School of Management

Employee and Leader Values in Public Sector and Entrepreneurial Settings: How Values Impact Employee Choices

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Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made.

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

Signature: …………………………………………….

Date: …19th November, 2018

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Acknowledgements

The process of undertaking a PhD is a lengthy and difficult one and not something that can be done without support and guidance. There are many people who I would like to thank.

My journey initially began in 2001 at the University of South Australia, where I was very fortunate to be awarded a scholarship and the opportunity to be supervised by Associate Professor Mike Metcalfe. Mike was an inspiring mentor who was both very knowledgeable and engaging.

However just as I was getting engrossed in my research, my life took a sudden and unexpected turn. I met my husband-to-be John. We were married within six months of meeting and had three beautiful children within as many years. Needless to say, any thoughts of continuing with my PhD were put on hold as I focussed on raising my children and enjoying every moment of my time with them.

While I thanked Mike for his support and apologised for my failure at the time, it would be negligent of me not to thank him again here. I learned much in my time under Mike's guidance for which I am very grateful. Perhaps most importantly I learned to choose a topic that I was madly, passionate about that would motivate me through the long years ahead.

So, when my youngest child reached four the idea of returning to university to continue my PhD crossed my mind however, I knew from my initial attempt that the commitment required was substantial and that I needed a topic that would need to be all inspiring if I was going to be able to fully commit to it.

The problem was my original topic was no longer interesting to me and I just couldn't find anything that I felt passionate about. So instead I undertook a Bachelor of Education always with the belief that when the time was right and when I found 'the topic' I would continue on my PhD journey.

It took me another six years to find a topic that I felt mattered and that I felt I could commit my energy and time to. It was a topic I don't think I would have found had I not made the decision to become a teacher. It is here that I would like to thank my teaching colleagues – too many to mention individually- who strive each day to motivate their students to be the best they can be. This requires both tenacity and creativity because not every student is the same and yet they need to follow the same rules.

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in his feedback even when it has been difficult for me to hear. Without his love and

patience, I know I would have given up long ago only to be now regretting it.

Dedication

For my family

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Abbreviations

ANOVA – Analysis of Variance.

APS – the Australian Public Service.

APSC – the Australian Public Service Commission.

ASA - Attraction-Selection-Attrition Model

AWRS - the Australian Workplace Relations Survey.

FWA – Fair Work Australia.

HPWS – High Performance Work Systems.

HR/HRM – Human Resources/Human Resource Management

IT – Information Technology

LEED - Linked Employer Employee Dataset

MoG -Machinery of Government

PFP - Pay for Performance.

P-O Fit – Person – Organisation Fit

SD - Standard Deviation

SE – Standard Error

SPSS – Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

Watch your thoughts, for they will become actions. Watch your actions, for they'll become habits. Watch your habits for they will forge your character. Watch your character, for it will make your destiny.

Margaret Thatcher, 1925-2013.

Abstract

Employee values are an important source of variation in and among workers and workplaces, although they are often ignored. In this dissertation I analyse the literature relating to employee values and the related attitudes and behaviours they lead to. Using a set of studies that utilise OLS regressions with second-order (moderation) effects, I find that values feature prominently in the choices that employees make in their workplaces.

I have used publicly available microdata from Australia to undertake these analyses. These include a large dataset of employee attitudes gathered among Australia's federal public service (n=99,392) and also a representative survey of all Australian workers(n=5,038).

In my first study, undertaken within a sample of Australian public servants, I find that employment attachment and anticipated future tenure are both influenced by how subordinate employees see their leaders' values espoused and enacted.

In my second study I find that workers opting for 'gig' roles (roles based on temporary contracts) tend to have a set of preferences relating to the work itself and also job security. Where job security is a primary consideration for the employees, this tends to reduce (crowd out) the positive influence a preference for the work itself provides in predicting gig job choice.

In my final study I analyse a range of workers in the Australian health and community care sector. I note that as workers age their preference for both job security and job 'say' feature more prominently in predicting overall job satisfaction.

This set of studies provide evidence that studies of employee choices and attitudes should always include, where possible, the addition of data on individual values and preferences. Without such data, analyses can provide only a partial understanding of why employees feel and act as they do.

Objectives and Structure of this Dissertation

Humans are motivated by various incentives and self-perceived wants and needs, with different people having a different preference for some combinations of these (Deckers, 2015). These unique preference bundles reflect individual human values. This dissertation seeks to examine and extend our knowledge of values in the human resource management and managerial literatures with a view to extending our understanding of how people behave based on what their beliefs and values are.

1.1 Human Values at Work

A literal interpretation of human values relates to two ideas. First individuals place a different level of regard, importance or worth on one thing or outcome over another (often, although not necessarily *alternative* or *competing*) thing or outcome. Another literal interpretation of human values relates to sets of principles or standards of behaviour employed by individuals (Rokeach, 1973).

Values are both innate and contextually-influenced (Gorddard, Colloff, Wise, Ware & Dunlop, 2016). Values are related to, though not the same as, beliefs, and beliefs on matters of importance are both inherited and developed internally (Fonagy, 2018). Individuals hold values which guide behaviours. These behaviours are socially acceptable or not, and the feedback between person and context, and their respective values, decisions and behaviours, provides a tight and dynamic process of recurrent feedback. These feedback loops are themselves dynamic, and values emerge over time.

Thinking of these notions of competing preferences for things or outcomes, and principles of how to live and behave, an interesting albeit not obvious question is to consider how these vary between people across place, social structure, and time (Elder, 1994). The values we hold often seem logical to ourselves, and thus any other values may seem odd. However, research and evidence suggest that the values held within and between social groups, and over time, are diverse, dynamic and complex (Milliken & Martins, 1996; Stahl & Tung, 2015).

An interesting illustrative example comes from history. In the famous words of the United States' Declaration of Independence (from their colonial masters in Britain), then President Thomas Jefferson stated:

> *We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness.*

Yet, history showed that these 'truths' were neither self-evident nor shared. In 1776 they were not shared by Britain and some "four score and seven" (87) years later (in the famous words of the then President, Abraham Lincoln), it was these very *self-evident* propositions, and their consequent implications for Southern slave-based economy, that sent the United States into a calamitous civil war (Mauldin, 2017).

Further, even in 1776, the author of these words "all men are created equal", Thomas Jefferson, was a noted slave owner at his expansive plantation *Monticello* (Baptist, 2016). For Jefferson slavery was part of the economic and social fabric of the American south. He saw no conflict in speaking the words above while holding slaves in his home.

We could further note the lack of inclusive gender language which, at the time, was the accepted norm. The privileging of collective nouns referring to males as the appropriate collective noun to apply to all people is a longstanding practice in western civilisation. Today the phrase "all men are created equal" would likely be noted and questioned. Language and expression, as a means of communicating social norms and standards, is in ever moving form. All of this points to the notion that values are fluid and dynamic, complex and rarely seen objectively by their holders.

Thus values, regardless of how self-evident they appear to the holder, are rarely (indeed never) shared by all. This has always been true, and today it continues to confound our notions of how social organisations should function, especially when these notions are based on an expectation that all stakeholders value the same things and will be motivated by the same stimuli or rewards.

More modern examples, more relevant to this research, come to mind. For example, in the workplace, employees are rewarded with extrinsic rewards and intrinsic rewards and it is generally the case that some employees will place a high value on certain forms of rewards, while others will not (Amundson, 2007; Choi et al., 2013; Olafsen, Halvari, Forest & Deci, 2015).

There is much research that suggests that the rewards valued by employees today are different from those of the past (Wiley, 2017). This presents some challenges as reward systems are generally universally applied, and yet organisations hold diverse memberships from young and old, domestic and foreign, nascent and departing.

This relates to an underlying, and indeed universal, challenge for organisations. Policies and procedures are generally designed for universal application within organisations, but the manner in which they impact the variety of employees in an

organisation differs greatly due to the heterogeneity of employee preferences or values (Parker, Van den Broeck and Holman, 2017). Specifically, in reference to the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards example mentioned above, some organisational workers love their work and are desirous of income simply to keep the 'home fires burning'. On the other hand, quite a few employees loath their work and attend simply to meet those basic human needs that an income can provide (Sagiv and Schwartz, 2007).

Integrating various measures of values into models of HRM-related outcomes is, thus, an important challenge. Given this importance, it is worth noting that often the values of individual employees are ignored in empirical models examining employment choices and outcomes (Cameron, Quinn, DeGraff & Thakor, 2014). An implication of this is that much empirical research in the human resource management literature considers an organisation's employees to share common values and differ only by other measurable traits like age, gender and education. Attributing this shared value set to all employees is problematic if it is not true – and much research is emerging to suggest that it is not true (Cecere, Mancinelli & Mazzanti, 2014; Papavasileiou & Lyons, 2015).

Values can relate to many human preferences – from a preference to individualism to collectivism, to a preference for excitement over stability. Not all values should be seen as exclusive, or at opposite ends of some spectrum or continuum. Extrinsic and intrinsic rewards preference provide a case in point. Some employees for example seek both extrinsic or monetary rewards and intrinsic or social rewards, while others seek only financial rewards from their work lives – finding their needs for social support and encouragement met elsewhere (Rice, Fieger, Rice, Martin & Knox, 2017).

From their meta-analysis Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) concluded that in order to better understand and manage employee behaviour, it is essential to consider both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. While it is true that no empirical research can adequately capture all predictive variables in understanding human choices and behaviour, the absence of individual values in much human resource management research can be seen as a significant "blind spot" in the literature.

Understanding the complexity of motivational and values heterogeneity is an important challenge for researchers. The goal of this PhD is to extend and deepen knowledge at the intersection of employees' values and employees' occupation-related choices. In this research I seek in some small way to redress this paucity of research on values preferences of employees.

Values reside within individuals and can also be exhibited by organisations as a whole (Connor & Becker, 1979). Indeed, much thought is given to the presentation of organisational mission and vision statements by strategy research to communicate and encourage a shared set of culture-related behaviour and values by organisational employees (Kopaneva & Sias, 2015).

At the level of individual employees, we see much heterogeneity in many organisations. The overarching research question that this research will seek to explore is whether human resource models that include both organizational (O) level and individual (I) level measures are better at predicting employee outcomes than models that assume individual (I) homogeneity.

Through the presentation of a set of three related studies I aim to develop improved understanding of how attitudes guide behaviour and demonstrate the implications of

considering these individual human elements as a prerequisite for creating and maintaining successful individual and organisational outcomes.

Rokeach's seminal definition of values is as follows "Values are stabilized beliefs about personally or socially acceptable behaviour or end states of conduct" (Rokeach, 1973). This definition is helpful for the purposes of this research. It notes and clarifies both the internal and contextual nature of values, and the interplay between these levels (Lefkowitz, 2017).

Values are both innate and internal to individuals and shared by and influenced by groups. These values, in turn, guide conduct and behaviour in as much as these are constrained and supported by collective expectations of what is and is not acceptable.

There is often a complex and nuanced path dependent chain of thinking that links values and behavior. Williams (1979) notes the process by which values guide judgements on situations, which in turn constrains choice sets and in turn again influences behavioural choices. While not linear in the relational path between these constructs and elements, strong causality is seen to exist between values and final behaviours.

Organisations both influence the values of their stakeholders and employees and are influenced by their own members and contexts. Significant research has been undertaken exploring the notion of organizational value systems (Williams, 1979) and how these impact both organizational decision making (Tompos & Ablonczy-Mihályka, 2014) and the decisions and behaviours of those within the organisations (Heggen, 2018).

It is generally seen as an unsustainable situation when an organization and one of its members is in stark values disagreement on an issue of mutual importance and of strategic or operational consequence (Maltarich, Kukenberger, Reilly & Mathieu, 2018). Some congruence of values between person and context is desirable for ongoing organizational membership by individuals (Verquer, Beehr & Wagner, 2003).

This values congruence has been operationalized as person-organisation (P-O) fit (Gennamo and Gardner, 2008). In a prior related definition, Kristof (1996) termed this notion "the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs or (b) they share fundamental characteristics or (c) both".

Kristof (1996, p.1) has defined and operationalized the notion of P-O fit as "the compatibility between people and the organizations in which they work." P-O fit thus focuses on the pairing of relevant characteristics of people and their employing organisations with a focus on the desirable consequences of congruence, and on the other hand problems with discordance and conflict between these characteristics.

In an important early meta-analysis of the person-organization fit (P-O fit) literature, Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner (2003) noted that P-O fit had been shown to predict a variety of behavioral and career outcomes, including intention to quit (Jung & Yoon, 2013; Price, 2001), job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Bui, Zeng and Higgs, 2017; Duffy, Autin & Bott, 2015; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson, 2005).

Second-order moderating and mediating effects between P-O fit and workforce outcomes have also been explored in this paper by Verquer et al. (2003) and others

(Biswas and Bhatnagar, 2013; Alfes, Shantz, Truss & Soane, 2013). Values congruence, for example, was found to moderate the relationship between P-O fit and attitudinal outcomes like satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit (Arthur, Bell, Villado & Doverspike, 2006).

Values congruence, explored in this dissertation, has been shown to be an important predictor and element of P-O fit. Other forms of congruence also feature in the literature (goals congruence, for example, and opportunistic demand-abilities alignments) (Kim, Aryee, Loi & Kim, 2013; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005; Resick, Baltes, & Shantz, 2007).

The attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework (Schneider, Goldstein & Smith, 1995) notes a processual model of attraction, alignment/conflict and possible separation where goals and values congruence act as a catalyst for persistence or separation. ASA suggests attraction is initialized where individual goals can be actualized in the employment relationship. This goal attainment then solidifies performance and value creation, solidifying the employment relationship (Bigliardi, Petroni & Dormio, 2005).

Munchinksy & Monahan (1987) note the pull and push elements of these dyadic arrangements. Employee needs can drive a push factor towards employment while demand requirements at the organisational level can drive organisations to seek and to seek to retain employees (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Rothbard, 2001).

Kristof (1996) developed a typological classification of P-O fit that notes the means and manner by which person and organisation relationships can align. The developed categories are seen to include subjective or perceived fit and objective fit. Here subjective or perceived fit is seen to be interpreted through the eyes of stakeholders

with only partial or incomplete information. Further, such perceived or subjective fit tends not to focus on or employ clear measurable objectives (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Chatman, 1991).

As such, persons may appear to fit organisations and their requirements, although this may not be objectively true. Regardless, the focus of these definitions tends to reside on discrepancies and incongruences or disparities between organisations and people.

Perceived fit is a key construct employed in this dissertation. A novel focus of my later studies is the perceptions held by subordinate employees of their own, and the senior managers' values.

Objective fit is the final typological classification developed by Kristof (1996). She noted in such an arrangement, persons are asked to consider their own attitudinal or other characteristics, and these are then aligned with and compared to objectively assessed organisational characteristics. Where congruence is noted and achieved in these separated measures, objective fit is seen to be achieved.

P-O fit has been shown to predict a number of positive (and negative) organisational and attitudinal outcomes (Kahn, 1990). Quit intentions are often shown (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Valentine & Godkin, 2017; Verquer *et al.* 2003). A general and generally intuitive finding is that P-O fit linearly reduces intention to quit and also moderates the intention to quit in the presence of otherwise negative stimuli being experienced in the mind of the employee.

