actual rewards received were estimated and used as independent variables (Lawler, 1973). These two models provided different, but not contradictory, findings. The results suggest that job attitudes of full-time and part-time employees are predicted by different determinants.

A close examination of the findings indicates that positive job attitudes of full-time employees, as was expected, are related to the level of compensation as well as to promotion opportunities they receive. However, the most interesting finding is that full-time employees place significant emphasis on an established friendly climate among co-workers and supervisors. It is noteworthy that for full-time employees, who spend more than 40 hours per week in the organisation, the level of both job satisfaction and affective commitment increases when they feel satisfied with their supervisors and co-workers relationships, as well as when they experience the extrinsic rewards of respect and friendliness from their co-workers.

In contrast, part-time employees develop greater job satisfaction and affective commitment when they feel satisfied with the level of job security in their job, as well as when they receive rewards that provide promotion opportunities and a 'stepping

stone' for better job positions. In particular, retail part-time employees exhibit positive job attitudes when their job is not a dead-end job, but instead when employers provide opportunities for enhancing knowledge, abilities as well as, opportunities for developing a career path. The main findings of this chapter are summarised in Table 5.10.

TABLE 5.10 Full-time and Part-time Subgroup Differences in Job Attitudes

Hypothesised relationship	Findings
General satisfaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ No significant differences between full-time and part-time employees.
Facets of satisfaction	
<i>Satisfaction with pay</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Part-time employees exhibit lower satisfaction compared to full-time employees.
<i>Satisfaction with job security</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Part-time employees exhibit lower satisfaction compared to full-time employees.
<i>Satisfaction with supervisors</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ No significant differences between full-time and part-time employees.
<i>Satisfaction with co-workers</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Part-time employees exhibit greater satisfaction compared to full-time employees.
<i>Satisfaction with promotion</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ No significant differences between full-time and part-time employees.
Organisational Commitment	
<i>Affective</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Part-time employees exhibit lower commitment compared to full-time employees.
<i>Continuance</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Part-time employees exhibit greater commitment compared to full-time employees. ▪ No significant differences between voluntary and involuntary part-time employees. ▪ Part-time female employees exhibit greater commitment compared to part-time male employees.
<i>Normative</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Part-time voluntary employees exhibit greater commitment compared to part-time involuntary employees

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- Part-time voluntary employees exhibit greater commitment compared to full-time employees.
 - Part-time caretakers employees exhibit greater commitment compared to full-time employees.

Predictors of job attitudes

- Full-time employees exhibit positive job attitudes when they:
 - hold basic educational qualifications,
 - feel satisfied with the level of pay they receive, with the interpersonal relationships (co-workers, supervisors), as well as with the available promotion opportunities.
 - Part-time employees exhibit positive job attitudes when they:
 - are female with basic educational level and with long tenure in the organisation,
 - are employed voluntary on a part-time job position,
 - feel satisfied with the level of job security in their job, as well as with the provided opportunities for promotion, learning and accomplishments.
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PART IV

Flexibility in the

Primary Labour

Market

6. Employees' Perceptions of Flexibility and Predictors of Flexible Work Options Participation

6.1 Introduction

Over the past twenty years one of the most significant changes in the labour market has been the notable growth of female labour force participation. More women are entering the workforce, and the transition from single-income families to dual-career families has raised the challenge of achieving not only work-family balance but also work-life balance. These changes have also affected the role of men, since partners must now share the responsibility of child-care. Hence, inevitable, flexible work arrangements have captured the attention of both employees and employers alike.

As already presented in Part II - Review of Flexible Work Arrangements -, a cross-country comparison shows significant differences in the incidence of flexible work arrangements across Europe. It is noteworthy that flexible work options, both worker-oriented and company-oriented, are less widespread in Greece. On the other hand, a large proportion of establishments in the Netherlands, Finland and Switzerland provide some kind of labour flexibility.

Charron and Lowe (2005) have shown that attitudes towards flexible work options are dependent on employee characteristics, work environment, and prior

participation. Furthermore, it is suggested that various cultures may view work arrangements differently, and, in some cultures, men might not feel it legitimate to express a preference for a reduced work-week (Charron, and Lowe, 2005; Fagan, 2001).

With the aim of exploring the low participation of Greek employees in flexible work arrangements, we replicate the study of Charron and Lowe (2005) in the Greek context. Specifically, in this chapter we examine factors that affect the perceptions of benefits and costs associated with flexible work arrangements. However, we extend the study of Charron and Lowe (2005) in three ways. First, we consider not only accountants' perceptions, but we also examine a range of working people from different occupational categories in the primary labour market. Second, based on both Albion (2004) and Charron and Lowe (2005), we develop a comprehensive measure of attitudes towards flexible work options. Third, apart from just identifying factors that might influence perceptions towards work flexibility, we explore whether the perceived benefits and costs predict one's decision to participate in flexible work arrangements or not.

Furthermore, there is a scarcity of empirical studies that examine employees' attitudes towards 'labour flexibility' for the Greek case in higher-grade, higher-status, better-paid and secure jobs in public-sector employment, the large corporations, and the highly unionised industries. Based on the fact that flexible work arrangements are not as widespread in Greece as in other countries, it would be valuable to explore factors that promote or discourage their use in the Greek context. In addition, the

results of this study will allow us to perform cross-country comparisons and to identify differences in employees' perceptions for flexibility.

We develop this chapter in five major sections. After, a short introduction we develop the theoretical framework of the study and generate the research hypotheses. Next, we discuss the methodology of the survey and provide a description of the participants. Last, we outline the empirical results of our survey and summarise the main findings.

6.2 Research Hypotheses

6.2.1 Factors that Shape Employees' Perceptions of Flexible Work Options

6.2.1.1 Gender

Undoubtedly, flexible work options have been introduced as a family-friendly policy that enables (usually) women to balance work and family responsibilities. Not surprisingly, Scandura and Lankau (1997) found that women compared to men are more likely to report greater levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment when they perceive that a family-responsive practice is present in their organisation. It is suggested that because family-oriented programs are more salient to women who must balance family demands flexibility in the workplace is then viewed as a benefit and a gesture of caring about the well-being of the female workforce.

Previous research has found that female employees hold different perceptions of flexible work arrangements compared to male employees. Women stress the benefits of flexibility, while men stress the costs associated with flexibility in the workplace. In particular, Charron and Lowe (2005) report that women perceive more benefits to result from the participation in terms of improving employee productivity, morale, retention and recruitment. On the other hand, men perceive more administrative costs associated with flexibility, such as less equity in men's ability to participate in flexible work arrangements and partial performance evaluations for participants.

Similarly, Albion (2004) found that men are more concerned with the views of others in the workplace and are less likely to use flexible working time arrangements, if they feel that they are viewed as less dedicated and committed to their jobs. In addition, it is reported that men associate the benefit of work-life balance only with flexible work options that guarantee no loss of pay.

In another study, Drew and Murtagh (2005) found that, with regard to the unpaid parental leave, more men compared to women in senior management positions expressed concerns about potentially adverse effects on their careers. This is not surprising, since Allen and Russell (1999) reported that men who took parental leaves of absence were less likely to be recommended for organisational rewards than were men who did not take a leave of absence. Accordingly, with regard to telecommuting, it is found that women are more likely than men to cite family, personal benefits, and stress reduction as benefits of telecommuting. Conversely, men are more likely than

women to express concerns about the lack of professional interaction (Mokhtarian et al., 1998).

With regard to the Greek context, we should note that Greece has one of the lowest rates of women's overall labour participation in the European Union (around 40 per cent during 2008), and women are twice as likely to be unemployed as men (6.7 per cent and 13.3 per cent, respectively for January 2009; General Secretariat of National Statistical Service of Greece, 2009). Based on these factors, we expect Greek women to perceive more benefits from flexible work arrangements in their effort to enter the labour market and in their effort to fulfil their dual family and work role. Moreover, the model of the male 'breadwinner' role, which considers men responsible for providing for the family and women responsible for caring for the family, is relatively strong in Greece (Warren 2007; Mutari and Figart 2001). Based on this norm, we expect Greek men as wage-earners to express more concerns about the use of flexible work options.

Hypothesis 1. Female employees, compared to male employees, perceive more benefits and fewer costs with regard to the use of flexible work arrangements.

6.2.1.2 Public and Private Employment Sector

Official statistics report that in many European countries flexible work arrangements are more widespread in public establishments than in private firms. The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2006) highlighted that the public sector is the forerunner in relation to flexible working time arrangements and leave enhancements.

Specifically, with regard to parental leave, 58 per cent of the public sector organisations surveyed by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2007a) had employees taking parental leave compared with 50 per cent of the private sector firms. Furthermore, this study has also indicated that the gap between these two sectors is particularly pronounced in Greece in relation to other countries. Almost 80 per cent of the Greek public establishments have employees taking parental leave compared to less than 50 per cent of the Greek private firms.

One reason for these sectoral differences is the high proportion of women in the public sector workforce. Based on the norm that more mothers are taking up flexible work practices than fathers, then, unsurprisingly, labour flexibility is more widespread in the public sector.

Another reason that has been cited by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2007a) for explaining the gap between the public and the private sector is that the work culture of public organisations may be more supportive for the employees who make use of the leave entitlements or other work-family reconciliation measures (European Foundation for

Improvement Living and Working Conditions 2007a, pg. 12). Indeed, in Greece, labour flexibility policies and financial provisions of statutory parental leave schemes are often more generous in public establishments compared to private firms. For instance, Greek Law N.3528/2007 established that in the public sector a parent can take a *paid* leave period of nine months until the child is 6 years old (Article 53). On the other hand, Law 1484/1984 established that in the private sector a parent can take an *unpaid* leave period of only 3.5 months and only until the child is 2.5 years old (Article 5).

In a similar vein, with regard to part-time work, the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2007b) showed that in the EU21 the incidence of part-time work is higher in public sector organisations compared to private sector organisations. Specifically, in 38 per cent of public sector organisations, part-time workers account for at least one-fifth of the workforce, compared with 20 per cent of private firms. Conversely, 40 per cent of private sector establishments have no part-time employees, compared with 25 per cent of establishments in the public sector. However, in Greece, part-time work is more widespread in the private sector than in the public sector. The reasoning behind this trend is that ADEDY, the Greek civil servants' union, opposed the legislative initiatives for the expansion of part-time work, advocating instead a model of full-time employment (Mihail 2003). The result of the adverse stance of trade unions to part-time employment was Law N.3250/2004, which introduced part-time work in the public sector only on fixed-term contracts and only available for a limited target group, i.e., unemployed people, young people, mothers, and people with disabilities.

Taking into consideration that flexible work practices are more supportive for employees in the public sector, as they are implemented by a comprehensive institutional framework and warranted by the presence of trade unions, we expect public employees to perceive more benefits from flexible work arrangements compared to private employees. Additionally, based on the fact that Greek public employees are permanent employees (Greek Law N.3528/2007 Article 39) and that the reward system in the public sector is based mainly on seniority and less on employee performance (Sotirakou and Zeppou 2006), we expect public employees, compared to private employees, to perceive fewer costs (negative effects on career advancement, pay, interpersonal relationships, etc) from flexible work arrangements.

Hypothesis 2. Public sector employees, compared to private sector employees, perceive more benefits and fewer costs with regard to the use of flexible work arrangements.

6.2.1.3 Experience with Flexible Work Arrangements

The results of a study conducted at IBM in the United States reflect how important work flexibility is for the employees who participate in such work arrangements (Hill et al., 2004). In particular, it was found that most of the employees (74 per cent) participating in new-concept, part-time positions reported they would

have left IBM if this program had not been available and almost three-fifths (59 per cent) reported they would have left IBM to find a job with more flexibility.

Hence, not surprisingly, various studies show that employees who are given the option to participate in flexible work arrangements hold different perceptions towards work flexibility and develop different job attitudes compared to those employees who are constrained from using these work arrangements. For example, it is found that employees who have participated in flexitime arrangements report higher levels of job satisfaction (Wickramasinghe and Jayabandu 2007). Likewise, Scandura and Lankau (1997) report that, when employees perceive flexible work hours to be available in their workplace, then these individuals report higher levels of both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Accordingly, it is also found that employees who are constrained from using flexitime and flexplace policies develop lower commitment to the organisation compared to those with no need of work flexibility (Blair-Loy and Wharton 2004). These results imply that employees who participated in flexible work arrangements and report higher level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment will also perceive more benefits and fewer costs associated with these flexible arrangements.

Charron and Lowe (2005) proposed that, because employees who have not previously worked on a flexible arrangement may find it difficult to assess the cost and benefits accurately associated with work flexibility, we would expect perceptual differences to exist across participation levels. Indeed, the results of their study indicated that employees who have participated in flexible work arrangements perceived fewer administrative issues and assessed greater benefits, compared to

employees without any experience in such arrangements. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3. Employees who have participated in flexible work arrangements, compared to employees without participation experience, perceive more benefits and fewer costs with regard to the use of flexible work arrangements.

6.2.2 Attitudes Towards Flexibility as Predictors of Participation to Flexible Work Arrangements

The literature on flexible work options has generally suggested that the perceived benefits and costs with flexible arrangements can be organised in four categories.

The first category consists of benefits for individuals, such as the work and family balance and the reduction of physical and psychological stress of workers (Grover and Crooker 1995; MacDermid et al., 2001; Thomas and Ganster 1995; Hill et al., 2004). The second category consists of benefits for organisations such as reduced turnover and absenteeism rates, higher productivity, morale, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and the attraction of valuable staff (Lee 1991; Dex and Scheibl 2001; Raabe 1990; Scandura and Lankau 1997; Chapman et al., 1995; Lee et al., 2000). The third category includes the barriers for individuals. For instance, challenges in managing career advancement, professional image, reduced income,

difficulty in participating in social activities in the workplace and professional networking. (Hill et al., 2004; MacDermid 2001; Lawrence and Corwin 2003). Finally, the fourth category consists of the administrative barriers, such as work coordination and scheduling problems, difficulties in evaluating performance and equity issues, as they are not available to all employees but mainly to low-level employees (Charron and Lowe 2005; Scandura and Lankau 1997; Lawrence and Corwin 2003).

Despite the proliferation of studies exploring the outcomes of flexible work arrangements, little research has focused on how the perceived benefits and costs may affect one's decision to participate in flexible work arrangements or not. Pérez et al. (2002) examined how perceived benefits and barriers from teleworking may differentiate companies that adopt teleworking or not. As was expected, HR managers that perceive fewer barriers and more benefits from teleworking are more likely to introduce teleworking in the organisation. Moreover, it is noteworthy that the adoption of teleworking was more strongly related to the benefits and not to the barriers variables.