Other empirical research suggests P-O fit is a significant predictor of job and role performance, positive organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and reduced

turnover (intended and actual). These findings are, again, intuitive. There is a sense where P-O fit is being observed that the context serves as a buffer against otherwise problematic issues that may force employees to seek roles elsewhere (Boon & Byron, 2016).

This PhD aims to deepen our understanding of how individual values impact or alter the way organisational human resource strategies, policies and systems influence key organisational choices of employees. Additionally, it aims to combine both exploratory and confirmatory elements to develop new insights in relation to why employees make the choices they do at work and how these choices may impact their wellbeing with the aim of improving outcomes for both organisations and individuals.

1.2 Structure of the Dissertation

The dissertation is arranged as follows.

The next proceeding section (entitled *Introduction*) provides an introductory background to the research. In this section, the broad field of study is reviewed and a focus on the specific issues to be assessed is then presented. The themes of the empirical studies' foci are first introduced in this section, providing the theoretical context for the later discussions.

Following the *Introduction* section, a justification for the research (entitled *Research Issues*) is presented. Here a focus on the contextual environments within which the research has been conducted is provided, with the theoretical and practical gaps that the research is responding to being clarified. The studies in the thesis have a shared

focus on employee values, and a discussion of the relevant literature in this field is provided here. Further reviews are conducted in relation to dependent variables utilised in the research, including a critical analysis of the literature on employee turnover (intentions) and job satisfaction.

Following the *Research Issues* section, an overview of the over-arching and specific methodologies employed in the dissertation is then presented. This section covers sources of data, justification and description of the methodological process employed in the later-presented studies.

This section, entitled *Methodology*, seeks to discuss important issues relating to the research process employed with a justification of the positivist approach adopted in the studies. A discussion of important ethical issues is also presented at this stage (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985).

Following the *Methodology* section, the three studies that form the central empirical, theoretical and practical contribution of the dissertation are presented. This section is entitled *Data Analysis and Presentation*. These studies are complementary in their focus on the impact of employee values on key outcomes – including turnover intention and job satisfaction. The studies adopt various datasets covering differing but complementary work contexts and employee communities.

The final section of the dissertation is entitled *Conclusions and Implications*. This section clarifies the theoretical, empirical and practical contribution of the dissertation. In it I discuss the limitations that should be seen as part of the research and also the implications for future research that I observe from my knowledge of the field that has emerged from these related studies.

Overall, the dissertation seeks to present a set of complementary yet independent studies that explore the importance of the integration of individual values and attitudes in models that seek to explore why employees feel and act the way they do.

2. Introduction

In this section I provide an introductory background to the research presented in this dissertation. My intention is to introduce the broad field of study of employee values and their impact on employee choices and decisions. The themes of the empirical studies' foci are first introduced in this section, providing the theoretical context for the later discussions.

2.1 Background

The focus on the human side of employees dates to early work by Australian academic Elton Mayo (Scott & Davis, 2015), if not before. Mayo's study of the Western Electric Company's Hawthorne Plant marked a departure from the emergent 'scientific' paradigm of the age, championed by Taylor and Ford, which treated employees as akin to automatons (Merrett, 2006).

Mayo somewhat unintentionally (via the adjustment of lighting and the concomitant presence of researchers in workplaces) found that addressing the human element of employees' work lives had profound impacts on their satisfaction and work efforts (O'Neill, 2017). Such insights provided the basis for the human relations school.

The human relation school is concerned with the manner in which human variance in attitudes and behaviour should form a key element in the design of jobs and organisations. This school of thought is now the dominant conceptual paradigm of organisational behaviour and human resource management.

In a small way, my PhD builds on this human relations approach. A shared element of each of the studies presented here is the notion that attitudes guide behaviour. As such it is important to consider the human elements of employees as a prerequisite for achieving successful organisational outcomes.

Below, I provide a brief overview of the literature that informs each of the three studies in this doctoral dissertation.

2.2 Human Values and Decision Choices

Schwartz's (1992) noted that values are "abstract and important goals people strive to achieve in life". These goals lead to desirable outcomes or end states sought by people. These values guide both the choices of behaviours and the evaluation of related outcomes. He has developed a validated theory and typology of human values that is widely cited. His value types are seen to reflect distinct motivational goals (e.g., Schwartz, 2009, 2011).

The values model is hierarchically arranged into a higher order pairing of dimensions – first openness to change (which is in turn comprised of self-direction and stimulation) versus conservation (which derives from a preference for security, conformity, and tradition).

Openness to change relates to a desire to see personal independence, autonomy, novelty. Those who value an openness to change prefer independence in thoughts and action; originality and creativity and excitement and novelty in events. On the polar opposite of this preference lies conservatism. Those with a conservatism preference prefer meeting the expectations of others (individuals and collectives).

Humans also share a preference for self-transcendence (a preference for universalism and benevolence) versus personal self-enhancement (power and achievement values). Those who value self enhancement seek to control people and resources (including power) and also seek social status within their social milieu. Self-transcendent preferers, on the other hand, have a preference for social appreciation, a tolerance of others and a preference for protecting those around them.

Values guide decisions and thus behaviours in a variety of ways (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). Values induce a motivation to form goals and plans (Gollwitzer, 1999) which in turn are precursors to decisions and actions. Strongly valuing certain outcomes will lead to actions to support that outcome.

The counter factual tends to cause stress among individuals who, other things being equal, prefer alignment or valence between their values and their actions and behaviours (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Feather 1995). In a recent major review of the values literature, with a focus on how it applies to workplaces, Schwartz (2016) proposed a set of testable relationships between the values held by individuals and the impact these values had on behaviour. Noted for his work on national cultures and cultures across large and definable groups, Schwartz in this paper turned his attention to the variance of values at the individual level.

This focal change, from stereotyping values to noting values diversity follows a marked change in the manner in which values are seen in the academic literature. While cultures are seen as important elements in predicting values held by members, they are far from a perfect predictor of such values in any context.

Schwartz (2016) notes that values relate to and reside within individuals, with different people holding varying values, and giving these values varying degrees of

importance. This is important in the context of his, and fellow values specialist Geert Hofstede's (2003), work. In eschewing, or at least moving away from, national and cultural stereotypes in the discussion of values, he acknowledges the complexity and diversity of values at the individual level, emphasising the importance of this arena as an opportunity for further research.

Table 1: Schwartz Ten Basic Values

10 Basic Values	Definitions of 10 Basic Values
Self-Direction	Independent thought and action—choosing, creating, and exploring (freedom, creativity, independent, choosing my own goals, curiosity)
Stimulation	Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life (exciting life, varied life, daring)
Hedonism	Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself (pleasure, enjoying life, self-indulgent)
Achievement	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards (ambitious, capable, influential, successful)
Power	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources (social power, wealth, authority)
Security	Safety, harmony and stability of society, relationships, and self (social order, national security, family security, reciprocation of favors, clean)

Conformity	The restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses that are likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms (politeness, self-discipline, respect for elders, obedient)
Tradition	Respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provides (respect for tradition, modest, humble, accepting my portion in life, devout)
Benevolence	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact (loyal, responsible, honest, helpful, forgiving)
Universalism	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance and protection for the welfare of all people and of nature (equality, unity with nature, wisdom, world of peace, world of beauty, social justice, broadminded, protecting the environment)

Source: Cieciuch, Davidov, Vecchione, Beierlein & Schwartz (2014).

The table above (Table 1) provides some examples of basic human values (adapted from Cieciuch, Davidov, Vecchione, Beierlein & Schwartz, 2014) and some of the outcome and behavioural preferences that these values are associated with. While nationality and cultural identity are still held to be important factors for consideration when investigating why individuals form and retain certain values, these background factors are increasingly seen as far from decisive.

This observation denotes the importance of within and between group analysis – for example is it helpful to note that Japanese have a higher tradition preference than Danes in anticipating organisational behavioural choices in complex and diverse organisational settings in Japan and Denmark which may be employing workers who are young and old, national and expatriate, carers and those with no such responsibilities?

Figure 1: The Content and Structure of Human Values.
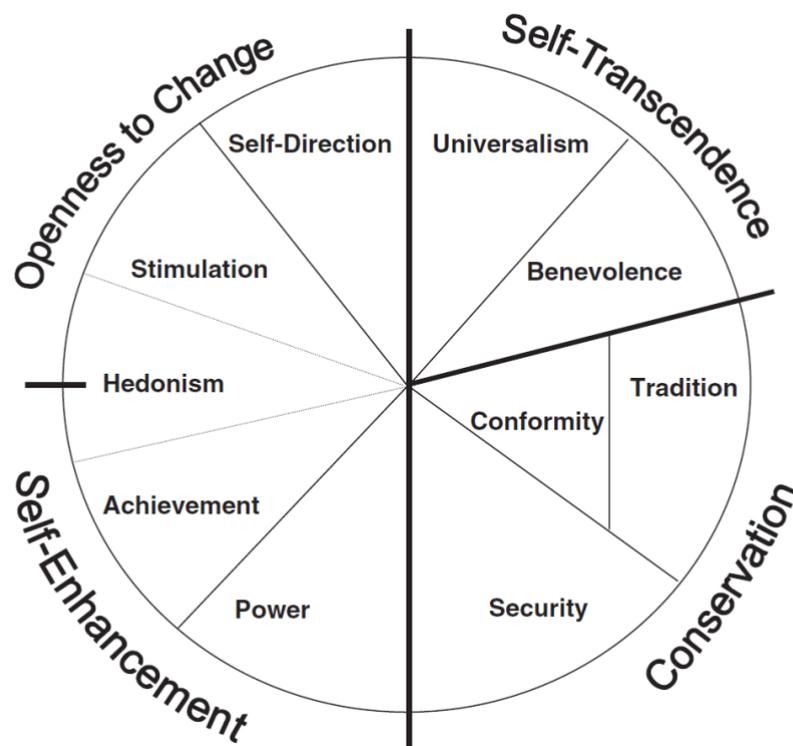
From Davidov, Schmidt, and Schwartz, p.425.

Figure 1 seeks to provide a visual representation of these values with an additional focus on some of the polarities that may be associated with particular values. Benevolence and achievement, for example, may be seen as two ends of a continuum between a generous approach to others and one that focuses on the personal capture of rewards from benefits.

Readers close to the literature on values will of course note that the idea that individuals differ in what they value is not new. Perhaps the most explored values pairing relates to the intrinsic and extrinsic values of people (Ryan and Deci, 2000). In many respects these literatures are complementary – values are seen as both innate and contextually determined/influenced, and these values, once formed, clearly guide decisional assessments and hence actions. It is this latter link that is the focus of this portfolio – an investigation of how the espoused values of people guide important choices in work situations.

Schwartz (2016) provides a useful assessment of how values, both directly and indirectly, guide behavioural choices and eventual actions. He suggests, that the values literature presents six important elements in relation to the way values influence behaviour.

First, he notes that values become evident and activated when they are either threatened or supported. He notes that for individuals valuing independence, a threat to this independence can arouse significant negative feelings (Biel & Thøgersen, 2007; Schwartz, 2012).

Such a notion might suggest that the impact of values and decisions is quite often not activated, and only when dissonance between values and observed situational factors is experienced do values become evident in human decisions (Cable & Judge, 1996;

Downes *et al*., 2017). This echoes the literature on concordance or fit between individuals and their social or organisational roles (Arbour *et al.,* 2014).

Second, Schwartz (2016) notes that values tend to influence goals which, in turn, motivate action. Echoing the seminal work by Ajzen (1985), he emphasises the nexus between what people value, how they are motivated and thus how they act.

This chain or path on influence between values and actions illustrates the importance that human values have on eventual human behaviour and social system change. He acknowledges that the link between values and eventual actions is not necessarily simple and causal, as values, situational assessments and decisions are often complex and at times (even often) in competition.

Third, he notes that values are trans-situational and trans-contextual (Hofer *et al*., 2010). He notes that someone who holds values of honesty will likely seek to exhibit this honesty in all social situations they confront – at work, at home and in extra-professional environments. He notes that these separate and elevate values from the notion of norms or social mores, which can be confined to specific contexts (like work or professional environments).

Fourth, he notes that values provide individuals with decision making standards or criteria, assisting in the formation of decision heuristics that guide regular choices and decisions (Redlawsk & Lau, 2013). He notes that how a decision agrees with an individual's values (as well as an expectation of any particular consequences of the decision) may guide assessments, choices and behaviours.

Thus, he notes that values are superordinate, in some ways, to informed and rational assessments of actions and consequences. Such a view runs counter to the prevailing

notion of hedonism evident in economic theory related to the choices driven by economic rationality (Etzioni, 2010).

For example, an individual who values loyalty, even when confronted with an opportunity to take advantage of a friend with no expected private consequences, will generally choose not to. I can see, in recent literature, that values relating to social or superordinate outcomes, as well as outcomes impacting individuals, are increasingly guiding workplace choices.

An example of this is provided by Jones, Willness & Madey, (2014) who note that perceived concordance between social values relating to corporate social responsibility are guiding the job seeking choices of many potential employees.

Fifth, Schwartz noted that values are ordered and ranked, even unconsciously, in importance. Values sometimes, indeed often, partially conflict (Scott & Davis, 2015). An example in the political sphere exists between freedom and equality. Individuals create innate hierarchies of values that guide their choices and behaviours in such cases. These, he notes, can be separate too, and at times in conflict with, the norms and attitudes prevalent in certain social contexts.

Finally, and relatedly to the issue of value ordering and ranking, he notes that the relative importance of values in complex choices and contexts guides assessments, attitudes and hence actions. For example, someone valuing both loyalty and honesty, when confronted with evidence of malfeasance by a close friend, will need to assess the inherent trade-offs of these values in the complex decisional context.

Related to this final point is the fact that human assessments of common situations or contexts may vary. For example, two employees may see a similar situation in a

polar opposite way. During the Global Financial Crisis, for example, some employees viewed with unease the growth of toxic financial instruments, while others saw this as a positive market development (Ciro, 2016).

Schwartz' work is informative on many levels. Originally developed in the context of national cultural stereotypes (c.f. Hofstede, 1985), these questions above resonate on the macro, meso and individual levels, as is noted above. In this study a key focus will be on the notion that values sometimes occur as continuums (for example between honesty and dishonesty) but sometimes can exist in pairings that might, at first, seem contradictory.

An example might relate to the idea that people can value both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards at the same time (Malhotra, Galletta & Kirsch, 2008; Kasser, 2014). What values are held by organisational members, how these values are ranked and how they interact within each other and with organisational policies, procedures and routines is a complex and potentially rewarding area of research.

2.3 Culture and its Consequences

Hofstede's major work, *Culture's Consequences*, deals with the impact of national cultural archetypes on individual and collective decisions. Critics argue that Hofstede forces simplistic interpretations on the diverse actions of individuals and yet national cultures persist as strong predictors of individual behaviour (Jackson, 2000; Sims & Keenan, 1999).

Focusing on individual values variance does not preclude the presence and importance of cultural collectivities in organisations. Culture, for the purposes of

social science research, can be seen across a number of enacted strata, including the national, the organisational and indeed (as reflected in personal values) the individual level. On each of these levels culture as an external and indeed internal driver will impact the likelihood of certain behaviours.