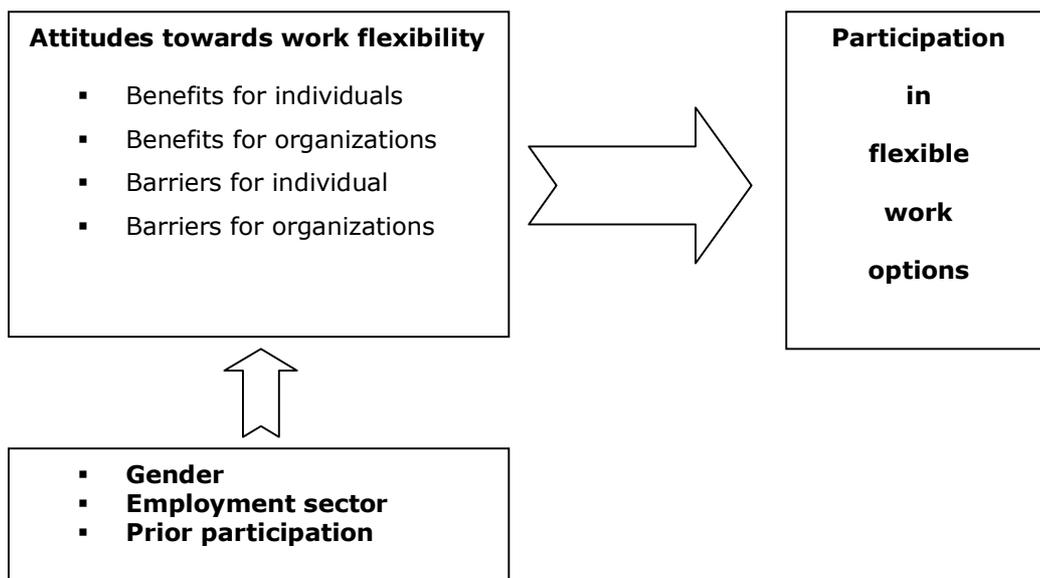
In another study, Albion (2004) assessed the predictive value of work-family balance benefits and barriers in the decision of employees to participate in flexible work arrangements. Results indicated that work-family issues (benefits) were more important predictors of flexible work-options use than any of the perceived barriers. In other words, when employees believe that they can achieve work-family balance through flexible work arrangements, then these employees are more likely to work under a flexible work arrangement despite any barriers.

Based on the above findings and on the fact that flexible work arrangements are primarily designed to assist employees who have responsibilities outside work, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 4. Work-life balance benefits are stronger predictors of participation in flexible work arrangements compared to other types of benefits and costs associated with the use of flexible work options.

Figure 6.1 illustrates the hypothesised relationships between employees' attitudes towards work flexibility and the decision to participate in a flexible work arrangements.

FIGURE 6.1 Hypothesised Relationships for Participation in Flexible Work Options



6.3 Methodology

6.3.1 Measures

We used a structured questionnaire to collect information on employees' attitudes towards flexible work arrangements. Table 6.1 presents the twenty items that were included in the survey related to both personal and organisational benefits and costs to the use of flexible work options. These twenty items were based on a combination of the Flexible Work Options Questionnaire (FWOQ version 2) developed by Albion (2004) and on the seventeen statements developed by Charron and Lowe (2005). Any omission of each measure was checked and was enhanced by statements of the other measure. The result of this grouping of statements is a comprehensive instrument which allows us to examine the attitudes of working people towards flexible work options in more detail. Each of the items were rated on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree).

Additionally, information on demographic characteristics (gender, age, educational level, care for dependents) as well as on the experience with flexible work arrangements was obtained. Specifically, participants were given a short description of different types of flexible work-options and were asked to indicate whether they had or were currently participating in any of these arrangements. Based on Charron and Lowe (2005) and Albion (2004), we provided the options of flexible work hours, compressed workweeks, telecommuting, part-time work, parental leave, paid maternity leave and special leave. Furthermore, we provided an open-ended

question of whether employees have used any other type of flexible work option. Finally, responses for the use of flexible work options were code 0 for not participating in any type of flexible work arrangement and 1 for having participated in at least one flexible work arrangement.

TABLE 6.1 Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Options

-
1. Flexible work arrangements have a positive impact on the productivity of the company.^a
 2. Flexible work arrangements are an important benefit that employees use to select the firm in which they plan to work. ^a
 3. Supervisors at my workplace react negatively to people using flexible working arrangements. ^b
 4. It is more difficult to evaluate an individual's performance when the individual is working under a flexible work arrangement as compared to a traditional full-time arrangements ^a
 5. Flexible work arrangements are essential for me in order to attend to family responsibilities. ^b
 6. Individuals employed under flexible work arrangements are more likely to lose technical and managerial skills over time compared to those working under traditional full-time work arrangements. ^a
 7. Flexible work arrangements enable me to focus more on the job when I am at the workplace. ^b
 8. Working under a flexible work arrangement would negatively impact my career progress within the organisation. ^b
 9. I cannot afford the loss of pay associated with flexible work options that involve reduced hours. ^b
 10. Flexible work arrangements help me balance life commitments. ^b
 11. Other people at my workplace react negatively to people using flexible working arrangements. ^b
 12. Flexible work arrangements increase the retention of firm employees. ^a
 13. Supervisors are likely to view individuals employed under flexible work arrangements as being less dedicated and committed to their jobs compared to those working under traditional full-time work arrangements. ^a
 14. Flexible work arrangements are essential for me in order to be able to deal with other interests and responsibilities outside work. ^b
 15. Flexible work options are basically unfair, because some arrangements are not equally available to all employees. ^a
 16. Flexible work arrangements only work in lower-level positions and not in positions with greater responsibility. ^a
 17. While flexible work options seem like a good idea, when implemented they are more likely to be abused than traditional full-time work arrangements. ^a
 18. Flexible work arrangements generally enhance morale and improve the quality of work/life for those involved. ^a
 19. Flexible work arrangements are likely to reduce the 'face time' with managerial personnel and keep individuals out of the 'network' at the office. ^a
 20. Flexible working arrangements are essential for me in order to be able to manage variations in workload and responsibilities. ^b
-

Note: a= adopted from Charron and Lowe (2005); b= adopted from Albion (2004)

6.3.2 Procedure and Participants

A sample of organisations both in the public and in the private sector was conveniently chosen from the northern part of Greece. After permission to conduct the survey was secured, the questionnaires were hand-delivered by the researcher and gathered directly from the participants. Subjects include a range of people in higher occupational grades (supervisors, assistant managers, managers, senior managers, professionals, small and large business owners) from different sectors of the economy (manufacturing and construction, i.e., food products, textile products, building constructions, services, i.e., education, telecommunications, business consulting, public administration [department of taxation and local government authorities] banking and finance organisations and retail trade).

A total of 362 questionnaires were collected of which 213 from the public sector and 149 from the private sector. The response rates by workplace reached 70.5 per cent, while almost 60.3 per cent of the distributed questionnaires were collected. More than half of the participants were female (54.7 per cent), while the majority was aged between 25-54 (81.8 per cent), held at most a degree of higher education (84.3 per cent) and had to care for dependents (60.2 per cent). A comprehensive description (count, per cent, means and standard deviations) of the total sample population is presented in Appendix V. At this point, it is noteworthy, that 66.3 per cent of the total sample, 87.8 per cent of male employees and 71.1 per cent of the private sector employees indicated that they had never participated in flexible work arrangements (see Figures 6.2, 6.3 and 6.4).

FIGURE 6.2 Participation in Flexible Work Arrangements for the Total Sample

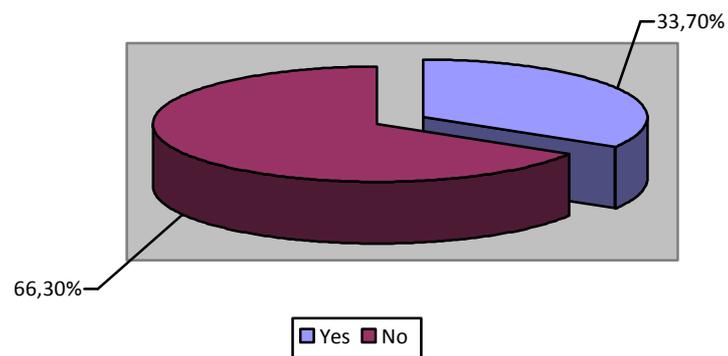


FIGURE 6.3 Participation in Flexible Work Arrangements by Gender

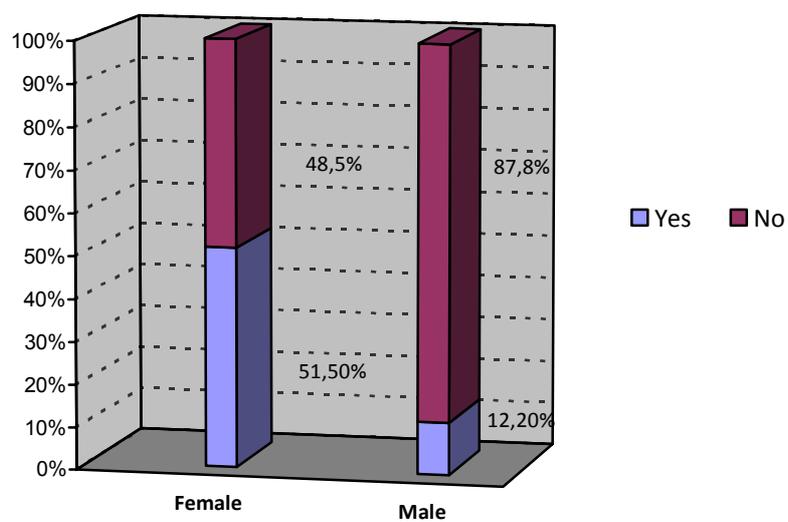
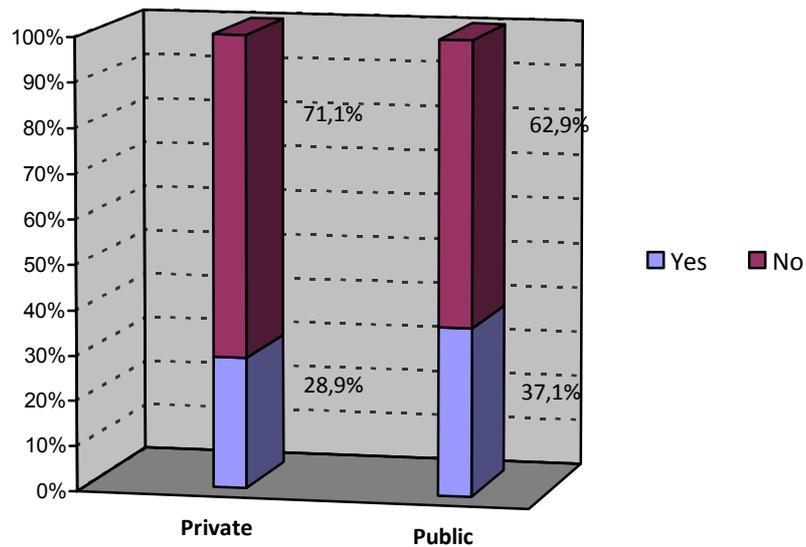


FIGURE 6.4 Participation in Flexible Work Arrangements by Sector



6.3.3 Data analyses

6.3.3.1 Factor Analysis

With the aim of determining the key dimensions associated with flexible work arrangements, a factor analysis (principal component analysis) with varimax rotation was performed on the twenty attitudes. Factors loadings greater than 0.40 (in absolute values) were used to characterise the factors structures. The analysis extracted four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00, accounting for 58.63 per cent of the variance in attitudes towards flexible work options. Additionally, tests for appropriateness, including the Bartlett Test of Sphericity and the Kaiser–Meyer–

Olkin (KMO = .87) measure of sampling adequacy were performed, and all indicated that factor analysis was an appropriate technique. For a short description of the statistical methods see Appendix IV.

Table 6.2 presents the factors obtained, the variables of each factor, the factor loadings and the reliability analysis (Cronbach's Alpha scores). The first variable is labelled '*career costs*' (Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$) since all the statements refer to costs in terms of pay, promotion opportunities, interpersonal relationships that working people may face when employed on flexible work arrangements. The second factor is labelled '*work-life balance*' (Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$), since it includes statements that relate to the ability of employees to balance work and life responsibilities when employed on a flexible arrangement. The third factor focuses on '*administrative barriers*' (Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$). All the statements refer to the obstacles that organisations face when implementing flexible work arrangements ('unfair', available to low-level employees, difficulties in performance evaluation). The final factor is labelled '*benefits*' (Cronbach's $\alpha = .70$) and includes four statements that refer to the benefits of recruiting, retention, productivity and enhanced morale. At this point we should notice that the variable '*work-life balance*' resembles the respective variable identified by Albion (2004), while the '*career costs*', '*administrative barriers*' and '*benefits*' variables resemble the respective variables identified by Charron and Lowe (2005).

TABLE 6.2 Factor Analysis

Factors	Factor loadings
Factor 1. Career Costs (Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$, eigenvalue = 4.17, variance = 20.87%)	
13. Supervisors are likely to view individuals employed under flexible work arrangements as being less dedicated and committed to their jobs compared to those working under traditional full-time work arrangements.	.747
3. Supervisors at my workplace react negatively to people using flexible working arrangements.	.759
11. Other people at my workplace react negatively to people using flexible working arrangements.	.749
6. Individuals employed under flexible work arrangements are more likely to lose technical and managerial skills over time compared to those working under traditional full-time work arrangements.	.751
19. Flexible work arrangements are likely to reduce the 'face time' with managerial personnel and keep individuals out of the 'network' at the office.	.716
8. Working under a flexible work arrangement would negatively impact on my career progress within the organisation.	.757
9. I cannot afford the loss of pay associated with flexible work options that involve reduced hours.	.755
Factor 2. Work-Life Balance (Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$, eigenvalue = 2.76, variance = 13.81%)	
14. Flexible work arrangements are essential for me in order to be able to deal with other interests and responsibilities outside work.	.781
5. Flexible work arrangements are essential for me in order to attend to family responsibilities.	.777
10. Flexible work arrangements help me balance life commitments.	.585
20. Flexible working arrangements are essential for me in order to be able to manage variations in workload and responsibilities.	.748
7. Flexible work arrangements enable me to focus more on the job when I am at the workplace.	.721
Factor 3. Administrative Barriers (Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$, eigenvalue = 2.60, variance = 13.03%)	
15. Flexible work options are basically unfair, because some arrangements are not equally available to all employees.	.782
16. Flexible work arrangements only work in lower-level positions and not in positions with greater responsibility.	.769
4. It is more difficult to evaluate an individual's performance when the individual is working under a flexible work arrangement as compared to a traditional full-time arrangements	.785
17. While flexible work options seem like a good idea, when implemented they are more likely to be abused than traditional full-time work arrangements.	.763
Factor 4. Benefits (Cronbach's $\alpha = .70$, eigenvalue = 2.18 variance = 10.92%)	
2. Flexible work arrangements are an important benefit that employees use to select the firm they plan to work.	.669
12. Flexible work arrangements increase the retention of firm employees.	.693
1. Flexible work arrangements have a positive impact on the productivity of the company.	.776
18. Flexible work arrangements generally enhance morale and improve the quality of work/life for those involved.	.685

6.3.3.2 Subsequent Analysis

In order to examine whether gender, employment sector and participation in flexible work arrangements has an effect on employee's attitudes towards work flexibility ('career costs', 'wok-life balance', 'administrative barriers' and 'benefits'), repeated univariate analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted.

Additionally, a regression analysis was performed with the aim of testing whether employees' attitudes towards work flexibility can predict the participation in a flexible work arrangement. The equation used is presented in Table 6.3. Because the dependent variable was expressed as a dichotomous variable binary logistic analysis was performed. Specifically, the dependent variable is coded P for participation in flexible work arrangements (0 = No / 1 = Yes) and the independent variables (A_i) are presented in Table 6.4.

TABLE 6.3 Conceptual Model of Participation in Flexible Work Options

Model: Participation in Flexible Work Options

$$P = a + b_1 A_1 + b_2 A_2 + b_3 A_3 + b_4 A_4$$

TABLE 6.4 Dependent and Independent variables

Dependent Variable

- P is participation in flexible work arrangements (*No = 0, Yes = 1*)

Independent Variables

Attitudes towards flexible work options

- A_1 is 'career costs',
 - A_2 is 'wok-life balance',
 - A_3 is 'administrative barriers',
 - A_4 is 'benefits'.
-

6.4 Empirical Results

6.4.1 The Effect of Gender, Employment Sector and Participation on Employee Attitudes

A series of univariate analyses of variance (ANOVAs) was conducted with the aim of evaluating the effect of gender (Hypothesis 1), employment sector (Hypothesis 2) and participation in flexible work arrangements (Hypothesis 3) on the attitudes towards flexibility. The independent variables were gender, sector of employment and use of flexible work arrangements, while the dependent variables were the four attitudes obtained from the factor analysis, i.e., ‘career costs’, ‘work-life balance’, ‘administrative barriers’ and ‘benefits’. Results are presented in Table 6.5.

As was expected, it is found that women, compared to men, are less concerned about the ‘career costs’ (loss of pay, slow career progress, negative interpersonal relationships, etc) ($F = 25.42$; $p \leq .001$) and the ‘administrative barriers’ (unfair, available to low-level positions, etc) ($F = 34.96$; $p \leq .001$) associated with flexible work arrangements. Furthermore, women are more likely to believe that flexible work options have a positive impact on work-life balance ($F = 39.05$; $p \leq .001$) and on the recruiting, retention, productivity and the morale of employees (‘benefits’) ($F = 6.40$; $p \leq .05$). Hence, Hypothesis 1 is verified. In addition, Table 6.5 shows that Hypothesis 2 is partially supported. Even though private employees, compared to public employees, exhibit greater concerns about ‘career costs’ ($F = 224.74$; $p \leq .001$)

and ‘administrative barriers’ ($F = 26.91$; $p \leq .001$), they are also more likely to believe that flexible work options result in a number of positive outcomes and benefits ($F = 60.56$; $p \leq .001$). Finally, results of the ANOVA indicate that employees who have participated in flexible work arrangements strongly believe that such flexible options enable employees to balance work and life responsibilities ($F = 183.47$; $p \leq .001$). In addition employees with previous experience on flexible work options express fewer concerns with regard to the ‘career costs’ ($F = 50.69$; $p \leq .001$) and the ‘administrative barriers’ imposed ($F = 87.20$; $p \leq .001$) (Hypothesis 3 is supported).

TABLE 6.5 ANOVA Results for the Effect of Gender, Sector and Use of Flexible Work Arrangements on Employee Attitudes

	Female (n=198)	Male (n=164)	F
H1: Gender			
Career Costs	3.65	4.35	25.42**
Work-Life Balance	5.86	5.37	39.05**
Administrative Barriers	4.10	5.00	34.96**
Benefits	6.00	5.14	6.40*
	Public (n=213)	Private (n=149)	F
H2: Employment Sector			
Career Costs	3.26	4.97	224.74**
Work-Life Balance	5.64	5.64	.00
Administrative Barriers	4.17	4.96	26.91**
Benefits	5.88	6.32	60.56**
	Non-users (n=240)	Users (n=122)	F
H3: Use of Flexible Work Arrangements			
Career Costs	4.30	3.30	50.69**
Work-Life Balance	5.31	6.28	183.47**
Administrative Barriers	4.95	3.60	87.20**
Benefits	6.08	6.02	.80

Note: * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .001$.

6.4.2 Modelling participation in flexible work arrangements

In order to examine whether the four variables of ‘career costs’, ‘work-life balance’, ‘administrative barriers’ and ‘benefits’ can predict the participation in a flexible work arrangement, a binary logistic regression analysis was conducted. Table 6.6 reports the values of the logit coefficients (B), standard errors (SE), Wald chi-square statistic (tests the unique contribution of each predictor, holding constant the other predictors), level of significance (Sig) and the odds ratio for the predictors (Exp(B)). An odds ratio higher than one implies that the variable has a positive influence on the possibility that an employee will participate in a flexible work arrangement. An odds ratio lower than one indicates the opposite, while an odds ratio close to one indicates that unit changes in that independent variable do not affect the dependent variable.

The overall model is significant ($X^2 = 194.153$; $p < .001$) and the proportion of variance attributable to the predictors reached 57.50 per cent (Nagelkerke’s R^2). Specifically, the strongest positive effect is found for the ‘work-life balance’ variable ($b = 1.947$; $p < .001$; Wald = 63.422). Hence, Hypothesis 4 is verified. Working people are more likely to participate in a flexible work arrangement when they strongly believe that flexible work options are essential for them in order to achieve the balance between work responsibilities and life commitments (family responsibilities, interests outside work, social and recreational activities, such as hobbies, etc). Furthermore, unsurprisingly, Table 6.6 shows that there is a negative relationship between the use of flexibility and the ‘administrative barriers’ variable (b

= -.629; $p < .001$), as well as the 'career costs' variable ($b = -.345$; $p < .01$). In other words, employees' beliefs such as that flexibility is 'unfair', available only to low-level positions, will negatively impact the career progress, the level of pay, and the interpersonal relationships (co-workers, supervisors) poses a definite barrier to their decision participate in a flexible working arrangement.

TABLE 6.6 Logistic Regression Analysis

Independent Variables	B	SE	Wald	Sig	Exp(B)
Career Costs	-.345	.129	7.194	.007	.708
Work-Life Balance	1.947	.244	63.422	.000	7.004
Administrative Barriers	-.629	.124	25.857	.000	.533
Benefits	.222	.285	.609	.435	1.249
Constant	-9.135	2.089	19.119	.000	.000
Model Chi-square (df)	194.153 (4)				
Model Sig.	.000				
Nagelkerke R square	.575				

6.5 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was twofold: first, to explore factors that affect the attitudes towards flexible work options; second, to examine whether the perceived benefits and costs regarding work flexibility predict one's decision to participate in flexible work arrangements or not.

The results of the survey revealed that workplace flexibility is a 'gendered' issue. It is found that women, compared to men, perceive more benefits and fewer costs with regard to the use of flexible work arrangements. Women are more likely to believe that flexible work arrangements have a positive impact on work-life balance and on the recruiting, retention, productivity and morale of employees. On the other hand, men expressed greater concern with regard to the implementation and use of flexible work arrangements. Men, under the stress of the breadwinner role, are not only concerned with administrative barriers and equity issues but also with the career costs, such as the loss of pay, slow career progression and negative interpersonal relationships.

Moreover, it is found that employees who have participated in flexible work arrangements expressed fewer concerns with the costs and barriers associated with the use of flexibility in the workplace and stronger beliefs that these flexible options enable employees to balance work and life responsibilities.

An interesting finding is that the employment sector has a strong impact on the attitudes of employees towards work flexibility. Even though employees in the private sector, compared to employees in the public sector, express a stronger belief

that flexible work options are associated with organisational benefits, they also exhibit greater concerns about career costs and administrative barriers.

Furthermore, apart from examining whether attitudes towards flexible work options are dependent on gender, employment sector and prior participation, we explored whether these attitudes can predict the participation in a flexible work arrangement. The results indicate that the strongest predictor of flexible work arrangement participation is the perception of achieving balance between work responsibilities and life commitments. Nevertheless, it is also found that both administrative barriers and career costs hinder the use of flexible work arrangements. Equity issues, evaluation barriers, the opinion of supervisors and co-workers, reduced income and slow career progression have a significant negative impact on the decision to participate in flexible practices. The main findings of this chapter are summarised in Table 6.7.

TABLE 6.7 Attitudes Towards Flexible Work Arrangements

Hypothesised relationship	Findings
Employees attitudes towards flexible work arrangements	
<i>Gender</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Female compared to male employees perceive that flexible work options facilitate work-life balance and organisational benefits (recruiting, retention, productivity, morale). ▪ Men compared to female employees are more concerned with career costs (loss of pay, slow career progression, negative interpersonal relationships etc) and administrative barriers (unfair, available to low-level positions etc) associated with flexible work options.
<i>Employment sector</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Even though employees in the private sector, compared to employees in the public sector, express a stronger belief that flexible work options are associated with organisational benefits, they also exhibit greater concerns about career costs and administrative barriers.
<i>Prior participation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Employees with previous participation in flexible work options, believe that flexible schemes enable employees to balance between work and life responsibilities. ▪ Employees without previous participation in flexible work options, exhibit greater concerns with career costs and administrative barriers associated with flexible work options.

Participation in flexible work arrangements

- The strongest predictor of participating to flexible work schemes is the perception of achieving balance between work responsibilities and life commitments.
 - Employees' perceptions of administrative barriers and career costs hinder the use of flexible work options.
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PART V

Discussion

7. Discussion, Theoretical and Practical Implications

7.1 Bridging the Gap between Part-time and Full-time Employees of the Secondary Labour Market

Taking into account that first, part-time work is expanding in the EU and in Greece, second, female employees are overrepresented in both part-time employment and the retail sector, and third, part-time work in the retail sector is synonymous with adverse working conditions, we focused on part-time arrangements in the retail sector with special attention to female employees. In particular, we explored the work motivation and job attitudes of employees by work status. The findings of this thesis suggest that significant behavioural differences exist between part-time and full-time retail employees. What is also noteworthy is that these motivational and attitudinal differences are even more profound and challenging when we focus on women employees.

7.1.1 Part-time and Full-time Subgroup Differences in Work Motivation. Opportunities and Challenges for Women

This thesis sought to extend previous research on work motivation by taking into consideration the work status of employees. Specifically, we posed the question of how full-time and part-time retail employees value rewards in their work environment.

In accordance with previous findings, utilising data from Russia and Poland (Huddleston and Good, 1999; Linz, 2002; 2003; 2004), this study revealed that for Greek employees the rewards of pay, friendliness of co-workers, and job security are among the most valuable motivators for both part-time and full-time employees. Further, focusing on women's employment, we found that women full-time employees are more responsive to extrinsic rewards, while women part-timers expressed a preference for intrinsic rewards. In particular, full-timers, compared to part-timers, valued the motivators of respect and friendliness of co-workers highest. On the other hand, part-time female employees expressed a preference for opportunities to learn new things, develop skills, and feel a sense of accomplishment.

In addition, for both part-time and full-time employees we investigated their expectations of receiving the rewards that they find important in the workplace, asking whether there are any differences in their expectations of rewards even when they perform their jobs extremely well. In line with these past findings regarding different countries, we found that for both full-time and part-time Greek employees there is significant discrepancy between what employees desire and what they

actually expect to receive in the workplace. Not surprisingly, part-time workers express lower expectations of receiving the rewards of pay, job security, and friendliness of co-workers.

Nevertheless, contrary to our hypothesis, results indicated that women part-timers are more optimistic about receiving intrinsic rewards. Part-timers indicated that they are more likely to receive promotions, develop skills, learn new things, and feel a sense of accomplishment in the workplace. Manifestly, the literature review suggests that employers are not in fact likely to act in favour of part-timers. Therefore, we speculate that female part-timers who are involuntary (could not find a full-time job) or part-timers who try to balance work with family, education, or other personal obligations may feel that part-time work at that stage of their life-cycle is just a transient phase. In this phase, part-time employment is a means to develop skills, learn new things, and perhaps be promoted to a full-time position. Indeed, Greek Law 2639/1998 established that part-timers have priority in filling full-time openings that occur in their occupational categories. Given this regulation and taking into account the continued phenomenon of high unemployment in Greece, we suggest that part-time work may be regarded by some women employees as a valuable opportunity to acquire intrinsic rewards and as a 'stepping stone' to better full-time jobs.

On the other hand, permanent full-time salespeople may have 'hit the ceiling' in terms of their advancement opportunities (Sinclair et al., 1999) and may have developed a more realistic picture of the adversities of the labour market. Hence, the situation we studied may represent a relatively unfavourable situation for full-timers

and a relatively favourable situation for part-timers. Full-time employees have diminishing future prospects, and, consequently, they express lower expectations of accomplishment and promotional opportunities.

These findings provide both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, this paper adds further insights into the relationship between work status and motivation. This study empirically revealed a statistically significant effect of work status on work motivators. Hence, it is suggested that future researchers should not neglect the part-time and full-time status of employees, when examining motivation.

As a practical implication, these results provide retail firms with significant guidelines on how to develop a flexible motivational plan. Retail firms that seek to retain a highly motivated workforce should provide incentive plans, such as commissions or bonuses, ensure job security, and foster a friendly climate among co-workers.

Furthermore, since female full-time and part-time workers value rewards differently, it is suggested that employers should provide a variety of rewards that fit the needs of both full-time and part-time employees. Because full-timers are more likely to be involved in the functioning of the organisation, have greater tenure and spend more hours in the work environment (Wortuba, 1990; Sinclair et al., 1999), employers should pursue the development of a congenial working environment that promotes friendliness and mutual respect among co-workers.

On the other hand, with regard to women part-timers, retail firms should make training programs, such as seminars and workshops available, with the aim of

enhancing skills and knowledge. The working environment would thereby support the development of part-time employees and would provide a 'stepping stone' towards better job positions.

In addition, this study contributes new empirical evidence regarding how individual characteristics of employees may impact the reported importance of work motivators and the expectations of receiving these rewards. In other words, we have identified subjective factors that influence whether working people perceive that they receive what is desired and ranked important in the workplace.

For full-time employees, unmet expectations with regard to rewards are more likely to develop when employees are young and have high educational qualifications. The findings may be viewed in light of the high unemployment rate in Greece (around 9.4 per cent), and in particular the high unemployment rate for females (13.3 per cent) compared to males (6.7 per cent) at the beginning of 2009 (National Statistical Service of Greece, 2009). It is speculated that due to the lack of alternatives, young, female university graduates are currently compelled to accept employment in retail sales positions that are characterised by less competitive pay, low training, low job security, and a low level of demarcation between jobs. Nevertheless, not surprisingly, they feel overqualified and disappointed about not making the best of their higher educational qualifications.

On the other hand, for part-time workers, the reported gaps in motivation decrease when employees experience personal and occupational hardships. These relationships are even more striking for women. In particular, for female part-timers it is evident that they express limited unmet expectations with regard to rewards when

they are older, have the burden of care for dependents, and have faced an unstable employment status characterised by periods of unemployment and frequent job changes. We suggest that these 'life-stressed' employees have to make compromises and settle on the employment options of the 'secondary labour market'. Therefore, because of this disadvantaged position, they are more likely to express the opinion that they receive the desired rewards through part-time employment in the retail sector. It is proposed that female employees stressed by factors, such as age (older employees), care (e.g., mothers), and poor employment background (i.e., unemployment and / or many changes of jobs) consider that part-time work is a source of learning and of developing skills as well as of accomplishing something worthwhile. For these groups of employees, it may be difficult to attend school or seminars or to find a full-time job. Therefore, they are more likely to indicate that they receive the desired rewards, as these rewards are fulfilled through part-time employment.

The conclusion, that a variety of individual characteristics should be considered when assessing the motivation of employees, can provide retail managers with a profile of the motivated full-time and part-time female employees. In the context of the demanding retail sector, this profile can be used in the recruiting process with the aim of identifying candidates that are most suitable for an available full-time or part-time position. Female employees with specific personal characteristics appear to balance the importance of work motivators and their expectations of receiving rewards, while other employees develop greater unmet expectations.