It may be helpful to move from the abstract to the specific to discuss culture and organisational behaviour and decision making. Thinking of one important organisational act – the reporting of wrongdoing – provides an interesting lens by which culture and its impacts can be assessed. National cultures, for example, drawing upon the insights of Hofstede and colleagues, have been found to be influential in many organisational outcomes.

For example, Park et al. (2008) found a higher whistleblowing reporting intention among the more individualistic UK culture than was evident in the more collectivist South Korean culture. Similar findings are supported by Vandekerckhove *et al.* (2014) who found that culture manifests as an antecedent of whistle-blowing differently in different societies. They further note that the implications of these specific cultural variances need to be considered in research and managed in practice.

These findings point to the importance of some macro-level cultural context at national levels which may influence values and thus decisions and behaviour. For the context of this research, the increasingly multi-cultural and multiethnic workplace of Australia provides an interesting context within which the research will be conducted. Issues relating to ethnicity of employees are able to be explored in the later studies.

Similarly, organisational cultures influence all forms of individual decision making (Henik, 2015; Rothwell & Baldwin, 2007). It is clear that employees make decisions according to some meso-level arrangement – an approach that blends individual and

contextual determinants (Vadera, Aguilera & Caza, 2009). Adopting a meso-level view encourages researchers to take into account both the individual and contextual levels of influence, with an additional and fundamentally important focus on the interactions present between those individual-level predictors of attitudes and behavioural choices and the contexts within which those individuals find themselves.

Much research potential thus exists in what has been termed meso-level analysis (Rihoux, 2006). This approach contextualises the richness of individual respondents' histories and world views within their complex and dynamic social milieus.

2.4 Contextualising in the Recent Literature

In the following section I will provide some literature review and assessment to better contextualise these studies in important recent empirical and conceptual literature.

The Leadership Literature

A recent paper by Shotter and Tsoukas (2014: 224) notes leaders are organizational members who exhibit phronesis:

> *Phronetic leaders, we argue, are people who, in their search for a way out of their difficulties, have developed a refined capacity to intuitively grasp salient features of ambiguous situations and to constitute a "landscape" of possible paths of response, while driven by the pursuit of the notion of the common good.*

Leadership is s complex task where both means and ends have important direct and indirect effects. Within organizations, and especially in relation to subordinate

outcomes and attitudes, both objective and subjective assessments of leaders' actions, attitudes and outcomes are important. The objective and subjective differentiation is important as interpretations of leaders' behaviours and often viewed through complex organizational political prisms (van Prooijen & de Vries, 2016).

Gender of leaders can be important, both in terms of what some see as innate gender-based relational styles and also in terms of perception (Hoobler, Masterson, Nkomo & Michel, 2018). Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh & Cheng (2014) note that paternalism, a trait aligned with a masculine and fatherly approach, which is increasingly seen as a negative trait in western contexts, can be viewed by many Chinese workers as a desirable managerial style.

The view of the core support of leaders tends to colour the manner in which their leadership is viewed. Kim, Eisenberger & Baik (2016), for example, find that perceived organizational support is an important element in the creation of employee commitment. Furthermore, the quality, quantity and type of engagement between workers and their leaders tends to influence a variety of important organizational and behavioural outcomes (Kim, Egan, Kim & Kim, 2013).

These authors noted that managerial coaching, which can be seen as an intensive and ongoing relationship between employees and their managerial counterparts tends to lead to a variety of positive outcomes including employee satisfaction with work and role clarity, general work satisfaction, career and organizational commitment and job performance.

This view of heightened engagement between workers and managers has also been seen as positive by Schaufeli (2015) and is a core antecedent consideration in the

leader-member exchange (LMX) literature (Srivastava & Dhar, 2016; Wang, Gan & Wu, 2016).).

Culture is seen as an important direct and moderating factor in assessing how leadership influences firm outcomes and behaviours. Aktas, Gelfand & Hanges (2016), for example, notes the strength of the effect of social norms within a social context influences the manner in which certain leadership behaviours are viewed within organisations. Similarly, Eisenbeiß & Brodbeck (2014) find support for their notion that the interpretation of ethicality and unethicality is influenced by cultural and social norms within a national context.

Internal organizational cultures are also important. For example, Vessey, Barrett, Mumford, Johnson & Litwiller (2014) note that managing creative employees requires a different form of leadership than a style that might be appropriate in other contexts.

Ethicality more generally is increasingly assessed within the leadership literature (Frisch & Huppenbauer, 2014; Vlachos, Panagopoulos & Rapp, 2013).). Fehr, Yang and Deng (2015) note that followers tend to attribute certain moral interpretations on leader behaviours – a process termed moralization. In turn, moralization suggests a process by which a subordinate confers a leader's behaviours with moral interpretations and relevance.

An example of such a nexus may be an exhibition of compassion by a leader leading to a determination to greater pro-social behavior by a subordinate.

Hansen, Alge, Brown, Jackson & Dunford (2013), for example, find that ethical leadership tends to predict employee commitment to both the supervisor and the

organization – implications shared by other recent studies (Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl & Prussia, 2013).

Recent research in the leadership field has linked objective and subjective assessments of leadership behavior with various organizational and employee related outcomes.

A common theme relates to the degree of organizational innovativeness engendered by leaders who exhibit traits including transformational approaches (Afsar, Badir & Saeed, 2014; Choi, Kim, Ullah & Kang; 2016; Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Paulsen, Callan, Ayoko & Saunders, 2013), shared managerial styles (Hoch 2013) and ambidextrous search and operational styles (Baškarada, Watson & Cromarty, 2016; Salge, Farchi, Barrett & Dopson, 2013; Zacher & Rosing, 2015).

The impact of leader styles and values on innovativeness can be linked to employees' willingness to take appropriate and calculated risks given the leadership and organizational climate evident within their organizations. Transformational leaders, for example, tend to present and extend a set of visionary values and expectations that provide assurance for such risks while also extending the leader's passion for super-normal outcomes to his or her subordinates (Sharma & Kirkman, 2015).

Hoch's (2013) focus on shared managerial styles focuses on a distributed and non-vertical alignment of authority and decision making within teams. Shared leadership suggests the distribution of decision making and leadership across multiple decision makers and influencers. She found that the dissemination of such authority can have a positive impact on employees' willingness to innovate.

Ambidextrous approaches (Baškarada, Watson & Cromarty, 2016; Salge, Farchi, Barrett & Dopson, 2013) are aligned with, and in most cases a necessary precursor to, open innovation approaches. These arrangements emphasize the need for coincidental search and exploitation activities within organizations. Leaders exhibiting these values and behaviours tend to energize employees who are in both phase activities.

Person-organisation/person-group/person-context fit literature is also increasingly extending to include fit between leaders and subordinates on various criteria (Seong, Kristof-Brown, Park, Hong & Shin, 2015).

Temporary or Gig Workers

The sudden emergence of research on the 'gig economy' has been notable and interesting (Kässi & Lehdonvirta, 2018). In many ways, temporary employment arrangements have been longstanding arrangements in many jurisdictions (Bernhard-Oettel, Rigotti, Clinton & de Jong, 2013).

Often employment relationships between workers and employers have been mediated by some agency third party (Benassi & Vlandas, 2016; Chambel, Sobral, Espada, & Curral, 2015). This agent had the responsibility of meeting the normal labour regulatory requirements for the worker (Jahn, 2013) although significant research emerged to suggest that agency workers tended to experience significantly lower rates of satisfaction and well-being (Chambel & Farina, 2015; Gundert & Hohendanner, 2014; Konrad, Moore, Ng, Doherty & Breward, 2013; Pirani & Salvini, 2015; Wilkin, 2013).

These technology-enabled flexible jobs are very much an international phenomenon, with research emanating from Germany (Nielen and Schiersch, 2014), Japan (Osawa, Kim & Kingston, 2013) and Italy (Pirani & Salvini, 2015) that complement significant studies from the United States.

The 'gig economy' can, in some respects, be seen as an extension of these longstanding temporary arrangements, and yet it clearly has some novel elements that require interested social scientists to think again about its nature and impacts for workers.

Gig work differs from previous forms of temporary work in some important ways. Principal among these is the direct relationship between the final employer and the worker through the facilitated use of technology (Atmore, 2017; Eichhorst, Hinte, Rinne & Tobsch, 2017). Its proponents see its fundamental promise in terms of its capacity, through the use of distributed technologies, to costlessly match consumers and providers through the use of platforms (Muntaner, 2018; van Doorn, 2017).

A seminal example is Uber (Fleming, 2017; Zwick, 2018), that uses an advanced and very 'smart' technological platform to match drivers and their vehicles to riders and their locations. It is fair to say that Uber's technologies relating to logistics optimization are a significant leap forward from traditional approaches to taxi dispatching, for example. Uber's ability to group riders in similar locations or routes into groups, and to allocate these groups into collective rides to similar locations, is far and away superior to previously adopted approaches.

Such technologies do create a larger divisible surplus that, in theory, could be made available to both riders and drivers in the form of lower fares and higher earnings while also allowing for the platform provider (Uber) to take a cut. A key criticism,

often borne out by evidence, is that where additional surplus is created it most often flows directly to the platform owner with little resource to the workers who have created it.

However, it is fair to note that in the social science literature there is a preponderance of negative analysis of the likes of Uber and its impact on the labour market and its employees (Lemmon, Wilson, Posig & Glibkowski, 2016; Melián-González, & Bulchand-Gidumal, 2018). This criticism comes from virtually all angles.

One important source of criticism relates to the legal rights and status of gig workers, like for example Uber's drivers. Uber, as a firm that provides a technological platform, seeks to enforce a legal understanding of its drivers as mere users of its platform (Friedman, 2014). In so doing it suggests drivers are simply transacting with riders, and it is providing the matching service for which it takes a fee (Adams, Freedman & Prassl, 2018; Vlandas, 2013).

Such a legal situation is important and desirable for Uber because, if it is upheld, it for the most part absolves Uber and similar firms from all forms of labour market regulation and obligation (Todolí-Signes, 2017). It is important to note that where Uber has been challenged on this legal question, it has rarely prevailed (Atmore, 2017; Bales & Woo, 2016; Doellgast, Sarmiento-Mirwaldt, & Benassi, 2016; Popescu Ljungholm, 2018; Stewart & Stanford, 2017).

Other criticisms are extensions to the former work on the negative outcomes of temporary work on employee wellbeing (Dawson, Veliziotis, Pacheco & Webber, 2015). Traditional labour theorists informed by a critical perspective on labour-management relations could not be more mistrustful of Uber and its like (Minter, 2017; Vosko, 2014).). It is fair to suggest that they see platform providers employing

gig workers as the most recent and perhaps most insidious incarnation of naked capitalism, seeking to extract rents from workers through their control of capital, technology and information (Choi, 2017; Gundert & Hohendanner, 2014). Platform based gig workers are seen to be excluded from normal training arrangements generally made available to employees (Chambel, Poon, 2018; Sobral, Espada & Curral, 2015) which in turn leads to limited career progression opportunities (Fuller & Stecy-Hildebrandt, 2015).

Other criticisms are both more prosaic but also more complex. Gig jobs are seen to be lower in overall quality (Kauhanen & Nätti, 2014; Tran & Sokas, 2017). Temporary workers in gig jobs often resort to multiple roles simply to meet their basic living needs (Hamersma, Heinrich & Mueser, 2014). When combined with precarious residency rights in the nation of employment, exploitation is a very real threat (Strauss & McGrath, 2017; Svensson, Vinberg & Larsson, 2015).

While Uber has marketed itself to workers as a potential source of middle income wages, much research on temporary and gig workers reflects a longer term and more pervasive situation in the labour market. This relates to temporary and gig work as an ongoing form of employment in certain key sectors, most notably information technology (IT), although present in other sectors also (Courtois & O'Keefe, 2015; Tseng & Wang, 2013). Workers in IT have long used elaborate online sites and platforms to increase labour market fluidity, with matching and reference checking done more seamlessly and continuously in that sector than any other (Foster & Taylor, 2013).

Older Workers

The combination of enhanced healthcare, which is allowing for longer overall lives, and changes in technology that are tending to reduce the requirements for physical exertion in many jobs, are combining to see many workers seek to extend their tenure in the workplace well past the traditional retirement age of 60 to 65. As workers age, the goals they seek to receive from work change (Kanfer, Beier & Ackerman, 2013). There is a tendency for older workers' financial situation and life arrangements to settle into more stable and predictable patterns (Krumm, Grube & Hertel, 2013). Seeing a place for ongoing work in this stabled situation can be a positive opportunity for firms and older workers.

This change is driving managers to think about the idiosyncratic or particular needs that older workers bring to their roles as well as the particular benefits that having older workers may provide an organization and its employees. On the societal level, keeping older workers engaged in meaningful and enjoyable work, under conditions agreeable to them, may tend to offer positive outcomes for all concerned (Wahrendorf, Blane, Bartley, Dragano & Siegrist, 2013).

Older workers are not, however, always welcome in workplaces. Many organisations and jurisdictions impose a mandatory retirement age that makes no reference to capability and health (McCarthy, Heraty, Cross & Cleveland, 2014; Hofäcker, 2015). More discretely, ageism (or the discrimination of persons based solely on age) is evident in many organisations and industries (Henry, Zacher & Desmette, 2015; Iweins, Desmette, Yzerbyt, & Stinglhamber, 2013; Malinen, & Johnston, 2013).

There is evidence that many managers see older workers as less productive overall than their younger peers (Turek & Perek-Bialas, 2013) despite the fact that this is rarely proven empirically (Vandenberghe, 2013).

It is clear that older people's physiological and psychological needs differ from those of the young (Bertolino, Truxillo & Fraccaroli, 2013; Cheng, Chen, Chen, Burr & Hasselhorn, 2013; Innocenti, Profili & Sammarra, 2013). These differences, however, rarely conform to stereotypes (Von Hippel, Kalokerinos & Henry, 2013), and also, while true across older workers on average, mask significant differences within the overall cohort of older workers (Bouville, Dello Russo & Truxillo, 2018).

Recent research confronts and negates one stereotype – that older workers are resistant to change. Kunze, Boehm & Bruch (2013) find that older workers are indeed more receptive to change in the workplace. Older workers value, as much as all workers, workplace respect. Damman, Henkens & Kalmijn (2013), for example, note that making retirement tends to reduce retirement intentions, even after taking into account recent health challenges.

There is evidence that they like to focus on more familiar tasks than is the case for younger workers, who on the other hand place greater emphasis on task variety (Zaniboni, Truxillo & Fraccaroli, 2013; Zaniboni, Truxillo, Fraccaroli, McCune & Bertolino, 2014). These alternative preferences provide an evident complementarity between the two groups.

There is much evidence that older workers become more generous with their time and skills as they age (Kahana, Bhatta, Lovegreen, Kahana, & Midlarsky, 2013; Turek & Perek-Bialas, 2013), both inside and outside the workplace (Moen & Flood,

2013).. This is especially true and pertinent as a means of supporting mentoring between younger and older workers (Henry, Zacher & Desmette, 2015) where the synergies between age and experience on the one hand, and youthful vigour and willingness to acquire skills and knowhow on the other, presents key synergies.

While evidence does support the notion that general physical deterioration among ageing workers makes some roles and tasks more difficult, this challenge can generally be readily managed with careful consideration of job and task design (van Solinge, 2014).