7.1.2 Part-time and Full-time Subgroup Differences in Job Attitudes

In this thesis, using the psychological contract as a theoretical framework theory and based on the facts that the retail sector is characterised by the large number of part-time workers and the low quality of work, we investigated the level of job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees by work status (full-time / part-time).

Our findings, in accordance with findings of Conway and Briner (2002, pg. 296), provided mixed support for the utility of the psychological contract as a theoretical framework. As was hypothesised, results support the argument that significant differences for part-time and full-time employees are observed in satisfaction with pay and job security. Existing literature suggests that part-time workers face low wages and job insecurity. Therefore, if part-time employees perceive themselves to be treated differently from full-time employees in terms of compensation and job security, then psychological contract violations are more intense. Hence, not surprisingly, this study supported the argument of the psychological contract theory by pointing out lower satisfaction with pay and job security for part-time compared to full-time retail employees.

Nevertheless, the psychological contract theory failed to explain the findings with reference to satisfaction with supervisors, co-workers, promotion opportunities and general satisfaction. The results of this research indicated that part-time and full-time employees report no significant differences for satisfaction with supervisors,

promotion opportunities and general satisfaction. In addition, contrary to our hypotheses, part-time sales employees reported greater satisfaction with their co-workers. These findings can be explained based on the partial inclusion theory (Katz and Kahn, 1978). In particular, because part-timers are less involved in organisational functioning, have shorter tenure and spend less time in the organisation, they are less likely to be exposed to unpleasant situations and to develop feelings of dissatisfaction with regard to interpersonal relationships (Eberhardt and Shani, 1984).

Moreover, this study explored the organisational commitment between full-time and part-time sales employees. Results revealed that these two groups of employees clearly differ on affective, continuance and normative commitment. The focus of our attention should be based on the fact that part-time employees, and especially women, are less likely to report that they *want to* and more likely to report that they *need* to remain in retail firms.

As was hypothesised, part-time workers compared to full-timers are less affectively committed to retail firms. Part-timer workers face low quality and routinised content of work; which in many instances they undertake outside of the normal working hours. Hence, if part-time employees perceive themselves to be treated differently from full-time employees in terms of structural characteristics, then psychological contract violations are more frequent and more intense. Therefore, not surprisingly, this study confirmed that part-timers are less likely to report that they *want to* remain in retail firms. As a practical implication, 'enlightened' employers should not discriminate between part-time and full-time workers over the content and quality of work. If organisations ensure that part timers do not undertake the

unfavourable tasks, are equally treated, and not seen as inferior and ‘second-class’, then it is likely to reduce any differences on attitudes by work status.

In addition, findings indicated that part-timers compared to full-timers develop greater continuance commitment to retail organisations. These results can be explained on the basis of both the side-bet theory and the lack of alternatives. Greek Law 2639/1998 established that part-timers have priority in filling full-time openings that occur in their occupational category. Based on this norm and taking into account the steady regime of high unemployment in Greece, we suggest that part-time work may be regarded by some employees as an open path to an imminent full-time arrangement. Hence, for part-timers the loss of their job may be viewed as the loss of a valuable opportunity to improve their employment status.

What is also noteworthy is how clearly women part-timers exhibit a greater *need to* remain in their current employer. Again, the unfavourable employment conditions can justify this trend. In particular, the high unemployment rate of females, which is more than twice the unemployment rate of males, stresses the low-skilled, low-compensated female employees, who are aware of the limited alternatives and feel trapped in part-time arrangements. Because of the minimal negotiating power of women and the feminisation of part-time employment, policy makers should introduce measures to ensure that female part-timers are not treated as undemanding or easily manipulated and exploited workers.

Additionally, in this study, the distinction between voluntary and involuntary part-timers provided no significant differences on continuance commitment. One interpretation of this result may be that indeed both groups of employees feel the

same strong *need to* remain in the current employer. However, each group may have different reasons. For instance, involuntary part-timers report great continuance commitment because of the lack of available full-time jobs, while voluntary part-timers because of the limited availability of flexible work options.

With regard to normative commitment, as was expected, employees who desire, and indeed are given, the option to work part-time develop greater commitment. Specifically, it is suggested that caretakers and voluntary employees consider part-time arrangements as an additional benefit that provides them the opportunity to achieve better work-life balance. Hence, these two subgroups of part-timers, compared to full-timers, feel *obligated to* their employer. As a human resource management practice, retail firms should consider introducing flexible work policies with the aim of increasing the level of normative commitment of employees. In addition, these results contribute to our understanding of flexible work options benefits. In addition to enhancing productivity (Lee, 1991) and reducing individual stress levels (Thomas and Ganster, 1995), the current study revealed that flexible work options appear to create a feeling of obligation to reciprocate for employees with family responsibilities or other life pursuits.

Moreover, apart from identifying the level of job attitudes, this study explored factors that increase job satisfaction and affective commitment by work status. Initially, it is found that demographic characteristics provide significant evidence regarding the variation in job satisfaction and affective commitment. Specifically, findings indicated that the subgroup of part-timers who are most likely to report greater job satisfaction and affective commitment is women with a basic educational

level and great length of tenure. Likewise, for full-time employees, the level of job satisfaction and commitment decreases as educational qualifications increase. It is proposed that this segment of employees feels overqualified and disappointed about not making the best of their higher educational qualifications. Moreover, in accordance with previous research, the results of the survey suggest that the level of job satisfaction and affective commitment increases when people are employed voluntarily on a part-time basis.

As a practical implication, and in line with the implications suggested in the previous section with regard to motivation, these findings provide employers indications regarding who would likely be a satisfied and committed part-time worker in the retail sector. Recruiters could use these indications to screen candidates at the early stages of the search process and to pinpoint suitable candidates for the available part-time posts. An abundance of skilled labour force, as the result of the high unemployment rates, should not result in involuntary part-time employment and involuntary out-of-field employment. Voluntary part-time workers, who are not stressed by unemployment and the lack of alternative employment options, appear more satisfied with their jobs. When employees are satisfied, job performance increases, while absenteeism, tardiness and turnover decrease.

Furthermore, in this study we adopted two additional methods for identifying determinants of general job satisfaction and affective commitment. In the first one, as described by Ferratt (1981), each facet of job satisfaction was treated as an independent variable. For the second method, the expectations for rewards that should be received and perceptions of actual rewards received were estimated and used as

independent variables (Lawler, 1973). These two models provided different, but not contradictory, findings. The results suggest that job attitudes of full-time and part-time employees are predicted by different determinants.

A close examination of the findings indicates that positive job attitudes of full-time employees, as was expected, are related to the level of compensation as well as to promotion opportunities they receive. However, the most interesting finding is that full-time employees give significant importance to an established friendly climate among co-workers and supervisors. It is noteworthy that for full-time employees, who spend more than 40 hours per week in the organisation, the level of both job satisfaction and affective commitment increase when they feel satisfied with their supervisors and co-worker relationships, as well as when they experience the extrinsic rewards of respect and friendliness from their co-workers.

In contrast, part-time employees develop greater job satisfaction and affective commitment when they feel satisfied with the level of job security in their job as well as when they receive rewards that provide promotion opportunities and a 'stepping stone' for better job positions. In particular, retail part-time employees exhibit positive job attitudes when their job is not a dead-end job, but instead when employers provide opportunities for enhancing knowledge, skills, and abilities as well as, opportunities for developing a career path.

As an implication, and in accordance with the implications suggested in the previous section with regard to motivation, these findings suggest that human resource practitioners can increase the level of job satisfaction and affective commitment of both the full-time and part-time retail employees by introducing a

flexible reward system. For full-time salespeople, employers should provide incentive plans, such as commissions or bonuses, they should provide opportunities for promotion, they should stress the development of a congenial working environment that promotes friendliness and mutual respect among co-workers. Providing opportunities for formal and informal interactions among employees might include social activities, in-house competitions and after work recreational activities as possible ways to foster a friendly environment and to create a 'team' atmosphere. In addition, opportunities for participative decision making would demonstrate respect from co-workers and also contribute to the congeniality of the work environment.

For part-time employees, retail firms should design in-house career development programs, and, apparently, human resource managers should not overlook part-timers for promotion. Within this field, career development systems should include the provision of education and training programs, such as seminars and workshops, as well as coaching and mentoring programs. The aim of the career guidance would be to enhance skills, and knowledge and to build the sense of job security. In addition, performance evaluation systems could be implemented in which performance and productivity are linked to educational opportunities, job security and career development. Employees should be informed of these linkages and should have a clear understanding about what part of their performance is appraised and how it is it measured.

7.2 Making the Big Step Towards Work Flexibility in the Primary Labour Market

The second fundamental purpose of this thesis was to explore labour flexibility in the primary labour market. We sought to answer the question of how employees perceive flexible work arrangements in higher-grade, higher-status, better-paid and secure jobs in public-sector employment, the large corporations, and the highly unionised industries. The results outlined suggest that employees' perceptions towards flexible work options are more complex and multi-faceted than prior research might suggest.

Specifically, workplace flexibility is a 'gendered' issue. It is found that women, compared to men, perceive more benefits and fewer costs with regard to the use of flexible work arrangements. Women are more likely to believe that flexible work arrangements have a positive impact on work-life balance and on the recruiting, retention, productivity and morale of employees. On the other hand, men expressed greater concern with regard to the implementation and use of flexible work arrangements. Men, under the stress of the breadwinner role, are not only concerned with administrative barriers and equity issues, but also with the career costs, such as the loss of pay, slow career progression and negative interpersonal relationships.

Men and women should both be expected to be actively involved in breadwinning and childcare roles. If flexible work arrangements are also widely used by men, then it is more likely to reduce the stigma parenthood now has on women's employment opportunities (Haas, 2003). One way of achieving this goal is by making

flexible work arrangements a universal right of both mothers and fathers. Nevertheless, it should be ensured that flexible work arrangements offer job protection, full benefits and a substantial amount of pay among others.

Moreover, the findings suggest that employees who have participated in flexible work arrangements expressed fewer concerns with the costs and barriers with the use of flexibility in the workplace and stronger beliefs that these flexible options enable employees to balance work and life responsibilities.

As a practical implication, these findings suggest that employee-centred organisations should promote the benefits of flexible work arrangements to male employees and to those who do not have prior experience in work flexibility by conducting employment educational campaigns. In this way, employees who feel constrained from using workplace flexibility will be encouraged to overcome the barriers of taking up flexible work arrangements.

One of the most startling observations emerging from this investigation is that the employment sector has a strong impact on the attitudes of employees towards work flexibility. Even though employees in the private sector, compared to employees in the public sector, express a stronger belief that flexible work options are associated with organisational benefits, they also exhibit greater concerns about career costs and administrative barriers. These results can be explained by the different work culture. First, flexible work practices are more supportive for employees in the public sector, as they are implemented by a comprehensive institutional framework and warranted by the presence of trade unions. Second, public employees are on permanent employment contracts and are rewarded solely on

seniority and not on performance-based criteria. Hence, public employees seem to feel more protected when participating in flexible arrangements.

This implies that employee representatives and social policy makers should focus on enhancing the legal framework that encompasses the implementation of flexible work options in the private sector. The gap in the work culture between the private and the public sector, with regard to flexibility, should be gradually eliminated, and work flexibility should be welcomed by both employment sectors alike. In addition, nowadays, companies are engaged in a ‘talent war’ to ‘recruit and retain professional employees and managers with critical skills (Barnett and Hall, 2001; Hill et al., 2004). Hence, privately-owned companies should recognise that offering flexible work arrangements may be useful in the recruiting and retention of highly desired personnel.

Furthermore, apart from examining whether attitudes towards flexible work options are dependent on gender, employment sector and prior participation, we explored whether these attitudes can predict the participation in a flexible work arrangement. The results indicate that the strongest predictor of flexible work arrangement participation is the perception of achieving balance between work responsibilities and life commitments. Nevertheless, it is also found that both administrative barriers and career costs hinder the use of flexible work arrangements. Equity issues, evaluation barriers, the opinion of supervisors and co-workers, reduced income and slow career progression have a significant negative impact on the decision to participate in flexible practices.

With the aim of increasing the incidence of flexible work arrangements in Greece, it is suggested that a tripartite consultative body composed of members of the government, trade unions and employers' associations could play a supportive role. Step-by-step guidelines could be provided to employers of how to successfully implement flexible work practices. The purpose of these guidelines would be, on the one hand, to assist organisations to promote flexibility in their workplace by informing employees, especially men, of the benefits of flexibility, while, on the other hand, they should provide solutions to how to alleviate the barriers that discourage employees from participating in flexible work arrangements.

In a similar vein, organisations that view flexibility as a valuable management tool should deal with the barriers that discourage people from taking up flexible work arrangements. Therefore, if Greek organisations are to succeed in attracting and retaining the quality of staff needed, to ensure high performance standards in the provision and delivery of products and services, management should accept the diversity that exists within its workforce and take a more proactive approach to promoting a variety of family-friendly policies and flexible working practices. Principles of how flexibility could be applied creatively should be developed and the value of labour flexibility should be part of the corporate culture. Additionally, careful consideration of performance evaluation systems is needed to assure that they are based on the measurable results delivered rather than on the subjective view of the manager. Human resource policies that legitimate and regulate flexible arrangements may fail to achieve their goals if they are not supported and encouraged by managers and if they do not enable to incorporate 'flex-employees' into workgroups. Managers

may need to be creative in developing alternative ways of integrating ‘flex-employees’ into workgroups (informal-formal meetings, social activities, after-work activities, dinners), with the aim of being perceived by co-workers as legitimate members of the organisations.

8. Limitations and Future Research

As in all studies there are limitations that represent opportunities for future research. One limitation is that, although the overall sample size in both analyses (secondary and primary labour market) is large, inevitable some of the created clusters consisted of relatively few participants (part-time male employees, part-time voluntary / involuntary employees, part-timers with and without care responsibilities, employees with prior participation in flexible work arrangements). Therefore, conclusions must be drawn with precaution. While the exploration of flexible work options and especially that of part-time work in the secondary labour market is a controversial issue characterised by low response rates, future research should be based upon larger cluster sizes.

A related concern is that the geographical coverage of the sample is relatively small; hence, results might not generalise to other samples. In particular, a sample of organisations was conveniently chosen from the northern part of Greece. Further extensive research, using larger nation-wide samples, is needed in order to yield more reliable results.

Additionally, in this analysis we used only quantitative data. Future research should utilise a combination of quantitative and qualitative data. Specifically, with the aim of gaining a complete understanding of the motivation and job attitudes of retail employees, further qualitative research is needed to explore both employees' and employers' opinions. Qualitative data would allow us to explore in more detail whether employers actually treat and reward full-timers and part-timers differently.

Furthermore, qualitative data would reveal whether employees hold different points of view and frames of reference. Workers compare their input-output ratio to a comparison other, and, if they perceive a difference (i.e. under-reward), this is predicted to lead to dissatisfaction (Thorsteinson, 2003). An important question is: “*full-time and part-time employees use different frames of reference?*”. It should be made clear whether full-timers compare their situation with that of other full-time employees, and whether part-timers use other part-time employees as a frame of reference.

Moreover, qualitative data would allow us to explore important factors in making flexible work arrangements successful or unsuccessful in the primary labour market. An exploratory study using face-to-face interviews with employers, managers and supervisors would capture the challenges and difficulties, as well as the costs and the benefits associated with flexible work options from the organisation’s point of view.

It is important to note that this study focused on a limited set of job attitudes. In addition to job satisfaction and organisational commitment, other constructs might be addressed. In order to gain a comprehensive picture of the attitudinal differences between part-time and full-time employees in the retail sector, future research should expand this study to include a number of job attitude constructs, such as job involvement, work centrality and intent to leave.

The findings with regard to the job attitudes of employees were based on low level jobs of the retail sector. Also, attention needs to be given to different occupational sectors and to a variety of job positions. Research work in different

occupational sectors will enhance our understanding of how job attitudes are affected by dissimilar working conditions and quality of work. Cross-sectoral comparisons will certainly provide a holistic view of job attitudes by work status and will trace the influence of micro-dynamics.

Finally, cross-country studies should be conducted to trace the influence of macro-dynamics and to investigate the possible influence of cultural factors on employees' attitudes. Likewise, cross-country studies would reveal how flexible work arrangements are perceived in other cultures and contexts. Various cultures may view the gender role and work arrangements differently. For instance, in different cultures, men might feel it more or less legitimate to express a preference for a reduced work-week. Accordingly, women may be more or less reluctant to express a preference for full-time work while holding family caregiving responsibilities (Charron, and Lowe, 2005; Fagan, 2001).

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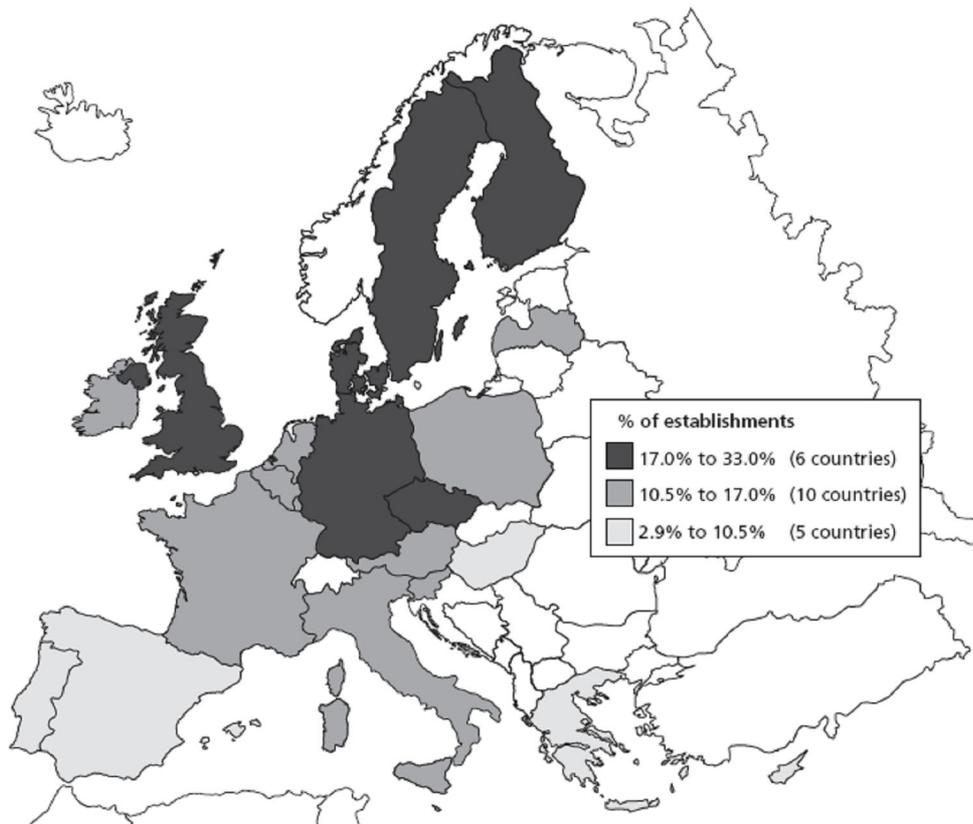
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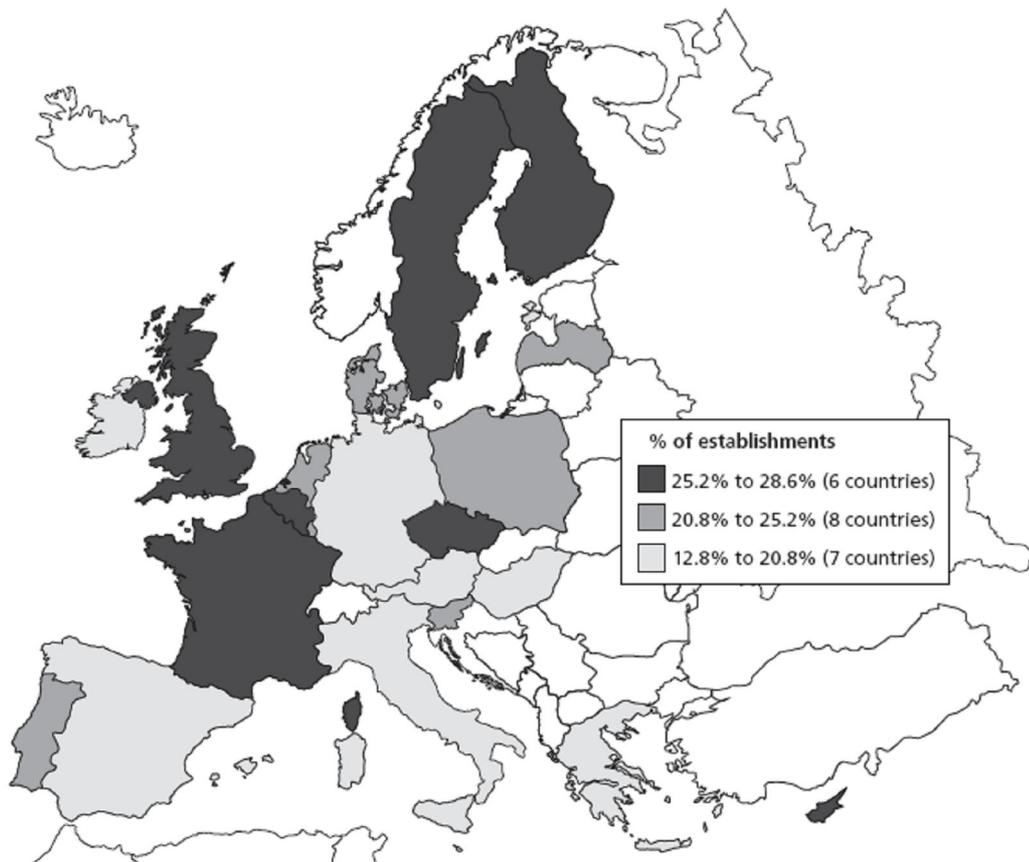
Appendix I: Company Flexibility Across Europe

FIGURE I.1 Distribution of Company Flexibility Types Across Europe: High Working Time Flexibility, Worker Oriented (%)



Source: Chung et al. 2007; ESWT 2004-2005

FIGURE I.2 Distribution of Company Flexibility Types Across Europe: High Working Time Flexibility, Company Oriented (%)



Source: Chung et al. 2007; ESWT 2004-2005

Appendix II: Part-time in European Countries by Gender

TABLE II.1 Part-time Employment (% of total employment) by Country and Sex for the 3rd Quarter of 2008

	Total	Men	Women
EU-27	17.9	7.7	30.5
EU-15	19.3	7.4	34.4
EU-13	19.4	7.4	34.4
Belgium	22.2	7.9	39.8
Bulgaria	2.4	2.1	2.7
Czech Republic	4.8	2.2	8.3
Denmark	24.2	13.8	36.0
Germany	25.7	9.3	45.2
Estonia	6.9	3.1	10.7
Ireland	-	-	-
Greece	5.4	2.7	9.7
Spain	11.4	4.1	21.5
France	16.3	5.5	28.6
Italy	14.1	5.2	27.6
Cyprus	7.5	4.6	11.2
Latvia	6.0	4.0	8.1
Lithuania	6.5	4.2	8.8
Luxembourg	18.7	2.5	40.7
Hungary	4.7	3.6	6.1
Malta	11.8	4.1	26.9
Netherlands	47.0	23.4	75.0
Austria	22.8	7.8	40.7
Poland	8.3	5.7	11.5
Portugal	11.9	7.4	17.1
Romania	10.8	9.7	12.1
Slovenia	8.7	6.4	11.5
Slovakia	3.2	2.0	4.6
Finland	12.0	7.8	16.5
Sweden	22.5	12.5	40.0
United Kingdom	25.1	11.3	41.4
Croatia	-	-	-
Turkey	8.5	4.8	18.4
Iceland	-	-	-
Norway	27.4	14.1	42.1
EEA-30	18.0	7.8	30.7
Switzerland	-	-	-

Source: Eurostat, EU LFS

Appendix III: Motivation of Part-time
Employees in the
Secondary Labour Market

TABLE III. 1 Characteristics of the Total Sample

Variable	Coding	Full-time (n = 275)		Part-time (n = 213)		Total (N = 488)	
		Count (%)	Mean (SD)	Count (%)	Mean (SD)	Count (%)	Mean (SD)
1. Gender	<i>Female = 0</i>	186 (67.6)	.32 (.46)	163 (76.5)	.23 (.42)	349 (71.5)	.28 (.45)
	<i>Male = 1</i>	89 (32.4)		50 (23.5)		139 (28.5)	
2. Age	<i>18-24 = 0</i>	58 (21.1)	.79 (.41)	55 (25.8)	.74 (.44)	113 (23.2)	.77 (.42)
	<i>25 and over = 1</i>	217 (78.9)		158 (74.2)		375 (76.8)	
3. Education	<i>At most high school diploma = 0</i>	196 (71.3)	.29 (.45)	144 (67.6)	.32 (.47)	340 (69.7)	.30 (.46)
	<i>Bachelor's degree or higher = 1</i>	79 (28.7)		69 (32.4)		148 (30.3)	
4. Care for dependents	<i>No = 0</i>	152 (55.3)	.45 (.50)	106 (49.8)	.50 (.50)	258 (52.9)	.47 (.50)
	<i>Yes = 1</i>	123 (44.7)		107 (50.2)		230 (47.1)	
5. Experience with unemployment	<i>No = 0</i>	167 (60.7)	.39 (.49)	61 (28.6)	.71 (.45)	228 (46.7)	.53 (.50)
	<i>Yes = 1</i>	108 (39.3)		152 (71.4)		260 (53.3)	
6. Number of current jobs	<i>Two or more regular jobs for pay = 0</i>	31 (11.3)	.89 (.31)	26 (12.2)	.88 (.33)	57 (11.7)	.88 (.32)
	<i>This is the only regular job = 1</i>	244 (88.7)		187 (87.8)		431 (88.3)	
7. Tenure	<i>Discrete variable measured in months</i>	-	43.78 (42.36)	-	22.56 (12.87)	-	34.52 (34.53)
8. Number of job changes	<i>Discrete variable</i>	-	1.08 (1.65)	-	2.64 (1.68)	-	1.76 (1.83)

TABLE III. 2 Sample Characteristics of Female Employees

Variable	Coding	Full-time (n = 186)		Part-time (n = 163)		Total (N = 349)	
		Count (%)	Mean (SD)	Count (%)	Mean (SD)	Count (%)	Mean (SD)
1. Age	<i>18-24 = 0</i>	43 (23.1)	.77 (.42)	31 (19.0)	.81 (.39)	74 (21.2)	.79 (.41)
	<i>25 and over = 1</i>	143 (76.9)		132 (81.0)		275 (78.8)	
2. Education	<i>At most high school diploma = 0</i>	133 (71.5)	.29 (.45)	112 (68.7)	.31 (.47)	245 (70.2)	.30 (.46)
	<i>Bachelor's degree or higher = 1</i>	53 (28.5)		51 (31.3)		104 (29.8)	
3. Care for dependents	<i>No = 0</i>	92 (49.5)	.51 (.50)	60 (36.8)	.63 (.48)	152 (43.6)	.56 (.50)
	<i>Yes = 1</i>	94 (50.5)		103 (63.2)		197 (56.4)	
4. Experience with unemployment	<i>No = 0</i>	111 (59.7)	.40 (.49)	33 (20.2)	.80 (.40)	144 (41.3)	.59 (.49)
	<i>Yes = 1</i>	75 (40.3)		130 (79.8)		205 (58.7)	
5. Number of current jobs	<i>Two or more regular jobs for pay = 0</i>	16 (8.6)	.91 (.28)	20 (12.3)	.88 (.33)	36 (10.3)	.90 (.30)
	<i>This is the only regular job = 1</i>	170 (91.4)		143 (87.7)		313 (89.7)	
6. Tenure	<i>Discrete variable measured in months</i>	-	45.50 (42.27)	-	25.96 (12.60)	-	36.37 (33.46)
7. Number of job changes	<i>Discrete variable</i>	-	.97 (1.63)	-	3.07 (1.55)	-	1.95 (1.90)

TABLE III. 3 Sample Characteristics of Male Employees

Variable	Coding	Full-time (n = 89)		Part-time (n = 50)		Total (N = 139)	
		Count (%)	Mean (SD)	Count (%)	Mean (SD)	Count (%)	Mean (SD)
1. Age	<i>18-24 = 0</i>	15 (16.9)	.83 (.37)	24 (48.0)	.52 (.50)	39 (28.1)	.71 (.45)
	<i>25 and over = 1</i>	74 (83.1)		26 (52.0)		100 (71.9)	
2. Education	<i>At most high school diploma = 0</i>	63 (70.8)	.29 (.45)	32 (64.0)	.36 (.48)	95 (68.3)	.31 (.46)
	<i>Bachelor's degree or higher = 1</i>	26 (29.2)		18 (36.0)		44 (31.7)	
3. Care for dependents	<i>No = 0</i>	60 (67.4)	.32 (.47)	46 (92.0)	.08 (.27)	106 (76.3)	.23 (.42)
	<i>Yes = 1</i>	29 (32.6)		4 (8.0)		33 (23.7)	
4. Experience with unemployment	<i>No = 0</i>	56 (62.9)	.37 (.48)	28 (56.0)	.44 (.50)	84 (60.4)	.39 (.49)
	<i>Yes = 1</i>	33 (37.1)		22 (44.0)		55 (39.6)	
5. Number of current jobs	<i>Two or more regular jobs for pay = 0</i>	15 (16.9)	.83 (.37)	6 (12.0)	.88 (.32)	21 (15.1)	.84 (.35)
	<i>This is the only regular job = 1</i>	74 (83.1)		44 (88.0)		118 (84.9)	
6. Tenure	<i>Discrete variable measured in months</i>	-	40.19 (42.54)	-	11.48 (5.34)	-	29.86 (36.81)
7. Number of job changes	<i>Discrete variable</i>	-	1.30 (1.65)	-	1.24 (1.27)	-	1.28 (1.52)

TABLE III. 4 Interview Structure for Work Motivators

Importance <i>How important is...?</i>	Expectations <i>How likely is it that each of these things would happen if you performed your job especially well?</i>
1. The amount of pay you get. 2. The chances you have to do something that makes you feel good about yourself as a person. 3. The opportunity to develop your skills and abilities. 4. The amount of job security you have. 5. The chances you have to learn new things. 6. Your chances for getting a promotion or getting a better job. 7. The chances you have to accomplish something worthwhile. 8. The amount of freedom you have on your job. 9. The respect you receive from the people you work with.. 10. The praise you get from your supervisor. 11. The friendliness of the people you work with.	1. You will get a bonus or pay increase. 2. You will feel better about yourself as a person. 3. You will have an opportunity to develop you skills and abilities. 4. You will have better job security. 5. You will be given chances to learn new things. 6. Your will be promoted or get a better job. 7. You will get a feeling that you have accomplished something worthwhile. 8. You will have more freedom on your job. 9. You will be respected by the people you work. 10. Your supervisor will praise you. 11. The people you work with will be friendly with you.