As importantly, older workers tend to have greater emotional skills in dealing with challenges in particular industries or contexts (Doerwald, Scheibe, Zacher & Van Yperen, 2016; Scheibe, Spieler & Kuba, 2016; Scheibe, Stamov-Roßnagel & Zacher, 2015).

2.5 Conclusion

The aim of this dissertation is to activate these issues, bringing evidence to bear to better assess the impact of individual values on employment-related choices. Values are complex, heterogenous and sometimes nuanced. An approach to management of humans that ignores or indeed underplays the importance of values is destined to deliver poor or suboptimal outcomes.

In presenting three linked studies with the notion of values at their core, this dissertation aims to create new evidence of the importance of values in the

development, application and maintenance of human resource policies, procedures and practices in modern organisations.

3. Research Issues

In this section of the dissertation, an introduction of the contextual environment of the research is presented. I seek to elucidate the relationship between theoretical and practical gaps that this research seeks to address.

The studies in the dissertation have a shared focus on employee values and their impacts on later employee decisions, and a discussion of the relevant literature in this field is provided here.

3.1 Values and Workplace Choices of Individuals

How humans make choices in the workplace in relation to work effort, dedication/loyalty and task persistence is a key area of academic research. This dissertation seeks to contribute to and extend this literature with a focus on intentions to stay or persist in current roles or organisations in the future, and in current job satisfaction among employees.

General employee motivation, a fundamental psychological construct, has been defined as the set of processes that direct and sustain action (Latham & Pinder, 2005); as the desire to make effort (Dowling & Sayles, 1978); or as activation and intention (Ryan & Deci, 2000). While some research in this area provides a focus on individual values, much does not. Gerhart and Fang (2015, 489) recently noted for example that "the role of compensation or extrinsic rewards, including pay for performance (PFP), has received relatively little attention in the organizational behaviour/psychology literature on work motivation".

This paucity is exacerbated and more evident as the search for second-order or moderating effects of values on this relationship is considered. Extrinsic and intrinsic work motivation is a fundamentally important, and often researched, phenomenon (Olafsen, 2015). It is noted that, especially in the workplace context, motivation can be driven by extrinsic factors such as financial, work conditions, physical work environment conditions or other rewards and recognition (Amabile, 1993; Amundson, 2007; Brief & Aldag, 1977), and/or can be driven by intrinsic factors such as a personal commitment, inherent satisfaction, personal values or innate role enjoyment (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Diving deeper into the rewards literature is informative. Although extrinsic and intrinsic reward motivations are often contrasted, they are not mutually exclusive in all individual cases (Malhotra, Galletta & Kirsch, 2008). Some research has sought to integrate these models. This includes quantitative models of human behaviour and choices adopting both extrinsic and intrinsic values. These tend to point to complex relationships between these values, antecedent motivators and eventual outcomes (Gerhart & Fang, 2015; Zohar, Huang, Lee & Robertson, 2015). Gerhart & Fang (2015: 390) somewhat provocatively noted:

> *A theme in the cognitive evaluation theory and creativity literatures was not only that pay for performance (PFP) was often detrimental to intrinsic motivation, but also that even when PFP produced positive effect on motivation, it was on extrinsic motivation, which, importantly, was seen as being of lower "quality" motivation than intrinsic motivation in terms of sustainability and/or ability to generate key positive outcomes such as creativity and well-being.*

This observation points to a potential "crowding out" that may exist between values and, regardless of the individual preference or weight allocated between different values, some form of superiority in terms of the manner in which humans are motivated (reminiscent of Maslow's seminal hierarchy of needs notion where intrinsic motivation may reside closely to the uppermost self-actualisation idea).

In general, an assumption could be made that higher levels of satisfaction with both or either of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards will lead to a variety of positive employee/organisational outcomes, including satisfaction, loyalty and engagement (Kaine & Greene, 2013). This is particularly true where these higher espoused values coincide with a sense that the organisation is operating in a just manner in relation to the provision of rewards valued by both intrinsically and extrinsically inclined employees.

It could further be expected that certain antecedent drivers of workplace outcomes (like motivation, effort, intention to quit) would interact with, for example, certain values (like extrinsic and intrinsic values) in different ways. Intuitively, for example, I would anticipate a strong positive interaction between extrinsic values and perceived remuneration generosity in predicting intention to stay. However, organisations who design incentives around generous remuneration may (possibly, albeit not necessarily) neglect motivation and incentive strategies that would appeal to intrinsically-motivated employees (team building activities, for example, or more slack to allow the development of social interactions between nurses and their patients may be a case in point) (Barigozzi, Burani & Raggi, 2018).

Some of the values that I intend to explore relate to employees' weighting of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, the loyalty that they exhibit towards their employer and to their

work team. A focus of the research will relate to how these values tend to moderate or interact with established antecedent drivers of employee choices.

The weight of employees' values within various organisations may differ, both as a product of certain organisations attracting employees with certain values and also the manner in which employee values change over time in response to organisational contexts (Slack, Corlett & Morris, 2015; Witesman and Walters, 2014). Charitable organisations, other not for profits and public-sector organisations, for example, often attract employees with strong social values and, concomitantly, a lower focus on tangible rewards (McGinnis-Johnson and Ng, 2016). However, in a practical sense it is worth considering if these types of organisations tend to construct their remuneration arrangements differently in comparison to for-profit organisations.

I am also interested in preferences relating to other issues relating to the nature of the job and its tasks. For example, do values relating to work-specific motivation (the attraction to a certain role or job), employee-specific extrinsic and intrinsic values and a desire for job security influence the decision to opt into contingent or short-term roles?

3.2 Study 1 – Congruence and Conflict between Subordinate and Leader Values

In this first study I explore how the alignment of subordinates and their leaders' values may tend to predict several important subordinate work-related attitudes, including organisational attachment, job satisfaction and intention to stay or leave.

The focus of this study is to better understand how senior leaders' values may impact important decisions taken by more junior and subordinate level employees. In

Australia and elsewhere, the heterogeneity of organisational membership is increasing (McGuire, Todnem & Hutchings, 2007).

In an operational sense (in terms of the research questions) I draw upon typology of Kristof (1996). She developed a classification that noted the alignment of perceived values between people and their organisations is an important, formal view that should be observed. In the social sciences there is little that can be truly objectively measured.

As such, the alignment of the self-perceived values of individuals and those individuals' perceptions of their organisation and its characteristics is an important driver of attitudes and behaviours among employees. Persons may appear to fit organisations and their requirements, although this may not be objectively true. Regardless, the focus of these definitions tends to reside on discrepancies and incongruences or disparities between organisations and people.

Perceived fit is a key construct employed in this dissertation. A novel focus of my later studies is the perceptions held by subordinate employees of their own, and the senior managers' values and the analysis of this alignment or discrepancy in predicting positive and negative attitudinal and behavioural outcomes.

3.3 Study 2 - What Employees Value and their Participation in the temporary contract employment market.

In this study, I explore the effects of these predictors on the likelihood that employed persons will be undertaking short-term contracted roles.

In Australia and elsewhere, the highly regulated labour market of the past is giving way to far more precarious or contingent work arrangements. While this has always been prevalent for low-skilled, low-waged casual jobs there is an increasing trend for professional workers to opt for shorter term work arrangements, often working under contractual arrangements that specify a specific task outcome for a specified payment rather than any relationship to work hours expended (Facey and Eakin, 2010).

This second study looks at how specific employee values may drive the decision to work in 'gig' jobs, or short-term, contracted roles, and again how this changes as employees age. I will focus on employees' preference for self-agency and autonomy as a predictor of undertaking short-term contractual work. I anticipate that for all ages, this will be a positive predictor of 'gig' work, although this may tend to be more so the case for older workers than for younger ones.

The second predictor relates to employees' preference for job security. Some employees place a high value on stability of employment. This may relate to financial obligations and resources outside work or some other innate preference for stability in employment. It could be expected for other employees, short-term employment with no guarantee of ongoing work is not a high priority (Brynjolfsson & McAfee, 2014).

3.4 Study 3 - Employee Age, Work-based Values and Job Satisfaction in the Healthcare Sector

In this study I aim to explore the notion that employees' perceived 'say' in how a job is done may tend to change as they age such that for older workers, higher 'say' will

be a stronger positive predictor of overall job satisfaction than will be the case for younger workers.

This study provides evidence relating to older and younger workers in healthcare settings. I show that older workers' expectations regarding job security and work 'say' or autonomy are vital areas of organisational attention. The paper uses data drawn from a recently conducted representative survey of the Australian workforce, with a subsample of healthcare workers employed for this study.

I note that older workers' job satisfaction is negatively influenced by poor perceptions of job security and some 'say' or autonomy in how their work is carried out. Ensuring that older workers stay in the healthcare workforce is imperative as the work force ages. This paper shows that managing their job security and offering them work autonomy enhances their job satisfaction.

In their review of the 'generations at work' literature, Lyons and Kuron (2013) note a preponderance of research that suggests that younger workers are more neurotic and narcissistic than their elders while also exhibiting lower levels of self-assuredness and achievement orientation. These findings might suggest a lower sense of employer loyalty or obligation among successive generations. Indeed, the wider and more expressive career interests of younger workers would tend to predispose them to a wider array of potential jobs, employers and occupations over their work lives (Lyons, Schweitzer & Ng, 2015).

3.5 Preliminary Empirical Assessments of Values Variance

It is useful and important to undertake a preliminary analysis of data to investigate whether there is much variance to be observed within datasets in relation to areas of research interest (Ott and Longnecker, 2015). One issue relates to values variance – if, within a large sample of employees there is little evidence of values variance this research would simply serve to confirm this absence of variance with little further to be achieved from quantitative analysis. To investigate this, I undertook a simple comparison of values relating to rewards between groups of employees divided by age.

Table 2: Example Values Statements by Age Group in the Australian Public Service

Age		My job gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment	I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for doing a good job	I am fairly remunerated (e.g. salary, superannuation) for the work that I do
<30 years	Mean	2.45	2.47	2.35
	N	12462	12471	12483
	Std. Deviation	1.043	1.073	1.042
30-44 years	Mean	2.39	2.59	2.37
	N	38643	38687	38700
	Std. Deviation	1.021	1.080	1.014
45-59 years	Mean	2.32	2.58	2.36
	N	37529	37565	37563
	Std. Deviation	.998	1.065	.968
60 years or older	Mean	2.20	2.51	2.35
	N	5193	5193	5190
	Std. Deviation	.967	1.055	.959
Total	Mean	2.36	2.57	2.36
	N	93827	93916	93936
	Std. Deviation	1.013	1.072	.997

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey (2014). Note: responses are coded – 1 strong agree through 5 strongly disagree, hence a higher

mean reflects a generally more negative response.

In the above table descriptive statistics are presented in relation to three questions from the APS 2014 survey. The above table is illustrative of the complexity of these variances between this group of public sector workers, arranged by age. I see, for example, a downward and monotonic change in "personal accomplishment" as employees age, a satisfaction with recognition that increases between the first two age categories before later falling and a fairly static (with non-significant variance for the most part) sense of remuneration justice variance across the four age groups in the sample.

To further investigate whether these differences are in fact significant, I undertook an ANOVA analysis on this data from the APS 2014 survey. This analysis provided the following informative results.

Table 3: One Way ANOVA by Workplace Values Measures

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
My job gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment	Between Groups	328.195	3	109.398	106.866	.000
	Within Groups	96046.347	93823	1.024		
	Total	96374.541	93826			
I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for doing a good job	Between Groups	155.475	3	51.825	45.156	.000
	Within Groups	107782.645	93912	1.148		
	Total	107938.120	93915			
I am fairly remunerated (e.g. salary, superannuation) for the work that I do	Between Groups	9.394	3	3.131	3.152	.024
	Within Groups	93306.132	93932	.993		
	Total	93315.527	93935			

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey (2014).

In the above table I note that for each of the age groups assessed (<30 years, 30-44 years, 45-59 years and 60 years or older) there is a significant variance between age groups of employees according to three indicative workplace values measures - namely feelings of personal accomplishment (self-actualization), degree of work or job recognition and in terms of received remuneration (tangible rewards).

The strongest variance between groups relates to the first question – "My job gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment". The between group difference here was significant at the $p < 0.05$ level [$F(2, 93826) = 106.866$, $p < 0.001$]. The same was true also for between group variance on the other two questions by age – "I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for doing a good job" [$F(2, 93826) = 45.156$, $p < 0.001$] and "I am fairly remunerated (e.g. salary, superannuation) for the work that I do" [$F(2, 93826) = 3.152$, $p < 0.05$].

Post-hoc between group comparisons were then undertaken using the Tukey test. I note, in relation to this, that the mean differences between groups on the first question were consistently significant. The sense of personal accomplishment increases (the scores fall) significantly and consistently by age within my sample.

For the second question – "I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for doing a good job" – I note more complex between group variance. Those under 30 report lowest (most positively) on this item, with this difference being significant between them and those aged 30-44 and 45-59, but not between them and those aged 60 years and older. Those aged between 30 and 59 report no significant variance on this item/question.

For the final question, respondents were asked for their agreement or disagreement on a five-point Likert scale of "I am fairly remunerated (e.g. salary, superannuation)

for the work that I do". Here, the least satisfied group are those aged 30-44 years, however the only significant between group variance exists between them and those aged under 30 (0.028, $p < 0.05$).

Table 4: Work Related Values by Age in the Australian Public Service

Dependent Variable	(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Diff (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
My job gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment	<30 years	30-44 years	.060[*]	.010	.000
		45-59 years	.129[*]	.010	.000
		60 years or older	.251[*]	.017	.000
	30-44 years	<30 years	-.060[*]	.010	.000
		45-59 years	.069[*]	.007	.000
		60 years or older	.191[*]	.015	.000
	45-59 years	<30 years	-.129[*]	.010	.000
		30-44 years	-.069[*]	.007	.000
		60 years or older	.121[*]	.015	.000
	60 years or older	<30 years	-.251[*]	.017	.000
		30-44 years	-.191[*]	.015	.000
		45-59 years	-.121[*]	.015	.000
I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for doing a good job	<30 years	30-44 years	-.115[*]	.011	.000
		45-59 years	-.111[*]	.011	.000
		60 years or older	-.034	.018	.219
	30-44 years	<30 years	.115[*]	.011	.000
		45-59 years	.004	.008	.956
		60 years or older	.081[*]	.016	.000
	45-59 years	<30 years	.111[*]	.011	.000
		30-44 years	-.004	.008	.956
		60 years or older	.077[*]	.016	.000
	60 years or older	<30 years	.034	.018	.219
		30-44 years	-.081[*]	.016	.000
		45-59 years	-.077[*]	.016	.000

I am fairly remunerated (e.g. salary, superannuation) for the work that I do	<30 years	30-44 years	-.028[*]	.010	.032
		45-59 years	-.013	.010	.611
		60 years or older	-.008	.016	.957
	30-44 years	<30 years	.028[*]	.010	.032
		45-59 years	.015	.007	.143
		60 years or older	.020	.015	.542
	45-59 years	<30 years	.013	.010	.611
		30-44 years	-.015	.007	.143
		60 years or older	.004	.015	.992
	60 years or older	<30 years	.008	.016	.957
		30-44 years	-.020	.015	.542
		45-59 years	-.004	.015	.992

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey (2014).