Adopted from Patricia Huddleston and Linda K. Good (1999). Job motivators in Russian and Polish retail firms. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 27(9), 383-392.

TABLE III. 5 ANOVAs of Demographic and Work-related Characteristics by Work Status for Total Sample

	Full-time mean (n=275)	Part-time Mean (n=213)	F statistic
Gender (female = 0, male = 1)	.32	.23	4.68*
Age (18-24 = 0, 25 and over = 1)	.79	.74	1.51
Educational level (At most high school diploma = 0, Bachelor's degree or higher =1)	.29	.32	.76
Care for dependents (No = 0, Yes =1)	.45	.50	1.46
Experience with unemployment (No = 0, Yes =1)	.39	.71	55.05***
Number of current jobs (Two or more regular jobs for pay = 0, This is the only regular job = 1)	.89	.88	.10
Tenure (in months)	43.78	22.56	49.89***
Number of job changes (discrete var.)	1.08	2.64	106.61***

Note: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

TABLE III. 6 ANOVAs of Demographic and Work-related Characteristics by Work Status for Female Employees

	Full-time mean (n=186)	Part-time Mean (n=163)	F statistic
Age (18-24 = 0, 25 and over = 1)	.77	.81	.87
Educational level (At most high school diploma = 0, Bachelor's degree or higher =1)	.29	.31	.32
Care for dependents (No = 0, Yes =1)	.51	.63	5.72*
Experience with unemployment (No = 0, Yes =1)	.40	.80	65.94***
Number of current jobs (Two or more regular jobs for pay = 0, This is the only regular job = 1)	.91	.88	1.26
Tenure (in months)	45.50	25.96	32.31***
Number of jobs changes (discrete var.)	.97	3.07	150.80***

Note: *p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

TABLE III. 7 MANCOVA Tests for the Effect of Work Status on the Importance of Motivators for Total Sample

	F	Significance	Partial η^2
Intercept	1572.563	.000	.973
Control variables			
<i>Gender</i>	2.373	.007	.052
<i>Experience with unemployment</i>	2.505	.005	.055
<i>Tenure</i>	1.364	.186	.031
<i>Number of job changes</i>	1.741	.062	.039
Work status (FT/PT)	5.031	.000	.105

TABLE III. 8 MANCOVA tests for the Effect of Work Status on the Importance of Motivators for Female Employees

	F	Significance	Partial η^2
Intercept	1166.49	.000	.98
Control variables			
<i>Care for dependents</i>	1.968	.031	.061
<i>Experience with unemployment</i>	1.356	.192	.043
<i>Tenure</i>	1.978	.030	.061
<i>Number of job changes</i>	1.987	.029	.062
Work status (FT/PT)	3.788	.000	.111

TABLE III. 9 MANCOVA Tests for the Effect of Work Status on the Expectations of Motivators for Total Sample

	F	Significance	Partial η^2
Intercept	58.903	.000	.579
Control variables			
<i>Gender</i>	1.322	.208	.030
<i>Experience with unemployment</i>	1.667	.078	.037
<i>Tenure</i>	4.896	.000	.102
<i>Number of job changes</i>	3.073	.001	.067
Work status (FT/PT)	10.604	.000	.198

TABLE III. 10 MANCOVA Tests for the Effect of Work status on the Expectations of Motivators for Female Employees

	F	Significance	Partial η^2
Intercept	38.456	.000	.560
Control variables			
<i>Care for dependents</i>	1.635	.087	.051
<i>Experience with unemployment</i>	.698	.741	.023
<i>Tenure</i>	2.322	.009	.071
<i>Number of job changes</i>	1.524	.121	.048
Work status (FT/PT)	6.891	.000	.185

TABLE III. 11 Multicollinearity in Regression Models

What is Multicollinearity;	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Multicollinearity is a high degree of correlation (linear dependency) among several independent variables. It commonly occurs when a large number of independent variables are incorporated in a regression model. When two variables are highly correlated, they are basically measuring the same phenomenon or construct. In other words, when two variables are highly correlated, they both convey essentially the same information.
Why is Multicollinearity a problem;	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Collinearity can increase estimates of parameter variance;▪ yield models in which no variable is statistically significant even though R^2y is large;▪ produce parameter estimates of the “incorrect sign” and of implausible magnitude;▪ create situations in which small changes in the data produce wide swings in parameter estimates; and,▪ in truly extreme cases, prevent the numerical solution of a model
Detecting Multicollinearity.	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) > 10,2. Tolerance values < .10,3. Correlation coefficients > .80

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TABLE III. 12 Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations for Total Sample

	Full-time mean	Full-time SD	Part-time mean	Part-time SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Gender (female = 0, male = 1)	.32	.46	.23	.42	-	.07	.01	-.17 ^b	-.03	-.12 ^a	-.06
2. Age (18-24 = 0, 25 and over = 1)	.79	.41	.74	.44	-.28 ^b	-	.09	.11	-.21 ^b	-.02	.32 ^c
3. Educational level (At most high school diploma = 0, Bachelor's degree or higher =1)	.29	.45	.32	.47	.04	-.21 ^b	-	-.20 ^b	.02	.00	-.07
4. Care for dependents (No = 0, Yes =1)	.45	.50	.50	.50	-.46 ^c	.25 ^c	-.19 ^b	-	-.12 ^a	.07	.25 ^c
5. Experience with unemployment (No = 0, Yes =1)	.39	.49	.71	.45	-.33 ^c	.29 ^c	-.31 ^c	.49 ^c	-	.05	-.48 ^c
6. Number of current jobs (Two or more regular jobs for pay = 0, This is the only regular job = 1)	.89	.31	.88	.33	.01	-.09	-.14 ^a	.14 ^a	.08	-	.05
7. Tenure (in months)	43.78	42.36	22.56	12.87	-.47 ^c	.27 ^c	-.01	.49 ^c	.30 ^c	.06	-
8. Number of job changes (discrete)	1.08	1.65	2.64	1.68	-.46 ^c	.22 ^b	-.20 ^b	.51 ^c	.51 ^c	.06	.48 ^c
Motivation gaps											
9. Pay	1.50	1.66	2.25	1.27	.47 ^c	-.34 ^c	.19 ^c	-.51 ^c	-.38 ^c	.01 ^c	-.38 ^c
10. Job security	1.17	1.41	1.44	1.25	.35 ^c	-.23 ^b	.31 ^c	-.50 ^c	-.42 ^c	-.11	-.24 ^b
11. Promotion	1.20	1.63	1.27	1.32	.45 ^c	-.25 ^c	.21 ^b	-.52 ^c	-.37 ^c	-.20 ^b	-.38 ^c
12. Respect of co-workers	1.13	1.43	1.23	1.15	.44 ^c	-.36 ^c	.18 ^c	-.39 ^c	-.41 ^c	-.11	-.22 ^b
13. Praise from supervisor	1.03	1.44	1.17	1.21	.34 ^c	-.31 ^c	.12	-.43 ^c	-.35 ^c	-.19 ^b	-.38 ^c
14. Friendliness of co-workers	1.09	1.40	1.41	1.16	.52 ^c	-.27 ^c	.14 ^a	-.53 ^c	-.40 ^c	-.21 ^b	-.30 ^c
15. Feel Good	.99	1.51	1.14	1.24	.37 ^c	-.26 ^c	.27 ^c	-.50 ^c	-.41 ^c	-.20 ^b	-.29 ^c
16. Skill development	1.13	1.39	1.17	1.29	.46 ^c	-.35 ^c	.14 ^c	-.46 ^c	-.41 ^c	-.06	-.31 ^c
17. Learn	1.08	1.52	1.13	1.12	.44 ^c	-.24 ^c	.21 ^b	-.44 ^c	-.40 ^c	-.23 ^c	-.26 ^c
18. Accomplishment	1.15	1.49	1.07	1.23	.53 ^c	-.38 ^c	.23 ^c	-.55 ^c	-.48 ^c	-.13	-.34 ^c
19. Freedom	1.25	1.60	1.24	1.16	.42 ^c	-.25 ^c	.29 ^c	-.45 ^c	-.43 ^c	-.23 ^c	-.21 ^c

TABLE III. 12 continued

	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. Gender (female = 0, male = 1)	.09	-.06	-.06	-.03	-.07	-.09	-.01	.02	-.05	-.04	-.06	-.10
2. Age (18-24 = 0, 25 and over = 1)	-.16 ^b	-.09	-.10	-.09	-.13 ^a	-.08	-.12	-.07	-.08	-.10	.01	-.09
3. Educational level (At most high school diploma = 0, Bachelor's degree or higher =1)	.12 ^a	.17 ^b	.38 ^c	.34 ^c	.38 ^c	.27 ^c	.31 ^c	.44 ^c	.27 ^c	.37 ^c	.40 ^c	.31 ^c
4. Care for dependents (No = 0, Yes =1)	-.27 ^c	-.01 ^c	-.05	-.02	-.06	.02	.01	-.11	.02	-.01	.03	.06
5. Experience with unemployment (No = 0, Yes =1)	.38 ^c	.14 ^c	.06	.06	.09	.06	.08	.11	-.02	.03	-.01	-.03
6. Number of current jobs (Two or more regular jobs for pay = 0, This is the only regular job = 1)	-.18 ^b	.01	.09	-.02	.07	.01	.05	.07	.06	.04	.04	.06
7. Tenure (in months)	-.43 ^c	-.25 ^c	-.09	-.13 ^a	-.13 ^a	-.11	-.13 ^a	-.20 ^b	-.08	-.08	-.073	-.11
8. Number of job changes (discrete)	-	.12 ^a	.06	.10	.13 ^a	.06	.13 ^a	.12	.01	.08	.03	.05
Motivation gaps												
9. Pay	-.53 ^c	-	.59 ^c	.62 ^c	.64 ^c	.59 ^c	.66 ^c	.66 ^c	.67 ^c	.62 ^c	.64 ^c	.62 ^c
10. Job security	-.56 ^c	.54 ^c	-	.65 ^c	.65 ^c	.59 ^c	.67 ^c	.68 ^c	.71 ^c	.68 ^c	.69 ^c	.65 ^c
11. Promotion	-.55 ^c	.70 ^c	.67 ^c	-	.70 ^c	.73 ^c	.71 ^c	.64 ^c	.65 ^c	.72 ^c	.73 ^c	.68 ^c
12. Respect of co-workers	-.39 ^c	.49 ^c	.55 ^c	.55 ^c	-	.68 ^c	.77 ^c	.66 ^c	.67 ^c	.68 ^c	.70 ^c	.71 ^c
13. Praise from supervisor	-.44 ^c	.56 ^c	.55 ^c	.71 ^c	.59 ^c	-	.71 ^c	.61 ^c	.69 ^c	.65 ^c	.72 ^c	.70 ^c
14. Friendliness of co-workers	-.53 ^c	.59 ^c	.65 ^c	.68 ^c	.59 ^c	.59 ^c	-	.64 ^c	.70 ^c	.70 ^c	.72 ^c	.75 ^c
15. Feel Good	-.49 ^c	.59 ^c	.72 ^c	.67 ^c	.53 ^c	.48 ^c	.66 ^c	-	.70 ^c	.72 ^c	.75 ^c	.68 ^c
16. Skill development	-.55 ^c	.67 ^c	.62 ^c	.72 ^c	.58 ^c	.59 ^c	.66 ^c	.66 ^c	-	.70 ^c	.76 ^c	.73 ^c
17. Learn	-.49 ^c	.58 ^c	.61 ^c	.75 ^c	.52 ^c	.55 ^c	.64 ^c	.61 ^c	.71 ^c	-	.74 ^c	.65 ^c
18. Accomplishment	-.58 ^c	.68 ^c	.71 ^c	.76 ^c	.66 ^c	.59 ^c	.75 ^c	.74 ^c	.74 ^c	.71 ^c	-	.74 ^c
19. Freedom	-.40	.54 ^c	.59 ^c	.67 ^c	.48 ^c	.48 ^c	.64 ^c	.69 ^c	.62 ^c	.66 ^c	.73 ^c	-

Note: Correlations for full-time employees are above the diagonal and correlations for part-time employees are below the diagonal.

a = $p \leq .05$; b = $p \leq .01$; c = $p \leq .001$

TABLE III. 13 Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations for Female Employees

	Full-time mean	Full-time SD	Part-time mean	Part-time SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age (18-24 = 0, 25 and over = 1)	.77	.42	.81	.39	-	.06	.07	-.23 ^b	.01	.34 ^c	-.13
2. Educational level (At most high school diploma = 0, Bachelor's degree or higher =1)	.29	.45	.31	.47	-.21 ^b	-	-.18 ^a	-.01	-.06	-.08	.11
3. Care for dependents (No = 0, Yes =1)	.51	.50	.63	.48	.21 ^b	-.23 ^b	-	-.09	.12	.25 ^c	-.23 ^b
4. Experience with unemployment (No = 0, Yes =1)	.40	.49	.80	.40	.15	-.29 ^c	.47 ^c	-	-.02	-.55 ^c	.42 ^c
5. Number of current jobs (Two or more regular jobs for pay = 0, This is the only regular job = 1)	.91	.28	.88	.33	.01	-.11	.22 ^b	.14	-	.06	-.22 ^b
6. Tenure (in months)	45.50	42.27	25.96	12.60	.18 ^a	.00	.38 ^c	.19 ^a	.085	-	-.42 ^c
7. Number of job changes (discrete)	.97	1.63	3.07	1.55	.06	-.22 ^b	.45 ^b	.52 ^c	.18 ^a	.35 ^c	-
Motivation gaps											
8. Pay	1.58	1.64	1.92	1.13	-.21 ^b	.24 ^b	-.46 ^c	-.31 ^c	-.11	-.22 ^b	-.33 ^c
9. Job security	1.22	1.47	1.19	1.18	-.23 ^c	.36 ^c	-.45 ^c	-.43 ^c	-.23 ^b	-.14	-.50 ^c
10. Promotion	1.24	1.67	.94	1.22	-.21 ^c	.25 ^c	-.48 ^c	-.35 ^c	-.26 ^c	-.24 ^b	-.39 ^c
11. Respect of co-workers	1.20	1.46	.95	.99	-.29 ^c	.22 ^b	-.30 ^c	-.33 ^c	-.21 ^b	-.04	-.23 ^b
12. Praise from supervisor	1.11	1.46	.94	1.18	-.26 ^c	.18 ^a	-.41 ^c	-.35 ^c	-.26 ^c	-.30 ^c	-.38 ^c
13. Friendliness of co-workers	1.19	1.43	1.07	1.01	-.21 ^b	.19 ^a	-.46 ^c	-.42 ^c	-.34 ^c	-.11	-.40 ^c
14. Feel Good	.98	1.51	.88	1.16	-.24 ^b	.33 ^c	-.45 ^c	-.44 ^c	-.28 ^c	-.18 ^a	-.37 ^c
15. Skill development	1.17	1.35	.83	1.13	-.25 ^c	.23 ^b	-.41 ^c	-.48 ^c	-.16 ^a	-.11	-.39 ^c
16. Learn	1.12	1.53	.85	1.02	-.15	.28 ^c	-.39 ^c	-.37 ^c	-.33 ^c	-.05	-.32 ^c
17. Accomplishment	1.22	1.39	.71	1.09	-.32 ^c	.32 ^c	-.47 ^c	-.47 ^c	-.26 ^c	-.15	-.43 ^c
18. Freedom	1.37	1.58	.97	1.09	-.19 ^a	.30 ^c	-.37 ^c	-.35 ^c	-.27 ^c	-.01	-.25 ^b