For older workers, the meaning of work changes as their financial means become more settled and robust. Self-selection may tend to occur as older workers who derive certain innate satisfaction from their work tend to persist longer in the workforce compared to those who dislike their work. The concurrence of older age and active workforce participation tends to be associated with a greater degree of perceived security in the job and a willingness to share skills and knowledge with younger and emerging workers who may hitherto have been seen as 'competitors' for status and other benefits (Templer, Armstrong-Stassen & Cattaneo, 2010).

In this paper I explore the notion that as employees age, the value they place upon perceived job security may change. For older workers, higher job security will be expected to be a stronger positive predictor of overall job satisfaction than will be the case for younger workers.

Similarly, autonomy at work – or greater say in how a job will be undertaken – has generally been seen to have positive motivational impacts (Humphrey, Nahgang & Morgenson, 2007). This might tend to be exacerbated in stressful roles, or where employees are particularly susceptible to stress (Wall *et al*., 1996).

It is generally accepted in the extant literature, that organisational commitment is multi-dimensional. A seminal model proposed by Allen & Meyer (1990) identifies three distinct forms of commitment. The first form affective commitment denotes identification with and involvement in the organisation. The second form continuance commitment, relates to the perceived cost of leaving the organisation and the third form normative commitment, is a perceived obligation by the employee to remain in the organisation. The drivers, correlates and consequences vary across the forms. Meyer & Allen (1991, 1997) suggest that although all three forms of

commitment relate negatively to employee turnover, they each relate differently to measures of other work-related behaviours.

A number of recent studies have considered how older workers respond to enhanced autonomy and personal agency at work. Ng and Feldman (2014), for example, in a meta-analysis of previous studies, found that job autonomy tended to predict both job self-efficacy and job performance for older workers more than was the case for younger workers (Ng & Feldman, 2014).

Interestingly, however they noted that the predictive relationships of job autonomy to both job satisfaction and to affective commitment tended to weaken as employees became older. While not necessarily conflicting, these resultant variations of understanding emerge from what the authors note is conflicted intellectual terrain.

From the organisational point of view, steps can be taken to enhance specific job flexibility to rebalance job roles towards sets of tasks and skills utilisations (in the formation of individual work arrangements, or 'i-deals') that are more valued by older workers (Oostrom, Pennings & Bal, 2016).

In similar vein, Münderlein, Ybema & Koster (2013) note that older workers are especially receptive to flexibility and accommodations where the physical demands of work and their own physical capabilities are not well matched. Not only are such arrangements attractive to older workers in terms of making jobs more attractive, they are also attractive for the organisation as they allow for the repackaging of specific tasks and skillsets in a flexible and organisationally-relevant manner.

3.6 Summary

In conclusion, this research through its focus on employee values aims to extend and deepen our collective understanding of how employees' values change the way various intentional and formal drivers of behaviour actually impact employee behaviour and thus organisational outcomes.

Many studies in the field tend to ignore values or assume shared values within diverse contexts. This research aims to bring employee values to the forefront of analysis with the aim of better understanding how values vary within complex organisations and how these varying values, among diverse groups of employees, may tend to alter behavioural choices of employees.

4. Methodology

For this research dissertation I intend to adopt a positivist research paradigm. Much research in HRM with an organisational behaviour or organisational psychology focus adopts quantitative modelling of survey data as the main methodological approach (Bryman & Bell, 2015). It is important in any study that complementarities between theory and method are considered and where possible, optimised.

One benefit relating to the use of positivist studies, operationalised through quantitative modelling, is that they tend to produce (somewhat) generalizable and replicable results (Bernard & Bernard, 2012). The processes of analysing quantitative data also follow certain conventions that facilitate some degree of rigour and replicability. I intend to follow this approach in this portfolio.

Generally, the research included in the thesis develops testable propositions or hypotheses as underexplored issues from the literature. Consistent in the latter studies is a focus not on linear, or first order, predictors, but rather of second-order predictors. These questions are then assessed quantitatively using orthodox regression analyses with a focus on second-order, or interaction, effects (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

In adopting this positivist approach, I seek to create informative and generalisable results that may assist both policy and practice in the broad HRM arena.

4.1 The Research Context – the Australian Labour Market

Broadly speaking, the Australian workplace relations regulatory system has a number of key elements of importance for the studies.

Australia has around 12 million workers, some of whom are self-employed and others of whom are employees. Around 20% of workers are in 'substantially unregulated arrangements' (Productivity Commission, 2015). Most of these are self-employed.

Figure 2: Makeup of the Australian Labour Market, 2015

Source: Fair Work Australia

Of the remaining approximately 10 million employed workers, according to the most recent relevant ABS bi-annual survey:

> *The most common methods of setting pay across all employees in May 2014 were Collective agreement (41.1%) and Individual arrangement (36.6%). Award only was the least common method (18.8%). The remaining 3.4% of employees were Owner managers of incorporated enterprises. For full-time employees, the most common method of setting pay was Individual*

arrangement (44.6%). The most common method of setting pay for part-time employees was Collective agreement (45.8%).

There are collective agreements within the public sector not subject to the FWA. However, some public-sector employees are using individual flexible agreements (IFAs) that are specified in the FWA.

There are around 3 million workers employed under a collective agreement in the private sector, with around 2.3 million of these working under an enterprise agreement. This is the most common regulatory arrangement for public sector employees and for employees of large private sector employers. Enterprise agreements are superordinate to (i.e. override) Awards and minimum wage arrangements but must be registered and are generally required to exceed the conditions of Awards and minimum wage arrangements on all tangible aspects such that employees are 'better off overall' and thus meet the 'no disadvantage test'.

Around 1.8 million workers are employed under the minimum wage arrangements only. As of July 2016, the minimum wage stands at $17.70 per hour with casual employees gaining a 25% loading. Non-casual employees garnering the minimum wage also receive other benefits including the National Employment Standards' (NES) ten minimum employment entitlements.

Key regulatory arrangements thus important to consider in understanding the relationship between regulations, productivity and growth thus include:

- Use of collective agreement(s) and/or enterprise agreements
- Within the collective agreement, but subject to an IFA.
- In receipt of penalty rate payments specified by the collective agreement
- Reference only to Awards arrangements

- Use of above award arrangements
- In receipt of penalty rate payments
- Under Award but using an IFA
- Reference only to minimum wage arrangements

With regards to screening assumptions later used for the two studies using the AWRS dataset, I have screened out for all analysis employees with annual incomes more than $500,000. This is mainly because I suspect that some of these respondents have misreported their earnings in error or otherwise. I've also screened out employees with no income. These two screens bring in the average income for respondents to $61,513 (4695 cases) which is quite close to the ABS reported All Employees Average Earnings for November 2014 (gathered around the time of AWRS) of $58,706.

Further, a key issue studied in the dissertation relates to flexibility. I know from the Productivity Commission report that the use of IFAs is small (only 1.6% of FWA-covered employees) although this is widely reported in the dataset (around 29%). I can be confident that there is a fair amount of flexibility requested (by both employees and employers) and offered (by both employees and employers) in organisations, but much of this is informal.

4.2 Data Collections

I have drawn upon two significant secondary datasets for this research. At the outset of this PhD project I noted the availability of significant datasets that would be impossible to replicate myself given my resource constraints. A description of these datasets is provided in the next subsection.

It may be a concern that, given the public nature of these datasets, that the issues considered for this dissertation have already been explored by other authors. It is true, however, that the use of these datasets to explore the particular questions here is novel. In addition, and in a general sense, many of these datasets are used only sparingly, often for reporting cross-tabular results at the composite level and rarely for deeper and more informative analysis.

As such I hope that this dissertation is seen as an example of the manner in which widely available datasets may be employed to create new knowledge for policy and practice. The growth is "big data" and the move towards open data arrangements, especially by governments, is increasing the opportunity for researchers to harness datasets for later analysis.

4.3 The APS' State of the Service Survey

The first dataset that I have employed comes from the Australian Public Service. This 'State of the Service' microdata set is collected annually and seeks to report the attitudes of all Australian public servants. This instrument was designed to measure key issues such as employee engagement, leadership, health and wellbeing, job satisfaction and general impressions of the APS.

The contextual background to this data gathering activity is informative. In 2014 the incoming Australian Federal government initiated the public management reform agenda[1]. In an operational sense, this has seen significant headcount reductions in the

1   http://www.finance.gov.au/resource-management/pgpa-legislation-rules-and-associated-instruments/

Australian Public Service (APS) and significant Machinery of Government (MoG) changes. This change program has recently entered its second stage where the focus has moved to the quality of planning, performance monitoring, and evaluation and the transparency and accountability of the Australian Public Service (APS). An emerging emphasis is on the improvement of internal processes, so they can be more streamlined and better focused, with concomitant management of systemic risk[2].

The greatest majority of responders worked in relatively large agencies within the APS. Australia, as a Federal nation, has a central government often referred to as the Commonwealth or federal government, sitting above six state and two territory governments. There are also local governments who come under the auspices of the states.

Since Federation in 1901, the federal government has steadily increased its powers and responsibilities (Podger, 2016). The centralization of income tax gathering in response to the exigencies of world-war two in 1942 was never reversed, leading to a structural situation of vertical fiscal imbalance whereby the Commonwealth gathers most tax revenues while distributing to the states what it deems necessary.

Within this historical context, the scale of the Commonwealth public service has grown considerably. In mid-2015 the APS employed some 155,000 people, or 1.8% of the Australian workforce. The APS is based in Australia's capital Canberra (within the Australian Capital Territory, or ACT). Canberra is a metropolis of some 350,000 persons, around 60,000 of whom work for the APS. These 60,000 employees equate

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2   http://www.pmra.finance.gov.au/

to around 40% of the total APS workforce (APSC, 2017). The balance of APS employees work throughout Australia and overseas.

The full results of this survey were released as a Confidentialised Unit Record File (CURF) for analysis by researchers with an interest in the areas covered by the survey. The overall survey instrument was created and deployed to measure key issues including employee engagement, leadership perceptions, employee health and wellbeing, employee job satisfaction and employee general impressions of the Australian Public Service. The census seeks to collect information from all current APS employees. It uses online, computer assisted telephone and paper-based collection strategies to ensure access to the survey from as wide a group of public servants as possible.

The target population of the census includes all APS employees and agencies, regardless of size or location. The initial census survey was made available to all ongoing and temporary APS employees employed as of 11 April 2014.

Summary demographic data of the survey respondents is provided below.

Table 5: Gender in APS 2014 Survey Sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative %
Valid	Male	41047	41.3	42.2	42.2
	Female	56250	56.6	57.8	100.0
	Total	97297	97.9	100.0	
Missing	System	2095	2.1		
Total		99392	100.0		

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey (2014).

In terms of gender, 56.6% of respondents were female. This disproportionate share of females (in relation to the overall population of Australia) is a feature of the APS workforce.

Table 6: Employees by Agency Size in APS 2014 Survey Sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative %
Valid	Small (less 251 employees)	3624	3.6	3.6	3.6
	Medium (251 to 1000)	8884	8.9	8.9	12.6
	Large (1001 or more)	86884	87.4	87.4	100.0
	Total	99392	100.0	100.0	

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey (2014).

The APS' 155,000 employees work within 98 agencies. Some of these are very large – for example the Department of Human Services, with responsibility, inter alia, for many welfare programs, employs more than 30,000 persons while the Australia Taxation Office employs more than 20,000 public servants. Others are very small – the Asbestos Safety and Eradication Agency, for example, has less than 20 employees. The APS includes almost 20,000 civilian public servants working within the defence area, but it does not include the approximately 80,000 military personnel deployed in the Australian Defence Force (APSC, 2017).

The following table summarises the age of the survey responders.

Table 7: Age in APS 2014 Survey Sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	<30 years	12577	12.7	13.3	13.3
	30-44 years	39022	39.3	41.2	54.5
	45-59 years	37914	38.1	40.0	94.5
	60 years or older	5246	5.3	5.5	100.0
	Total	94759	95.3	100.0	
Missing	System	4633	4.7		
Total		99392	100.0		

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey (2014).

Generally there is a good spread of responders by age – following the distribution of age among the public service generally. The largest group is aged 30-44, followed closely by those aged between 45-59. There are relatively few public servants aged over 60, an artefact partially of the relatively generous pension arrangements made available to Australian public-sector workers.

Table 8: Length of Service in Agency in APS 2014 Survey Sample

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative %
Valid	Less than 1 year	5680	5.7	6.3	6.3
	1 to less than 5 years	35021	35.2	38.9	45.2
	5 to less than 10 years	29602	29.8	32.8	78.0
	10 to less than 15 years	12787	12.9	14.2	92.2
	15 to less than 20 years	3947	4.0	4.4	96.6
	More than 20 years	3107	3.1	3.4	100.0
	Total	90144	90.7	100.0	
Missing	System	9248	9.3		
Total		99392	100.0		

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey (2014).

The above table summarises length of service for the responders. Most responders have worked for the APS for between 1 and 10 years. Turnover in the APS reflects general trends in the Australian labour market.

Table 9: Actual Classification Recoded as APS/EL/SES

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative %
Valid	Trainee/Grad/APS1-6	67635	68.0	68.1	68.1
	EL/SES	31661	31.9	31.9	100.0
	Total	99296	99.9	100.0	
Missing	System	96	.1		
Total		99392	100.0		

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey (2014).

The table above summarises the seniority of responders to the survey. As can be seen, the majority of survey reponders fall within the Trainee to APS-6 levels. These are generally considered staffing roles and these employees tend to the normal work of the APS. EL and SES are generally considered the managerial levels of the APS.

After cleaning of the population frame to remove incomplete records and employees who had left the APS prior to sampling, a total of 146,875 valid respondents were

identified and contacted. Of this initial group, 99,392 responded, yielding a response rate of 68 percent (APSC, 2015).

To mitigate and assess non-response bias, the survey administrators tested whether key groups were either over or under-represented in the survey responders group. Tests were assessed according to gender, classification (level of seniority and role type), location (ACT, other States, overseas) and employment category (ongoing or non-ongoing). Analyses showed there were only minor differences between the employee census respondents and the APS as a whole, suggesting that non-response bias was not evident in the dataset (APSC, 2017).

Table 10: Agency Cluster

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative %
Valid	Specialist	6818	6.9	6.9	6.9
	Regulatory	3812	3.8	3.8	10.7
	Policy	20574	20.7	20.7	31.4
	Smaller operational	4314	4.3	4.3	35.7
	Larger operational	63874	64.3	64.3	100.0
	Total	99392	100.0	100.0	

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey (2014).

The table above summarises the agency clusters covered. The APS has a diverse range of activities. The survey respondents were drawn from all areas of activity.

The current State of the Service report[3] notes:

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3   http://www.apsc.gov.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0003/64362/SoSR-2013-14-web.pdf, p. 16

The APS has responded to its changing environment, and it has done so at pace. However, the environment continues to evolve rapidly and the evidence is accumulating, as this chapter began, that incremental change is not the option that will best equip the APS to meet the challenges of the future. Rather change of a transformational kind is required—not just in what the APS does on behalf of government but also in terms of how it manages itself.