TABLE III. 13 continued

	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Age (18-24 = 0, 25 and over = 1)	-.07	-.12	-.13	-.13	-.13	-.14	-.10	-.10	-.16 ^a	-.06	-.16 ^a
2. Educational level (At most high school diploma = 0, Bachelor's degree or higher =1)	.18 ^a	.41 ^c	.41 ^c	.42 ^c	.31 ^b	.34 ^c	.45 ^c	.33 ^c	.43 ^c	.44 ^c	.40 ^c
3. Care for dependents (No = 0, Yes =1)	.03	-.03	.01	-.05	-.03	-.02	-.04	.02	.01	.03	.04
4. Experience with unemployment (No = 0, Yes = 1)	.22 ^b	.08	.08	.14	.10	.13	.16 ^a	.05	.08	.08	.05
5. Number of current jobs (Two or more regular jobs for pay = 0, This is the only regular job = 1)	.04	.01	-.03	.03	-.00	.02	.09	.11	.06	.08	.06
6. Tenure (in months)	-.31 ^c	-.14	-.16 ^a	-.17 ^a	-.15 ^a	-.19 ^b	-.19 ^a	-.11	-.15 ^a	-.14	-.14
7. Number of job changes (discrete)	.17 ^a	.13	.14	.18 ^a	.10	.22 ^b	.17 ^a	.03	.13	.13	.13
Motivation gaps											
8. Pay	-	.58 ^c	.61 ^c	.65 ^c	.60 ^b	.67 ^c	.67 ^c	.65 ^c	.62 ^c	.64 ^c	.63 ^c
9. Job security	.42 ^c	-	.64 ^c	.67 ^c	.60 ^c	.67 ^c	.70 ^c	.72 ^c	.70 ^c	.73 ^c	.68 ^c
10. Promotion	.67 ^c	.69 ^c	-	.70 ^c	.76 ^c	.72 ^c	.67 ^c	.67 ^c	.76 ^c	.74 ^c	.70 ^c
11. Respect of co-workers	.35 ^c	.50 ^c	.52 ^c	-	.73 ^c	.79 ^c	.70 ^c	.69 ^c	.73 ^c	.73 ^c	.75 ^c
12. Praise from supervisor	.54 ^c	.56 ^c	.71 ^c	.55 ^c	-	.74 ^c	.67 ^c	.69 ^c	.69 ^c	.73 ^c	.73 ^c
13. Friendliness of co-workers	.46 ^c	.61 ^c	.63 ^c	.59 ^c	.59 ^c	-	.66 ^c	.70 ^c	.72 ^c	.75 ^c	.79 ^c
14. Feel Good	.48 ^c	.71 ^c	.67 ^c	.51 ^c	.47 ^c	.62 ^c	-	.71 ^c	.74 ^c	.79 ^c	.76 ^c
15. Skill development	.55 ^c	.61 ^c	.70 ^c	.50 ^c	.56 ^c	.61 ^c	.65 ^c	-	.72 ^c	.76 ^c	.73 ^c
16. Learn	.47 ^c	.59 ^c	.71 ^c	.45 ^c	.49 ^c	.57 ^c	.57 ^c	.68 ^c	-	.76 ^c	.73 ^c
17. Accomplishment	.56 ^c	.70 ^c	.73 ^b	.62 ^c	.58 ^c	.68 ^c	.74 ^c	.69 ^c	.67 ^c	-	.78 ^c
18. Freedom	.45 ^c	.58 ^c	.61 ^c	.46 ^c	.47 ^c	.60 ^c	.72 ^c	.63 ^c	.61 ^c	.72 ^c	-

Note: Correlations for full-time employees are above the diagonal and correlations for part-time employees are below the diagonal.

a = $p \leq .05$; b = $p \leq .01$; c = $p \leq .001$

TABLE III. 14 Collinearity Diagnostics for Total Sample

	Full-time		Part-time	
	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
Step 1: Demographic characteristics				
<i>GENDER</i>	.962	1.040	.746	1.340
<i>AGE</i>	.966	1.035	.872	1.146
<i>EDUC</i>	.946	1.057	.927	1.079
<i>CARE</i>	.913	1.095	.743	1.346
Step 2: Demographic and work-related characteristics				
<i>GENDER</i>	.943	1.060	.647	1.545
<i>AGE</i>	.871	1.148	.819	1.221
<i>EDUC</i>	.935	1.069	.836	1.197
<i>CARE</i>	.854	1.171	.562	1.780
<i>UNEMPLOY</i>	.718	1.393	.617	1.619
<i>NJOBS</i>	.938	1.067	.939	1.064
<i>TENURE</i>	.643	1.556	.614	1.629
<i>CHJOBS</i>	.710	1.408	.563	1.777

Table III. 15 Collinearity Diagnostics for Female Employees

	Full-time		Part-time	
	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
Step 1: Demographic characteristics				
<i>AGE</i>	.989	1.011	.926	1.080
<i>EDUC</i>	.960	1.042	.921	1.086
<i>CARE</i>	.959	1.043	.920	1.087
Step 2: Demographic and work-related characteristics				
<i>AGE</i>	.873	1.145	.900	1.112
<i>EDUC</i>	.948	1.055	.857	1.168
<i>CARE</i>	.885	1.130	.632	1.581
<i>UNEMPLOY</i>	.642	1.557	.637	1.569
<i>NJOBS</i>	.941	1.062	.940	1.064
<i>TENURE</i>	.589	1.697	.782	1.279
<i>CHJOBS</i>	.715	1.398	.627	1.594

Appendix IV: Job Attitudes of Part-time
Employees in the Secondary
Labour Market

TABLE IV. 1 Studies Presenting Contradictory Findings with Regard to Job Satisfaction by Work Status

Part-time employees report greater job satisfaction compared to full-time employees	<p>Eberhardt, B.J. ,and Shani, A.B. (1984). The effects of full-time versus part-time employment status on attitudes toward specific organizational characteristics and overall job satisfaction. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i>, 27(4), 893-900.</p> <p>Jackofsky, E.F., and Peters, L.H. (1987). Part-time and full-time employment status differences: a replication and extension. <i>Journal of Occupational Behavior</i>, 8(1), 1-9.</p> <p>Wortuba, T.R. (1990). Full-time vs. part-time salespeople. A comparison on job satisfaction, performance, and turnover in direct selling. <i>International Journal of Research in Marketing</i>, 7(2), 97-108.</p> <p>Barker, K. (1993). Changing assumptions and contingent solutions: the costs and benefits of women working full- and part-time. <i>Sex Roles</i>, 28(1-2), 47–71.</p> <p>Fenton, O' Creevy M, (1995). Moderators of differences in job satisfaction between full-time and part-time female employees: A research note. <i>Human Resource Management Journal</i>, 5(5), 75-82.</p> <p>Sinclair, R.R., Martin, E.J., and Michel, R.P. (1999). Full-time and part-time subgroup differences in job attitudes and demographic characteristics. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>, 55(3), 337-357.</p> <p>Martin, J.E., and Sinclair R.R. (2007). A typology of the part-time workforce: differences on job attitudes and turnover. <i>Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology</i>, 80(2), 301-319.</p>
Part-time employees report smaller job satisfaction compared to full-time employees	<p>Hall, D.T., and Gordon, F.E. (1972). Career choices of married women: effects on conflict, role behavior and satisfaction. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>, 58(1), 42-48.</p> <p>Miller, H.E., and Terborg, J.R. (1979). Job attitudes of part-time and full-time employees. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i>, 64(4), 380-386.</p> <p>Shockey, L.M., and Mueller, W.C. (1994). At-entry differences in part-time and full-time employees. <i>Journal of Business and Psychology</i>, 8(3), 355-364.</p>

TABLE IV.1 continued

No significant difference on job satisfaction between part-time and full-time employees	<p>Logan, N., O'Reilly III, C.A. and Roberts, K.H. (1973). Job satisfaction among part-time and full-time employees. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>, 3(1), 33-41.</p> <p>McGinnis, S.K., and Morrow, P.C. (1990). Job attitudes among full and part-time employees. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>, 36(1), 82-96.</p> <p>Steffy, B.D. and Jones, J.W. (1990). Differences between full-time and part-time employees in perceived role strain and work satisfaction. <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i>, 11(4), 321-329.</p> <p>Morrow, P.C., McElroy, J.C., and Elliott, S.M. (1994). The effect of preference for work status, schedule, and shift on work-related attitudes. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>, 4, 202-222.</p> <p>Kalleberg, A.L. (1995). Part-time work and workers in the United States: correlates and policy issues. <i>Washington and Lee Law Review</i>, 52(3), 771-798.</p> <p>Krausz, M., Sagie, A. and Bidermann, Y. (2000). Actual and preferred work schedules and scheduling control as determinants of job-related attitudes. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>, 56 (1), pp. 1-11.</p> <p>Thorsteinson, J.T. (2003). Job attitudes of part-time vs. full-time workers: A meta-analytic review. <i>Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology</i>, 76(2), 151-177.</p> <p>Maynard, D., Thorsteinson, T.J. and Parfyonova, N.M. (2006). Reasons for working part-time. Subgroup differences in job attitudes and turnover intentions. <i>Career Development International</i>, 11(2), 145-162.</p>
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TABLE IV. 2 Studies Presenting Contradictory Findings with Regard to Organisational Commitment by Work Status

Part-time employees report greater commitment compared to full-time employees	<p>Martin, J.E., and Peterson, M.M. (1987). Two-tier wage structures: Implications for equity theory. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i>, 30, 297-315.</p> <p>Sinclair, R.R., Martin, E.J., and Michel, R.P. (1999). Full-time and part-time subgroup differences in job attitudes and demographic characteristics. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>, 55(3), 337-357.</p> <p>Jacobsen, D.I. (2000). Managing increased part-time: Does part-time work imply part-time commitment? <i>Managing Service Quality</i>, 10, 187-200.</p>
Part-time employees report smaller commitment compared to full-time employees	<p>Lee, T.W., and Johnson, D.R. (1991). The effects of work schedule and employment status on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time versus part-time employees. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>, 38, 208-224.</p> <p>Morrow, P.C., McElroy, J.C., and Elliott, S.M. (1994). The effect of preference for work status, schedule, and shift on work-related attitudes. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>, 45, 202-222.</p> <p>Martin, T.N. and Hafer, J.C. (1995). The multiplicative interaction effects of job involvement and organizational commitment on the turnover indications of full-time and part-time employees. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>, 46, 310-331.</p> <p>Marchese, M.C., and Ryan, J. (2001). Capitalizing on the benefits of utilizing part-time employees through job autonomy. <i>Journal of Business and Psychology</i>, 15, 549-560.</p>
No significant difference on organizational commitment between part-time and full-time employees	<p>McGinnis, S.K., and Morrow, P.C. (1990). Job attitudes among full and part-time employees. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>, 36, 82-96.</p> <p>Kalleberg, A.L. (1995). Part-time work and workers in the United States: Correlates and policy issues. <i>Washington and Lee Law Review</i>, 52, 771-798.</p> <p>Krausz, M., Sagie, A., and Bidermann, Y. (2000). Actual and preferred work schedules and scheduling control as determinants of job-related attitudes. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i>, 56, 1-11.</p>

TABLE IV.2 continued

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- Thorsteinson, J.T. (2003). Job attitudes of part-time vs. full-time workers: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 76(2), 151-177.
- Maynard, D., Thorsteinson, T.J., and Parfyonova, N.M. (2006). Reasons for working part-time. Subgroup differences in job attitudes and turnover intentions. *Career Development International*, 11(2), 145-162.
- Maynard, D., Todd, A.L., and Maynard, A. (2006). Underemployment, job attitudes, and turnover intentions. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 27(4), 509-536.
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TABLE IV. 3 Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations for Total Sample

	Full-time mean	Full-time SD	Part-time mean	Part-time SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender (female = 0, male = 1)	.32	.46	.23	.42	-	.07	.00	-.05	.01	.08	.14 ^a	-.03	.01
2. Age (18-24 = 0, 25 and over = 1)	.79	.41	.74	.44	-.28 ^c	-	.09	.31 ^c	.15 ^a	.08	.15 ^a	.060	.11 ^a
3. Educational level (At most high school diploma = 0, Bachelor's degree or higher =1)	.29	.45	.32	.47	.04	-.21 ^b	-	-.07	-.33 ^c	-.18 ^b	.10	-.31 ^c	-.31 ^c
4. Tenure (in months)	43.78	42.36	22.56	12.87	-.47 ^c	.27 ^c	-.01	-	.18 ^b	.20 ^b	.30 ^c	.19 ^b	.19 ^b
5. General satisfaction	5.62	1.30	5.39	1.39	-.48 ^c	.31 ^c	-.31 ^c	.34 ^c	-	.28 ^c	.17 ^b	.80 ^c	.77 ^c
6. Satisfaction with pay	3.47	1.17	2.75	.83	-.28 ^c	.12	-.06	.06	.43 ^c	-	.10	.32 ^c	.41 ^c
7. Satisfaction with job security	5.92	1.12	5.04	1.48	.56 ^c	.35 ^c	-.10	.57 ^c	.67 ^c	.44 ^c	-	.27 ^c	.13 ^a
8. Satisfaction with supervisors	5.72	1.17	5.73	.85	-.20 ^b	.09	.07	.20 ^b	.38 ^c	.28 ^c	.47 ^c	-	.67 ^c
9. Satisfaction with co-workers	5.43	.96	5.87	.80	-.15 ^a	.00	.11	.09	.28 ^c	.26 ^c	.30 ^c	.73 ^c	-
10. Satisfaction with promotion	5.60	.87	5.65	.85	-.43 ^c	.29 ^c	-.19 ^b	.26 ^c	.66 ^c	.19 ^b	.57 ^c	.28 ^c	.11
11. Affective commitment	5.52	1.17	5.46	1.44	-.45 ^c	.37 ^c	-.31 ^c	.41 ^c	.83 ^c	.30 ^c	.66 ^c	.30 ^c	.20 ^b
12. Employment status (Vol =1, Invol=0)	.52	.50	.41	.49	-.01	.05	-.15 ^a	.05	.22 ^c	.05	.12	.21 ^c	.27 ^c
Experience with job rewards													
13. Pay	1.50	1.66	2.25	1.27	.47 ^c	-.34 ^c	.19 ^b	-.38 ^c	-.67 ^c	-.16 ^a	-.50 ^c	-.05	-.05
14. Job security	1.17	1.41	1.44	1.25	.35 ^c	-.23 ^c	.31 ^c	-.24 ^c	-.65 ^c	-.37 ^c	-.39 ^c	-.10	-.05
15. Promotion	1.20	1.63	1.27	1.32	.45 ^c	-.25 ^c	.21 ^c	-.38 ^c	-.80 ^c	-.38 ^c	-.54 ^c	-.29 ^c	-.25 ^c
16. Respect of co-workers	1.13	1.43	1.23	1.15	.44 ^c	-.36 ^c	.18 ^b	-.22 ^c	-.60 ^c	-.39 ^c	-.44 ^c	-.15 ^a	-.04
17. Praise from supervisor	1.03	1.44	1.17	1.21	.34 ^c	-.31 ^c	.12	-.38 ^c	-.67 ^c	-.42 ^c	-.54 ^c	-.41 ^c	-.23 ^c
18. Friendliness of co-workers	1.09	1.40	1.41	1.16	.52 ^c	-.27 ^c	.14 ^a	-.30	-.71 ^c	-.45 ^c	-.51 ^c	-.26 ^c	-.21 ^c
19. Feel Good	.99	1.51	1.14	1.24	.37 ^c	-.26 ^c	.27 ^c	-.29 ^c	-.67 ^c	-.38 ^c	-.41 ^c	-.04	-.06
20. Skill development	1.13	1.39	1.17	1.29	.46 ^c	-.35 ^c	.14 ^a	-.31 ^c	-.70 ^c	-.34 ^c	-.49 ^c	-.20 ^b	-.19 ^b
21. Learn	1.08	1.52	1.13	1.12	.44 ^c	-.24 ^c	.21 ^c	-.26 ^c	-.73 ^c	-.45 ^c	-.48 ^c	-.22 ^c	-.24 ^c
22. Accomplishment	1.15	1.49	1.07	1.23	.53 ^c	-.38 ^c	.23 ^c	-.34 ^c	-.78 ^c	-.44 ^c	-.51 ^c	-.15 ^a	-.16 ^a
23. Freedom	1.25	1.60	1.24	1.16	.22 ^c	-.25 ^c	.29 ^c	-.21 ^c	-.68 ^c	-.36 ^c	-.37 ^c	-.15 ^a	-.21 ^c

TABLE IV.3 continued

	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
1. Gender (female = 0, male = 1)	-.01	-.04	-.00	-.06	-.06	-.02	-.07	-.08	-.09	.01	-.04	-.03	-.06	-.10
2. Age (18-24 = 0, 25 and over = 1)	.08	.17 ^b	-.11	-.08	-.10	-.08	-.12 ^a	-.07	-.11	-.07	-.07	-.10	.00	-.08
3. Educational level (At most high school diploma = 0, Bachelor's degree or higher =1)	-.22 ^c	-.27 ^c	.04	.17 ^b	.38 ^c	.39 ^c	.37 ^c	.26 ^c	.30 ^c	.43 ^c	.27 ^c	.37 ^c	.40 ^c	.30 ^c
4. Tenure (in months)	.08	.15 ^a	-.00	-.24 ^c	-.09	-.13 ^a	-.13 ^a	-.10	-.13 ^a	-.19 ^c	-.08	-.08	-.07	-.10
5. General satisfaction	.81 ^c	.86 ^c	.11	-.73 ^c	-.65 ^c	-.69 ^c	-.72 ^c	-.62 ^c	-.73 ^c	-.64 ^c	-.67 ^c	-.62 ^c	-.63 ^c	-.66 ^c
6. Satisfaction with pay	.22 ^c	.24 ^c	.11	-.33 ^c	-.39 ^c	-.33	-.25 ^c	-.27 ^c	-.23 ^c	-.37 ^c	-.33 ^c	-.32 ^c	-.33 ^c	-.32 ^c
7. Satisfaction with job security	.24 ^c	.06	.14 ^a	-.10	.06	.07	.00	.00	-.03	.02	.00	.11	.10	.04
8. Satisfaction with supervisors	.73 ^c	.68 ^c	.26 ^c	-.56 ^c	-.49 ^c	-.59 ^c	-.55 ^c	-.51 ^c	-.57 ^c	-.51 ^c	-.51 ^c	-.46 ^c	-.53 ^c	-.51 ^c
9. Satisfaction with co-workers	.68 ^c	.72 ^c	.12 ^a	-.69 ^c	-.66 ^c	-.62 ^c	-.62 ^c	-.60 ^c	-.62 ^c	-.62 ^c	-.68 ^c	-.55 ^c	-.64 ^c	-.62 ^c
10. Satisfaction with promotion	-	.72 ^c	.13 ^a	-.55 ^c	-.43 ^c	-.48 ^c	-.51 ^c	-.45 ^c	-.50 ^c	-.43 ^c	-.46 ^c	-.43 ^c	-.42 ^c	-.44 ^c
11. Affective commitment	.62 ^c	-	.04	-.68 ^c	-.62 ^c	-.63 ^c	-.71 ^c	-.63 ^c	-.71 ^c	-.61 ^c	-.69 ^c	-.60 ^c	-.64 ^c	-.66 ^c
12. Employment status (Vol =1, Invol=0)	.31 ^c	.28 ^c	-	-.11	-.04	-.04	.00	-.06	-.08	-.02	-.00	.00	-.02	-.06
Experience with job rewards														
13. Pay	.51 ^c	-.63 ^c	-.11 ^c	-	.59 ^c	.61 ^c	.63 ^c	.59 ^c	.66 ^c	.66 ^c	.67 ^c	.62 ^c	.64 ^c	.62 ^c
14. Job security	-.38 ^c	-.66 ^c	.00	.54 ^c	-	.65 ^c	.65 ^c	.59 ^c	.67 ^c	.68 ^c	.71 ^c	.68 ^c	.69 ^c	.65 ^c
15. Promotion	-.52 ^c	-.73 ^c	-.10	.70 ^c	.67 ^c	-	.70 ^c	.73 ^c	.71 ^c	.64 ^c	.65 ^c	.72 ^c	.73 ^c	.68 ^c
16. Respect of co-workers	-.45 ^c	-.56 ^c	-.13	.49 ^c	.55 ^c	.55 ^c	-	.68 ^c	.77 ^c	.66 ^c	.67 ^c	.68 ^c	.70 ^c	.71 ^c
17. Praise from supervisor	-.42 ^c	-.62 ^c	-.20 ^c	.56 ^c	.55 ^c	.71 ^c	.59 ^c	-	.71 ^c	.61 ^c	.69 ^c	.65 ^c	.72 ^c	.70 ^c
18. Friendliness of co-workers	-.41 ^c	-.69 ^c	-.12 ^c	.59 ^c	.65 ^c	.68 ^c	.59 ^c	.59 ^c	-	.64 ^c	.70 ^c	.70 ^c	.72 ^c	.75 ^c
19. Feel Good	-.31 ^c	-.67 ^c	-.04	.59 ^c	.72 ^c	.67 ^c	.53 ^c	.48 ^c	.66 ^c	-	.70 ^c	.72 ^c	.75 ^c	.68 ^c
20. Skill development	-.40 ^c	-.68 ^c	-.03	.67 ^c	.62 ^c	.72 ^c	.58 ^c	.59 ^c	.66 ^c	.66 ^c	-	.70 ^c	.76 ^c	.73 ^c
21. Learn	-.36 ^c	-.66 ^c	-.09 ^c	.58 ^c	.61 ^c	.75 ^c	.52 ^c	.55 ^c	.64 ^c	.61 ^c	.71 ^c	-	.74 ^c	.65 ^c
22. Accomplishment	-.49 ^c	-.73 ^c	-.08	.68 ^c	.71 ^c	.76 ^c	.66 ^c	.59 ^c	.75 ^c	.74 ^c	.74 ^c	.71 ^c	-	.74 ^c
23. Freedom	-.34 ^c	-.62 ^c	-.12	.54 ^c	.59 ^c	.67 ^c	.48 ^c	.48 ^c	.64 ^c	.69 ^c	.62 ^c	.66 ^c	.73 ^c	-

Note: Correlations for full-time employees are above the diagonal and correlations for part-time employees are below the diagonal.

a = $p \leq .05$; b = $p \leq .01$; c = $p \leq .001$

TABLE IV. 4 Collinearity Diagnostics for Model 1

	Full-time		Part-time	
Model 1				
Demographics and employment status	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
Step 1: Demographic characteristics				
<i>Gender</i>	.987	1.013	.748	1.337
<i>Age</i>	.880	1.137	.854	1.171
<i>Educational level</i>	.980	1.020	.953	1.049
<i>Tenure</i>	.884	1.131	.747	1.338
Step 2: Demographic and employment status				
<i>Gender</i>	.987	1.013	.748	1.338
<i>Age</i>	.865	1.156	.854	1.171
<i>Educational level</i>	.977	1.024	.933	1.072
<i>Tenure</i>	.883	1.133	.745	1.343
<i>Employment status (Vol./Invol.)</i>	.982	1.019	.973	1.028

TABLE IV. 5 Collinearity Diagnostics for Model 2

Model 2	Full-time		Part-time	
	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
Demographics and facets of satisfaction				
Step 1: Demographic characteristics				
<i>Gender</i>	.987	1.013	.748	1.337
<i>Age</i>	.880	1.137	.854	1.171
<i>Educational level</i>	.980	1.020	.953	1.049
<i>Tenure</i>	.884	1.131	.747	1.338
Step 2: Demographic and facet-specific satisfactions				
<i>Gender</i>	.941	1.062	.598	1.671
<i>Age</i>	.866	1.155	.815	1.227
<i>Educational level</i>	.823	1.215	.905	1.105
<i>Tenure</i>	.765	1.307	.565	1.769
<i>Satisfaction with pay</i>	.786	1.272	.710	1.408
<i>Satisfaction with job security</i>	.769	1.301	.314	3.189
<i>Satisfaction with supervisors</i>	.365	2.739	.378	2.645
<i>Satisfaction with co-workers</i>	.408	2.449	.439	2.280
<i>Satisfaction with promotion</i>	.373	2.683	.600	1.667

TABLE IV. 6 Collinearity Diagnostics for Model 3

Model 3	Full-time		Part-time	
	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
Demographics and job rewards				
Step 1: Demographic characteristics				
<i>Gender</i>	.987	1.013	.748	1.337
<i>Age</i>	.880	1.137	.854	1.171
<i>Educational level</i>	.980	1.020	.953	1.049
<i>Tenure</i>	.884	1.131	.747	1.338
Step 2: Demographic and experience with job rewards				
<i>Gender</i>	.950	1.053	.538	1.859
<i>Age</i>	.825	1.212	.731	1.368
<i>Educational level</i>	.672	1.487	.805	1.242
<i>Tenure</i>	.796	1.257	.653	1.532
<i>Pay</i>	.380	2.630	.405	2.468
<i>Job security</i>	.365	2.737	.358	2.793
<i>Promotion</i>	.300	3.329	.215	4.643
<i>Respect of co-workers</i>	.306	3.267	.449	2.229
<i>Praise from supervisor</i>	.328	3.048	.382	2.617
<i>Friendliness of co-workers</i>	.267	3.739	.338	2.962
<i>Feel Good</i>	.292	3.429	.315	3.175
<i>Skill development</i>	.278	3.594	.308	3.248
<i>Learn</i>	.306	3.270	.336	2.975
<i>Accomplishment</i>	.234	4.265	.199	5.033
<i>Freedom</i>	.293	3.415	.362	2.762

Appendix V: Perceptions and Predictors of
Flexible Work Options in the
Primary Labour Market

TABLE V. 1 Characteristics of the Total Sample

Variable	Coding Total	N = 362	Count (%)	Mean (SD)
1. Gender	<i>Female = 0</i>		198 (54.7)	.45 (.50)
	<i>Male = 1</i>		164 (45.3)	
2. Age	<i>18-24 = 1</i>		4 (1.1)	3.38 (1.06)
	<i>25-34 = 2</i>		87 (24.0)	
	<i>35-44 = 3</i>		99 (27.3)	
	<i>45-54 = 4</i>		110 (30.4)	
	<i>54-64 = 5</i>		62 (17.1)	
3. Education	<i>At most high school diploma = 0</i>		57 (15.7)	.84 (.36)
	<i>Bachelor's degree or higher = 1</i>		305 (84.3)	
4. Care for dependents	<i>No = 0</i>		144 (39.8)	.60 (.49)
	<i>Yes = 1</i>		218 (60.2)	
5. Participation in flexible work options	<i>No = 0</i>		240 (66.3)	.33 (.47)
	<i>Yes = 1</i>		122 (33.7)	

Appendix VI: Short Description of
Statistical Methods

TABLE VI. 1 Short Description of the Statistical Methods

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)	In an analysis of variance a researcher uses linear model to facilitate a comparison of means (Rencher and Scaalje, 2008).
Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA)	Analysis of covariance is sometimes described as a blend of ANOVA and regression. In addition to the dependent variable (y), there may be one or more quantitative variables that can also be measured on each experiment unit in an ANOVA situation. If it appears that these extra variables may affect the outcome of the experiment, they can be included in the models as independent variables (x 's) and are then known as covariates (Rencher and Scaalje, 2008).
Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)	While ANOVA evaluates mean differences on a single dependent criterion variables, MANOVA evaluates mean differences on two or more dependent criterion variables simultaneously (controlling for the intercorrelations among them) (Bray and Maxwell, 1993).
Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA)	MANCOVA is similar to MANOVA, but interval independents may be added as 'covariates'. These covariates serve as control variables for the independent factors, serving to reduce the error term in the model. Like other control procedures, MANCOVA can be seen as a form of 'what if' analysis, asking what would happen if all cases scored equally on the covariates, so that the effect of the factors over and beyond the covariates can be isolated (Garson, 2008a).
Hierarchical multiple regression analysis	Hierarchical multiple regression (not to be confused with hierarchical linear models) is similar to stepwise regression, but the researcher, not the computer, determines the order of entry of the variables. F-tests are used to compute the significance of each added variable (or set of variables) to the explanation reflected in R-square. This hierarchical procedure is an alternative to comparing betas for purposes of assessing the importance of the independents. In more complex forms of hierarchical regression, the model may involve a series of intermediate variables which are dependents with respect to some other independents, but are themselves independents with

respect to the ultimate dependent (Garson, 2008b).

Logistic Regression analysis

In some regression situations, the response variable (y) has only two possible outcomes. For example, high blood pressure or low blood pressure. In such cases, the outcome y can be coded as 0 and 1 and we wish to predict the outcome (or the probability) of the outcome (Rencher and Scaalje, 2008). The illustrated model in which (y) is binary takes the form (Rencher and Scaalje, 2008):

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \varepsilon_i; \quad y_i = 0, 1; \quad i=1,2,\dots,n$$

Factor Analysis – Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Factor analysis is used to uncover the latent structure (dimensions) of a set of variables. It reduces attribute space from a larger number of variables to a smaller number of factors and as such is a "non-dependent" procedure (that is, it does not assume a dependent variable is specified).

There are different methods of extracting the factors from a set of data. By far the most common form of factor analysis is Principal components analysis (PCA). PCA seeks a linear combination of variables such that the maximum variance is extracted from the variables. It then removes this variance and seeks a second linear combination which explains the maximum proportion of the remaining variance, and so on. This is called the principal axis method and results in orthogonal (uncorrelated) factors. PCA analyzes total (common and unique) variance (Garson, 2008c).

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