Public service agencies are often confronted with significant organisational change. Changes of government and changes within governments often impose upon public service agencies a requirement for major change. It is clear that constant organisational change is becoming the 'new normal' in the APS.

The APS employee census is a yearly survey that collects feedback from public servants on various aspects of working in the APS. It covers such issues as senior leadership capability and employee engagement as well as canvassing attitudes and opinions of employees across a range of important agency-specific issues.

This census collects information from all APS employees and uses online, telephone and paper-based collection methods in order to accommodate various accessibility options to employees in various locations. The target population for the census covers all APS employees from all APS agencies, regardless of size or location.

The initial employee census population consisted of ongoing and temporary APS employees as of 11 April 2014. After cleaning of the population frame a total of 146,875 valid respondents were identified and contacted of whom 99,392 responded, yielding a response rate of 68 percent (APSC, 2017). This, in any context, is a large and valuable source of data. The use of this data for this research study is this a useful

application of available data to develop evidence-based analyses that may impact policy and practice.

Table 11: Age and Gender Data for APS Survey (2014)

		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Age	<30 years	4713	7681	12394
	30-44 years	15437	22941	38378
	45-59 years	16681	20756	37437
	60 years or older	2860	2340	5200
Total		39691	53718	93409

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey (2014).

To determine the possibility of significant non-response bias the administrators tested whether key groups systematically opted out of the employee census and compared the responding sample against the overall APS population on gender, classification, location and employment category (ongoing or non-ongoing). Analyses showed there were only minor differences between the employee census respondents and the APS as a whole (APSC, 2017). Data was made freely available through the Commonwealth's data portal (data.gov.au) during 2015. A commitment on the part of the researcher that no identification of any individual respondent organisation or individual would be attempted or reported. I have abided by this requirement in this research.

Generally, the APS data is collected in two forms. Factual responses (age, gender, departmental affiliation) were collected as categories. Attitudinal information relating to validated scale items (for example, General Impressions – Immediate Supervisor) were collected using five-point Likert scales).

For these and other items used in this thesis, principal component analysis was completed to reduce the multiple items to a single scale. This is useful and important for the later regression analysis that was utilised in this research. To achieve these scores, I followed the recommendations of Field (2013) relating to factor score extraction.

Impressions of tangible and intangible rewards, factors that will feature in Study 3, were measured according to the following scales – (a) I enjoy the work in my current job, (b) I have a good immediate supervisor, (c) My job gives me opportunities to utilise my skills, (d) My job gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment, (e) I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for doing a good job, (f) I am fairly remunerated (e.g. salary, superannuation) for the work that I do, (g) I am satisfied with my non-monetary employment conditions (e.g. leave, flexible work arrangements, other benefits). It is proposed that organisational justice impressions be measured according to the following items – (a) My agency routinely applies merit in decisions regarding engagement and promotion, (b) In general, employees in my agency effectively manage conflicts of interest, (c) My agency actively encourages ethical behaviour by all of its employees.

The APS employ a significant number of temporary employees. It was interesting to assess (related to my study on temporary workers) whether APS employees who were engaged on a temporary basis were more or less engaged than their permanently employed colleagues. For the purpose of this comparison, a simple table shows some strong and significant results.

Table 12: Levels of Engagement within APS by Nature of Employment Contract

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Job Engagement	Ongoing	84464	6.6647	2.36296	.00813	6.6488	6.6807	.00	10.00
	Non-Ongoing	4148	7.0733	2.26937	.03524	7.0042	7.1424	.00	10.00
	Casual, intermittent, irregular, unsure	1990	6.8750	2.34357	.05254	6.7720	6.9780	.00	10.00
Team Engagement	Ongoing	84248	6.4741	2.18357	.00752	6.4593	6.4888	.00	10.00
	Non-Ongoing	4146	7.2082	2.03779	.03165	7.1461	7.2702	.00	10.00
	Casual, intermittent, irregular, unsure	1992	6.8725	2.09749	.04700	6.7803	6.9647	.00	10.00
Supervisor Engagement	Ongoing	81047	7.1736	2.32654	.00817	7.1576	7.1896	.00	10.00
	Non-Ongoing	3928	7.7762	2.18402	.03485	7.7079	7.8445	.00	10.00
	Casual, intermittent, irregular, unsure	1940	7.6411	2.17051	.04928	7.5445	7.7378	.00	10.00
Agency Engagement	Ongoing	82430	5.6831	1.93282	.00673	5.6699	5.6963	.00	10.00
	Non-Ongoing	3978	6.6505	1.84161	.02920	6.5932	6.7077	.00	10.00
	Casual, intermittent, irregular, unsure	1897	6.8042	1.94143	.04457	6.7167	6.8916	.00	10.00

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey (2014).

In the table above, lower scores reflect a more positive level of engagement. I note that consistently ongoing employees report higher levels of engagement across all four categories.

Available control variables (variables that have been shown in previous studies to be significant predictors of the dependent variable but are external to the focal issues being considered here) include employee age, seniority level, tenure within APS and current agency, education, gender and location. These were also included in all analyses.

4.4 The AWRS

The second dataset that I have employed is provided by Fair Work Australia. This Australian Workplace Relations Survey (AWRS) was a cross sectional survey undertaken in 2014. It sought to report a representative sample of the Australian private sector workforce.

Australian government have, for many decades, collected data of relevance to Australian workplaces and their employees. During the 1990s the Commonwealth funded two waves of the Australian Workplace Industrial Relations Survey (AWIRS) (Morehead *et al.*, 1997). After the election of the conservative government in 1996, the gathering of such data did not receive further funding and no further surveys occurred for more than a decade.

In 2007, with the election of a Labor government and the establishment of the Fair Work Commission (FWC), the Commonwealth again chose to fund a large, representative survey of Australian employees and workplaces. Following

international trends whereby nations have developed a linked employer-employee datasets (LEEDs) (Forbes and Jomini, 2016) the FWC gathered information at both the employee and firm levels, matching these, such that analysis could occur across levels (for example, the impact of firm-level HR practices on employee-level outcomes).

LEEDs are increasingly used to study a variety of workplace-relevant issues, including the inter-relationships between labour productivity, job creation, and the effects of internal and external policies, strategies and business practices on firm and employee level outcomes. LEEDs allow for the separation, to some degree, of cause and effect between enterprise and/or external drivers and employee outcomes, and vice versa.

From this funding, and following international experience, the Australian Workplace Relations Survey (AWRS) emerged. The AWRS was developed to provide a representative sample of Australian employers and employees. Data collection proceeded during the first half of 2015, concluding by 31 July 2014. Both employees and their employers were surveyed using a combination of computer-assisted telephone interviewing, online and paper-based surveys. Participation at the employer and employee levels was voluntary.

The AWRS was conducted during the first half of 2014 on behalf of Australia's Fair Work Commission. It surveyed a representative sample of both employees and employers in relation to workplace and employment issues. The population frame was all private sector, public sector, non-government organisations and not-for-profit organisations in Australia with 5 or more employees. Participation in the study, by both employers and employees, was entirely voluntary.

Where an organisation had less than 20 employees, all of these employees were invited to complete the survey. Where an organisation employed more than 20 employees, a random sample of 20 employees was invited to participate in the survey.

The data was gathered via a combination of computer-assisted telephone interviewing and surveys, both online and paper-based. Participation in the study was entirely voluntary. In the final analysis, 1,509 enterprises completed all employer components of the questionnaire and 5,038 employees within these enterprises also completed the employee version. In the context of this survey, enterprises included private and public sector organisations and not-for-profits.

Table 13: AWRS Representation by Size and Industry

Employees	5-19	20-99	100-199	200+	Total
Mining	22	12	4	3	41
Manufacturing	55	62	9	7	133
Electricity, gas, water and waste services	16	15	1	1	33
Construction	52	43	3	5	103
Wholesale trade	44	38	6	8	96
Retail trade	67	62	17	10	156
Accommodation and food services	45	73	15	16	149
Transport, postal and warehousing	40	27	5	10	82
Information media and telecommunications	25	10	2	3	40
Financial and insurance services	22	15	1	5	43
Rental, hiring and real estate services	32	22	2	3	59
Professional, scientific and technical services	31	23	3	4	61
Administrative and support services	36	22	7	14	79
Public administration and safety	3	11	7	5	26
Education and training	46	38	14	12	110
Health care and social assistance	40	42	27	21	130
Arts and recreation services	37	35	6	5	83
Other services	46	29	7	3	85
Total	**659**	**579**	**136**	**135**	**1 509**

Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014

Data was made available through the Fair Work Australia webpage during 2015 upon registration. A commitment on the part of the researcher that no identification of any individual respondent organisation or individual would be attempted or reported. I have abided by this requirement in this research.

Table 14: Various Employment Characteristics

	Male	*Female*	*Not Provided*	**Total**
Employment status				
Permanent	*1 759*	*2 222*	*12*	**3 993**
Fixed-term contract	*77*	*183*	*-*	**260**
Casual	*189*	*397*	*5*	**591**
Other*	*94*	*99*	*-*	**194**
Usual weekly hours of work				
One to less than 18 hours	*80*	*314*	*2*	**396**
18 to less than 35 hours	*136*	*781*	*4*	**921**
35 hours or more	*1 888*	*1 785*	*11*	**3 684**
Industry division				
Mining	*93*	*33*	*-*	**126**
Manufacturing	*300*	*138*	*2*	**440**
Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services	*52*	*39*	*-*	**91**
Construction	*174*	*62*	*-*	**236**
Wholesale Trade	*198*	*147*	*1*	**346**
Retail Trade	*208*	*316*	*4*	**528**
Accommodation and Food Services	*139*	*198*	*1*	**338**
Transport, Postal and Warehousing	*142*	*136*	*1*	**279**
Information Media and Telecommunications	*70*	*57*	*-*	**127**
Financial and Insurance Services	*73*	*153*	*-*	**203**
Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services	*56*	*147*	*1*	**158**
Professional, Scientific and Technical Services	*66*	*91*	*2*	**256**
Administrative and Support Services	*89*	*165*	*-*	**135**
Public Administration and Safety	*60*	*75*	*1*	**498**
Education and Training	*139*	*358*	*2*	**565**
Health Care and Social Assistance	*66*	*497*	*1*	**239**
Arts and Recreation Services	*98*	*140*	*1*	**246**
Other Services	*96*	*149*	*-*	**126**
Employer size				
5–19 employees	*507*	*707*	*8*	**1 222**
20–99 employees	*1 145*	*1 375*	*7*	**2 527**
100–199 employees	*246*	*387*	*1*	**634**
200+ employees	*221*	*432*	*2*	**655**
Organisation type				
For profit	*1 722*	*1 856*	*14*	**3 592**
Not for profit	*353*	*960*	*4*	**1 317**
Government agency	*44*	*85*	*-*	**129**

Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014

Available control variables (variables that have been shown in previous studies to be significant predictors of the dependent variable but are external to the focal issues being considered here) include employee age, seniority level, tenure within current role, education and gender. These were also included in all analyses undertaken for Study 2 and Study 3.

In total 7,883 employees and 1,509 employers completed fully the respective level questionnaires but there was overlap for both levels of 5,038 employees and 840 employers (ie for 5,038 employees full employer information was available).

Table 15: Counts of Participating Organisations in the AWRS by ANZSIC Division and Organisational Type

	For Profit	Not For Profit	Public Sector	Total
Mining	40	1	-	41
Manufacturing	131	2	-	133
Electricity, gas, water and waste services	29	3	1	33
Construction	102	1	-	103
Wholesale trade	95	1	-	96
Retail trade	155	1	-	156
Accommodation and food services	127	22	-	149
Transport, postal and warehousing	81	1	-	82
Information media and telecommunications	34	5	1	40
Financial and insurance services	36	6	1	43
Rental, hiring and real estate services	58	1	-	59
Professional, scientific and technical services	57	2	2	61
Administrative and support services	71	8	-	79
Public administration and safety	11	3	12	26
Education and training	37	72	1	110
Health care and social assistance	65	64	1	130
Arts and recreation services	27	55	1	83
Other services	40	45	-	85
Total	1196	293	20	1 509

Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014

The complementary coverage of the largest public-sector workforce in Australia and a representative sample of private sector workers was intentional. In adopting this approach, a fulsome analysis of issues confronting Australian managers and employees was possible.

A benefit of both of these data sources is that they have provided individual unit records (which are the full anonymised set of questions and responses to the survey provided by responders). This allows for the development of quantitative models with individual choices and outcomes as the dependent variable and individual employees as the units of analysis. This is important given the focus on individual values discussed earlier.

A further benefit of employing prior-gathered quantitative datasets relates to ethical and other practical considerations. The APS dataset includes detailed questions asked of more than 146,000 respondents. Completing this survey was a requirement of employment, so full cooperation was achieved. The data was anonymised prior to release, allowing a detailed focus for this study on questions relating to quite personal values issues. Achieving such a large and comprehensive dataset as an external researcher would have been impossible.

The dataset has, in total, 1,256 variables. These are arranged in the data file with precursor identifiers to assist researcher usage (e.g. EE variables relate to the employee questionnaire and EC variables relate to the enterprise characteristics questionnaire). Other precursors denote issues/questionnaires relating to Employee Relations (ER), Structure and Operations (SO), Workforce Profile (WP) and Financial Information (FI).

The data from the AWRS is useful for my study for a number of reasons. As a representative sample of Australian employees, the dataset will allow for generalizable findings that can be applied to the Australian workforce as a whole. The relatively large sample size (exceeding 5,000 respondents) is also adequate for a variety of statistical analyses that I intend to undertake.

Figure 3: Design of the AWRS Survey

AWRS fieldwork components

Initial Recruitment (CATI)
Establish eligibility of enterprise via Recruitment screener questionnaire and nominate Survey Coordinator for enterprise.

Collect details of target respondents for each AWRS component, including Employee survey random selection process.

Terminate

Not eligible/ Not interested/Quota full

No longer interested / Refused employee survey component

Employee Relations questionnaire (CATI): HR Manager or equivalent
- Employment and workforce management practices;
- Wages and wage-setting
- Employee engagement practices
- Use of Individual Flexibility Arrangements
- Receipt of requests for flexible working arrangements and additional unpaid parental leave made under the National Employment Standards

Employee questionnaire (online or hardcopy): up to 20 employees
- Demographics
- Current and past employment profile
- Employee engagement, satisfaction and equity perceptions
- Requests for flexibility additional unpaid parental leave made under the National Employment Standards
- Use of Individual Flexibility Arrangements

Structure and Operations questionnaire (CATI): Operations Manager or equivalent
- Ownership and age
- Hours of operation and shift arrangements
- Market characteristics and performance
- Measurement of labour productivity
- Responses to increases in costs
- Intentions

Workforce Profile questionnaire (online): Payroll Manager or equivalent
- Number of various types of paid and unpaid workers
- Apprentices and trainees
- Gendered breakdown of occupational groups
- Union density
- Gendered breakdown of employment status and hours worked
- Total hours worked for the whole enterprise
- Wage-setting practices
- Training information

Workforce Profile questionnaire (CATI): Payroll Manager or equivalent
Shortened CATI option offered to non-complete to encourage participation (boost response rate)
- Number of employees
- Gendered breakdown of occupational groups
- Apprentices and trainees
- Gendered breakdown of employment status and hours worked
- Performance-based wage-setting practices

Financial Information questionnaire (online): Finance Manager or equivalent
- Income sources
- Income breakdown
- Expenses breakdown (including labour costs and purchases)
- Inventories
- Other business information

Financial Information questionnaire (CATI)
Shortened CATI option offered to non-complete to encourage participation (boost response rate)
- Income sources
- Total expenses and approximate of wages and salaries
- Other business information

The above figure (drawn from the Australian Workplace Relations Study (AWRS) Data User Manual, Fair Work Australia, 2015) provides an overview of the linked nature of the data gathering activity and the related questionnaires.

As noted, the AWRS is a large dataset with more than 1,000 useable variables. The majority of these variables could be considered to be objectively factual in nature. These are both categorical and scalar/count in nature.

An example of a categorical variable is the very first question in the survey dataset which provides data on the industry (categorised by ANZSIC) for the employing firms of each of the employees' industries.

Table 16: Industry of Employee for AWRS Employee Respondents

Industry	Count	Percent
Mining	126	2.5
Manufacturing	440	8.7
Electricity, gas, water and waste services	91	1.8
Construction	236	4.7
Wholesale trade	346	6.9
Retail trade	528	10.5
Accommodation and food services	338	6.7
Transport, postal and warehousing	279	5.5
Information media and telecommunications	127	2.5
Financial and insurance services	227	4.5
Rental, hiring and real estate services	203	4.0
Professional, scientific and technical services	158	3.1
Administrative and support services	256	5.1
Public administration and safety	135	2.7
Education and training	498	9.9
Health care and social assistance	565	11.2
Arts and recreation services	239	4.7
Other services	246	4.9
Total	5038	100.0

Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014

Other data in the AWRS could be considered attitudinal in nature. Such variables relate to information that cannot be objectively shown to be true, but rather relates to the attitude of the respondent.

Generally, this data utilises Likert scales to gauge the degree of agreement or disagreement with certain statements or propositions. An example of such a question is the 250th question in the dataset.

Table 17: Response Frequencies Example

Question: How satisfied are you with the following aspects of your job? The freedom to decide how to do your own work.

Response (Seven Point Likert)	Count	Percent
Extremely dissatisfied	52	1.0
Very dissatisfied	109	2.2
Somewhat dissatisfied	202	4.0
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	382	7.6
Somewhat satisfied	896	17.8
Very satisfied	1954	38.8
Extremely satisfied	1373	27.3
MISSING IN ERROR	32	0.6
Prefer not to say	38	0.8
Total	5038	100.0

Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014

This particular question relating to job satisfaction is one of a set (or scale) of questions that, in totality, seeks to gauge overall job satisfaction across a number of dimensions. The full set of questions is as follows:

- The flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments

- The freedom to decide how to do your own work
- Your say about what happens in your job
- Your total pay
- Your job security
- The work itself
- The hours you work

This scale does not appear to have an academic basis but it does draw on a number of themes relating to the dimensions of job satisfaction evident in the relevant academic literature (Fields, 2002).

These items are in fact highly correlated among each other indicating that survey respondents tend to answer similarly along each of the questions asked. The strong correlation between these items suggests that job satisfaction tends to be experienced by most employees positively or negatively across a range of dimensions concurrently. For example, while the hours you work and the freedom to decide how you work are somewhat independent issues, I note that the responses to these questions are highly correlated, $r(5036) = 0.509$, $p < 0.001$.

This strong correlation between variables also suggests that these questions or variables may perhaps be measuring an underlying construct – namely overall job satisfaction. When multiple items or questions are used to create a scale for an underlying issue, these questions should be answered in such a way that they provide consistency. If the items seek to measure the same issue, they should be correlated among each other (Bland and Altman, 1997).

Table 18: Bivariate Correlations on Work Outcome Preferences

		The flexibility to balance work and non-work commitment	The freedom to decide how to do your own work	Your say about what happens in your job	Your total pay	Job security	Work itself	Hours you work
The flexibility to balance work and non-work commitment	Pearson Correlation	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)							
	N	5038						
The freedom to decide how to do your own work	Pearson Correlation	-.055**	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000						
	N	5038	5038					
Your say about what happens in your job	Pearson Correlation	-.137**	.121**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000					
	N	5038	5038	5038				
Your total pay	Pearson Correlation	-.185**	-.257**	-.163**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000				
	N	5038	5038	5038	5038			
Job security	Pearson Correlation	-.239**	-.222**	-.129**	.010	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.489			
	N	5038	5038	5038	5038	5038		
Work itself	Pearson Correlation	-.269**	-.089**	-.087**	-.147**	-.181**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	5038	5038	5038	5038	5038	5038	
Hours you work	Pearson Correlation	-.051**	-.210**	-.155**	-.089**	-.096**	-.086**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	5038	5038	5038	5038	5038	5038	5038

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014

To ascertain if this is correct, it is possible to undertake an exploratory factor analysis among the question responses. Doing this, with this dataset, provides a single factor that explains approximately 60% of the cumulative variance among the variables noted above.

Table 19: Exploratory Factor Analysis Example

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.209	60.124	60.124	4.209	60.124	60.124
2	0.647	9.244	69.369			
3	0.585	8.358	77.727			
4	0.527	7.524	85.251			
5	0.486	6.943	92.193			
6	0.318	4.539	96.732			
7	0.229	3.268	100.000			
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014

Another indicator that this set of variables is providing us with a multi-dimensional measure of a shared underlying issue or factor can be provided by reliability analysis to produce a Chronbach's alpha for the shared items. Again, using SPSS, this was undertaken and an alpha of 0.887 was achieved. This sits well within the acceptable range of between 0.70 and 0.95 noted by Tavakol and Dennick (2011).

Having ascertained that these questions form a multidimensional measure of job satisfaction, it is then possible to extract a standardised factor score for all seven items that can act as a measure of that underlying issue – job satisfaction. Using SPSS a

score can be extracted that has the property of a zero average and a standard deviation of 1. This can then be usefully applied as either a predictor (IV) or outcome (DV) variable in later analysis.

To illustrate this graphically, the following histogram of values of the extracted factor score, overlayed by a normal curve, is provided.

Figure 4: Extracted Factor Score Distribution – Job Satisfaction
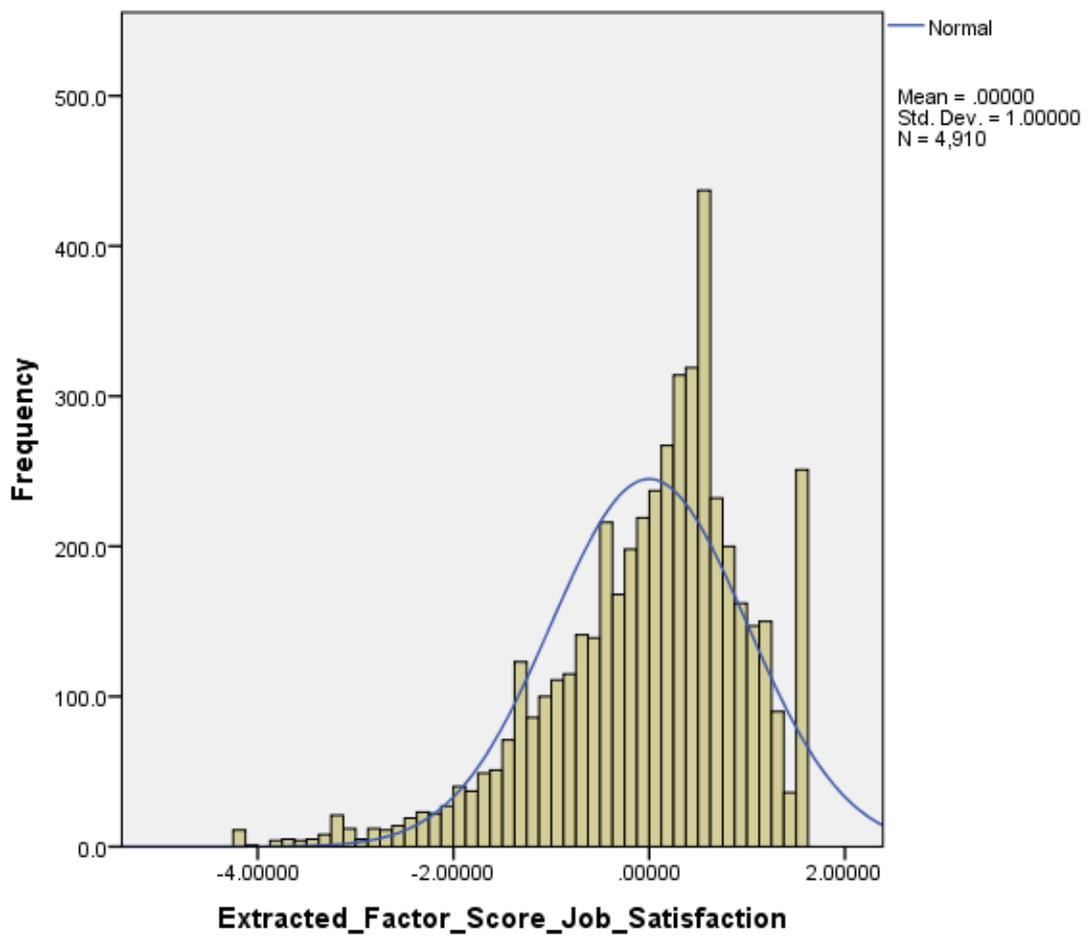
Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014

I have used a combination of factor scores such as this, and other variables, in an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis for my later work. OLS regression seeks to estimate the unknown parameters in a linear regression model. The least squares term refers to the process by which a linear estimate is created that minimises the sum of the squares of the difference between the observed variables and the estimated point value as provided by the linear function.

4.5 Limitations of the Data – General Comments Applicable to Both Datasets

There are a number of limitations that should be noted in relation to studies such as this proposed that use cross sectional data.

First, as the study is based on secondary data, I as the researcher will have no capacity to design the variables as I may like. For example, if I choose to focus on job satisfaction I may be inclined towards the choice of a psychometrically validated scale like that provided by Warr, Cook and Wall (1979). This choice is not available to me and there is a trade-off of having in hand an extensive and representative dataset with measures that are not of my choosing and having the opportunity to design a questionnaire from scratch and then having the cost of gathering data to an equivalent level of quality.

First, there is some risk of common-method variance (CMV) (Lindell and Whitney, 2001). CMV arises when a single instrument is used for multiple items within a model. Richardson, Simmering and Sturman (2009) neatly summarise that CMV may

arise when "systematic error variance shared among variables measured with and introduced as a function of the same method and/or source".

I intended to use both ex ante and ex post strategies to mitigate these issues. As I anticipate my study will focus on interaction or second-order effects, there is less susceptibility to CMV than would be the case for studies examining only primary or secondary effects (Chang, van Witteloostuijn and Eden, 2010).

4.6 Data Format and Items Included

The AWRS survey provided a rich set of empirical evidence to be employed for this research. In essence it provided the basis for the second and third studies included in this dissertation – the first focused on temporary workers (gig workers) and the second relating to older workers employed in the healthcare sector.

In relation to the study on temporary or gig workers, the AWRS collected data in relation to employee satisfaction with (a) Work Life Balance, (b) Freedom to Decide at Work, (c) Say in Job, (d) Total Pay, (e) Job Security, (f) Work Itself and (g) Hours Worked. A categorical variable can be constructed relating to the holding of a 'gig' or contracted job. In essence this paper used a binary dependent variable (holding or not holding a temporary job) to assess the predictive importance of key values on that specific type of employment.

For the final study (investigating the healthcare workforce) the key dependent variable related to job satisfaction. The AWRS surveyors asked several questions in

relation to job satisfaction. The responses to these questions were included in the analysis to better gauge how these items motivate healthcare and temporary workers.

Respondents were asked the overall question "How satisfied are you with the following aspects of your job?" They were asked then to rate the following items on a 7 point Likert scale from 1 (extremely dissatisfied) to 7 (extremely satisfied). The items comprise (a) the flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments, (b) the freedom to decide how to do your own work, (c) your say about what happens in your job, (d) your total pay, (e) your job security, (f) the work itself and (g) the hours you work. Respondents were then asked the omnibus question "thinking of the aspects of job satisfaction you have just rated, overall, how satisfied are you with your job?". Similar measures have been used in a recent study by Kifle, Kler & Shankar (2016). The questions provide good coverage of a variety of potential drivers of overall job satisfaction relating to autonomy, flexibility, remuneration and work conditions (Anitha, 2014).

4.7 Practical Research Issues

In this section I discuss some of the practical issues I encountered while completing the project.

4.7.1 Software

The thesis adopts a statistical approach and all data analysis is to be conducted using SPSS. Overall, the studies use a combination logistic and linear regression, using a

hierarchical arrangement with the final, and fully specified, model including an interaction or moderation effect. This final moderator generally examines the interaction of the I (individual) and O (organisational) level measures in predicting the organisational outcomes.

As interaction effects are to be investigated and the main means of testing the presence of statistical significance of effects featured in the hypotheses, the PROCESS SPSS macro developed by Hayes and Preacher (2014) will be utilised. PROCESS has emerged as a popular statistical adjunct to standard SPSS analysis for the measurement and visualisation of second order (moderation and mediation) effects and is in widespread use. This macro extends the ordinary regression capabilities of SPSS to allow for analysis of second order (moderation or interaction) effects within the overall regression model. It has an additional benefit of providing data that will assist with the development of graphical figures. These feature in the studies presented later where appropriate.

4.7.2 Ethical Issues

While the data utilised for this portfolio comes from public sector and secondary sources that are in the public domain, ethical issues relating to the analysis and reporting of findings are still important.

Both major surveys used here required an ethical undertaking by the author prior to download. In essence, the requirements for both are similar – that data privacy of individual respondents be respected and maintained, and no reporting should be undertaken that may possibly lead to the matching of any response or set of responses to any individual person.

As such, the assurances provided to participants in the original studies were respected and followed. This was an assurance of anonymity that I have honoured in this portfolio. As such, I have ensured that findings are reported with care and that no individual or very small groups are identified in the reporting of findings, even where this is empirically possible (as is the case in the APS survey, for example, where very small groups or individuals are able to be identified given demographic data that has been reported).

4.7.3 Facilities and Resources

The project did not require any resources that were not currently available to the researcher. Empirical analysis was undertaken using SPSS, a license for which I held currently. Otherwise, simple computing resources (already held) and access to periodicals through the Curtin library were used.

4.7.4 Data Storage

Data has and will continue to be secured following the practices required by the data providers. Generally, these require that access to data be secured from unauthorised users. I also intend to store the data for at least ten years post publication to allow for later analysis and checking should this be required.

4.8 Limitations

There are several potential limitations that should be noted in relation to studies such as this proposed that use cross sectional and secondary data. As all three of these

studies are based on cross sectional surveys, perhaps chief among these is common-method variance (CMV).

CMV arises when a single instrument is used for multiple items within a model. Richardson, Simmering and Sturman (2009) neatly summarise that CMV may arise when "systematic error variance shared among variables measured with and introduced as a function of the same method and/or source".

I used both ex-ante and ex-post strategies to mitigate these issues. As the studies focused on interaction or second-order effects, there is less susceptibility to CMV than would be the case for studies examining only primary or secondary effects (Chang, van Witteloostuijn and Eden, 2010). Ex-post controls were applied where appropriate, to ensure that such bias does not overly influence my findings.

However, these datasets also come with important benefits. This research thus innately involves a trade off with the very extensive data available from these sources that would, for all intents and purposes, be impossible to replicate in a PhD study such as this.

5. Data Analysis and Presentation

Leadership is the art of getting someone else to do something you want done

because he wants to do it.

Dwight D. Eisenhower, 1890 - 1969

5.1 Study 1 – The Consequences of Congruence and Conflict between Subordinate and Leader Values

5.1.1. Introduction

Human values are diverse – with these differences being driven by various demographic and sociocultural factors alongside innate values heterogeneity between individuals (Howell & Allen, 2017). Within organisations, this values diversity can have complex impacts as employees with different values interact. These interactions may be synergistic and positive or may augur conflict.

In this study I consider the issue of how congruence and conflict between junior and senior employees' values predicts several attitudinal and behavioural responses among employees, including employee satisfaction and employee turnover intention.

The intent of the paper is to explore how important the alignment of values between junior employees and those more senior to them in their organisation is in predicting future turnover intentions, or relatedly the intention to continue in the current organisation for a longer period.

Substantial research has been dedicated to identifying and exploring the predictors of employee turnover (Hom *et al.,* 2017). This enduring research focus reflects an appreciation of how significantly and negatively turnover affects organisational functioning, from the level of individuals to the level of long-term performance and strategic success (Lee *et al.,* 2017).

Existing research into turnover suggests there has been general agreement for some time about some of the predictors of employee turnover however, there has been sizeable variability observed between studies looking at the same outcome. Rubenstein, Eberly, Lee & Mitchell (2017) suggest this variability is due to potential moderators of predictor-turnover effects. They propose that these potential moderators stem from contextual and social influences.

An example is provided by Johns (2006) which has previously identified the issue of context. He noted that only a limited number of studies have explored context in spite of contextual influences logically playing a part in employee's turnover decisions. Such contextual factors generally offer a reasonable explanation for variance beyond individual predictors alone. (Cappelli & Sherer, 1991; Coetzer, Inma & Poisat, 2017; Holtom, Mitchell, Lee & Eberly, 2008).

The goal of this study is to add to this underexplored area of moderation in the extant literature on employee turnover. I will examine how employee's perception of their senior managements' values-based behaviour moderates a number of predictors of turnover. I anticipate complex interaction effects relating to the manner in which employees respond to these predictors when they perceive their manager to be acting ethically. My expectation is that when employees perceive that the managers in their organisation are exhibiting value-based behaviour they will be less inclined to leave the organisation.

The notion of values congruence has emerged as an important theme in the management literature. Person-organisation (P-O) values congruence seeks to assess the degree to which employees see their own personal values and beliefs reflected in

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the culture, values and standards of the organization where they reside (Kalliath *et al.,* 1999).

P-O congruence is seen as an important predictor of numerous positive decisions and behaviours among employees. These include job satisfaction (Edwards and Cable, 2009), organizational commitment (Van Vianen *et al.,* 2011) and employee performance (Hoffman *et al.,* 2011).

Organisational justice may be seen as a construct that is closely aligned with P-O congruence. Justice outcomes occur when the outcome at the individual and organisational levels aligns with prior expected outcomes and the prior sense of what is right. In this way, there is a strong fit between what individuals expect of the organisation, and what outcome the organisation delivers.

The perceived sense of organisational justice has been linked to a range of attitudinal and later behavioural outcomes. In the extant empirical literature, for example, such justice perceptions have been seen to antecede job satisfaction, organisational commitment and employee turnover intentions (Fulford, 2005; Hon & Lu, 2010; Hurst, Baranik & Clark, 2017; Lee *et al.,* 2010; McCain *et al.,* 2010).

These attitudinal changes have also been shown to influence later behavioural changes. One such behavioural change is voluntary turnover. The issue of employee turnover intention is much researched in the human resource management literature (Lin & Liu, 2017) as it is one of the most difficult and important behavioural issues confronting human resource managers.

Employee turnover can reduce an organisation's financial performance (Guest, 2017; Heavey *et al*., 2013, Park & Shaw, 2013); disrupt productivity (De Winne, Marescaux, Sels, Van Beveren & Vanormelingen, 2018; Hausknecht, Trevor, & Howard, 2009; Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005; Hom, Lee, Shaw & Hausknecht, 2017), compromise an organisation's competitive advantage (Agarwal, Ganco, & Ziedonis, 2009), impede prior efforts at improving workforce diversity (Lee, Hom, Eberly & Li, 2017). Thus reducing turnover is a key outcome generally sought by high performing organisations.

For organisations seeking to retain their employees, an understanding of the different predictors of employee turnover and how they inter-relate is important. Research into employee turnover has identified several predictor variables that generally anticipate both an intention to quit and a shorter future time horizon in the organisation in the mind of the employee (Peltokorpi, Allen & Froese, 2015). These include, inter alia, issues associated with age and gender, the degree of past organisation tenure or embeddedness, and individual values related to risk aversion and individualism.

While it is evident that these variables, and others, are related to turnover there is evidence that important second-order moderating effects may be present that have not been studied in any depth in the extant literature. Improving our understanding of the moderating effects of variables on predictors of employee turnover has the potential to enable organisations to create conditions that would ultimately improve employee retention rates and consequently improve financial and other performance.

It seems reasonable to suggest that employee turnover is driven by a complex set of factors relating to the individual and his or her organisational context. Managing this

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complexity is an important consideration for organisations hoping to take advantage of the many benefits of a stable/enduring workforce.

The purpose of this paper is to investigate how junior employees' perceptions of senior management's values moderates the impact of predictors of turnover. The predictors I examine are senior engagement, fair rewards and a supportive climate. Turnover is especially important as it significantly affects organisational functioning and employee outcomes.

5.1.2. Turnover

Significant empirical research has been dedicated to the study of the causes and effects of employee turnover, including booth voluntary and involuntary separations. This significant body of research reflects an enduring recognition of how importantly employee turnover may affect organisational functioning (Rubenstein, Eberly, Lee & Mitchell 2017; Hom, Lee, Shaw, & Hausknecht, 2017).

Research into employee turnover suggests that it can reduce an organisation's financial performance (Heavey et al, 2013, Park & Shaw, 2013); disrupt productivity (Hausknecht, Trevor, & Howard, 2009; Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005); compromise its competitive advantage (Agarwal, Ganco, & Ziedonis, 2009) and hamper workforce diversity (Schneider & Northcraft, 1999). All of these effects extend well beyond the expected and well understood direct costs associated with employee departures relating to separation costs and the recruitment and retraining of new employees.

Despite this level of interest, the specific and complex reasons that drive employees to voluntarily leave an organisation remain largely unresolved. While some predictors of employee turnover have been proposed, variability between studies examining these predictors suggests further examination of this important topic is needed.

A number of meta-analyses (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Rubenstein, Eberly, Lee & Mitchell, 2015) into employee turnover have confirmed a number of predictors of turnover. However, the researchers note that while the predictors identified were related to turnover there was evidence to suggest that many of these relationships were moderated by other variables. This is intuitively interesting and sensible as it could be expected that the manner by which various determinants of turnover are interpreted and impact various employees would differ significantly within a complex and diverse organisation.

These moderating effects could explain the variability between studies looking at the same outcome. Therefore, these researchers suggest, and I agree, that further studies are needed that examine how the relationship between predictors and turnover are moderated by other variables.

A wide range of predictors of turnover have been examined in the literature. These include attitudinal responses to workplace conditions (Hulin, 1966, 1968; Reina, Rogers, Peterson, Byron & Hom, 2018; Weitz & Nuckols, 1955) and perceptions of those conditions (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Hellriegel & White, 1973; Karp & Nickson, 1973), perceptions of leaders (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Ley, 1966;

Zeffane & Melham, 2018), proximal environmental conditions (Hellriegel & White, 1973).

More prosaic predictors also come into play. For example, pay, overall job satisfaction, employment perceptions, age and tenure have all been shown in recent empirical studies to be positive predictors of turnover (Cohen, Blake & Goodman, 2016; Lu, Lu, Gursoy & Neale, 2016).

A number of other variables, such as task repetitiveness and accession rates, have also been identified (Dubey, Gunasekaran, Altay, Childe & Papadopoulos, 2016). These however appear to be only weakly related to turnover. Some studies (Agarwal & Gupta, 2018; Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Bluedorn, 1982; Hale, Ployhart & Shepherd, 2016; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978; Peltokorpi,, Allen & Froese, 2015; Price & Mueller, 1981) have investigated moderating effects in the prediction of turnover, however further research is required and a more extensive range of variables need to be considered.

Traditionally research focussed on organisational commitment has been concerned with employer-relevant outcomes however, research is emerging more recently with a focus on employee relevant outcomes specifically looking at links between organisational commitment and work-family conflict and stress (Begley & Czajka, 1993). With only limited research available in this area, some confusion exists about how commitment relates to these outcome variables and more specifically if more strongly committed employees might experience more negative reactions to such stressors than employees who are less committed (Reilly, 1994)

Meyer *et al.* (2002) build upon the findings of Mathieu & Zajac's (1990) research to support the view that work experiences has a strong relation to organisational commitment. This suggests that managing employee work experiences carefully has the potential to foster (affective/organisational) commitment in employees (Irving & Meyer, 1994; Meyer, Bobocel, & Allen, 1991). Other interesting insights from their research include the finding that both organisational support and organisational justice have a strong positive correlation with affective commitment. These findings are consistent with the findings of Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa (1986)

Meyer *et al.* (2002) concluded that of the work experience variables they examined organisational support had the strongest positive correlation with affective commitment. This suggests that organisations wanting to build affective commitment in their employees must provide a supportive work environment.

Earlier research by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa (1986) argued that any organisation wanting affectively committed workers should themselves show commitment by providing a supportive work environment for their employees. Meyer *et al.* (2002) recommend treating employees fairly and providing strong leadership as a way for organisations to support their workers. Not surprisingly, Meyer *et al.* (2002) also found that affective commitment correlates strongly with transformational leadership and organisational justice.

Meyer *et al.*'s (2002) meta-analysis confirmed that all forms of organisational commitment correlate negatively with turnover and turnover intention. However, the different forms correlate differently with other work behaviours, with affective

commitment having the strongest positive correlation with desirable work behaviours such as OCB, attendance and job performance. They further note that additional research is required into the additive and interactive effects of the three forms of commitment before a more accurate estimate of the effect of organisational commitment on employee behaviour can be reached.

Cotton & Tuttle's (1986) meta-analysis and review into employee turnover confirmed a number of reliable and stable correlates with turnover. These included pay, overall job satisfaction, employment perceptions, age and tenure. They also noted that while these variables were related to turnover many of these relationships were moderated by other variables and these had not been studied. Therefore, research is needed that examines whether variables are causally linked to turnover and equally as importantly how these links are moderated by other variables.

As early as the 1950s (Weitz & Nuckols, 1955) researchers began to examine attitudinal responses of workers to workplace conditions (Hulin, 1966, 1968; Weitz & Nuckols, 1955) or worker's perceptions of workplace conditions (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Hellriegel & White, 1973; Karp & Nickson, 1973) as antecedents to worker turnover. Additionally, early research into turnover identified leavers perception of leaders (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Ley, 1966) as contributing factors to turnover.

Significantly, Price (1977, 2001) highlighted environmental drivers of turnover. This had practical implications for organisations as it identified key drivers that could be leveraged to reduce/stem turnover. His research initiated more recent studies by other researchers which look at external influences such as social networks (Feeley,

Hwang, & Barnett, 2008) and family and community embeddedness (Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010).

A number of studies have shown that job satisfaction is closely related to worker's intentions to leave (Chen & Spector, 1992) and turnover intentions (Coomber & Barriball, 2007). Further to this, Larrabee *et al.* (2003) and Parry (2008) point to job satisfaction being the main predictor of turnover intention. Currall *et al.* (2005) found that pay satisfaction is positively related to worker performance and negatively related to worker's turnover intentions. In a similar vein, Davis (2006) demonstrated overall job satisfaction to be strongly and negatively related to worker's turnover intentions.

Research conducted by Ding & Lin (2006) into Taiwanese and U.S. hospital employees supported the finding that job satisfaction has a direct negative effect on turnover intentions. Interestingly they also found that the negative direct effect of job satisfaction and the indirect effect from organizational commitment on turnover intention was stronger for U.S. hospital employees than employees of Taiwanese hospitals. This could suggest the importance of considering cultural contexts – at the national or lower group levels, in better understanding the drivers of turnover.

Research looking at job satisfaction strongly suggests that worker job satisfaction has important implications for both the individual worker and their organisation. According to Judge, Thorensen, Bono, & Patton (2001) satisfied workers are more effective in performing their jobs. This is supported by the research of Chen & Spector (1992) which proposed that satisfied workers are less likely to partake in counterproductive behaviours in the workplace.

Hellman (1997) confirmed the consistently negative relationship between job satisfaction and intent to leave in his meta-analysis. Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner (2000) in their meta-analysis of the antecedents and correlates to employee turnover identified job satisfaction and organisational support as (negative) predictors of worker turnover. Their findings supported earlier studies (Price & Mueller, 1981; Cavanagh & Coffin, 1992) that suggested rates of turnover intentions could be decreased by increasing workers' job satisfaction. Building on this earlier work, Estryn-Behar, van der Heijden, Fry, & Hasselhorn, (2010) examined the influence of work-related factors such as dissatisfaction with pay, lack of autonomy and quality of care on nurses' turnover intentions. They showed that work-related factors could influence turnover intention among nurses.

Parry (2008) found that for newly graduated nurses, both affective professional and organisational commitment were significantly related to intention to change professions (turnover). Commonly proposed antecedents for employee turnover include job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

5.1.3   Empirical Analysis

To facilitate analysis, the APS State of the Service dataset questions were subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA). EFA is widely used in the social sciences for two purposes. First EFA allows for a reduction in the complexity of quantitative models used in data science while retaining the informational value of underlying

items. Second it acknowledges that constructs in social sciences (like employee attachment) may have varying underlying elements or facets that can be included in an omnibus measure.

Five factors were developed and used in this study. The first factor seeks to measure a key dependent variable for Model 1 (and independent variable for model 2). I note three questions that are linked intuitively to the underlying construct that I have deemed (for the purposes of later analysis) *Attachment*.

- I feel a strong personal attachment to my agency

- When someone praises the accomplishments of my agency, it feels like a personal compliment to me

- I am proud to work in my agency

The component loadings listed below provide correlations between the various items listed and the final factor score used for later analysis.

Table 20: Factor Component Statistics – Attachment

	Initial	Extraction	Component Loadings
I feel a strong personal attachment to my agency	1.000	.839	.916
When someone praises the accomplishments of my agency, it feels like a personal compliment to me	1.000	.793	.890
I am proud to work in my agency	1.000	.813	.902

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

The following table shows that the factor score derived for later analysis (*Attachment*) explains 81.493% of the variance in the underlying three items.

Table 21: Total Variance Explained – Attachment

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.445	81.493	81.493	2.445	81.493	81.493
2	.314	10.452	91.945			
3	.242	8.055	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

The second factor seeks to measure a key independent variable for models 1 and 2 – namely *Leader Values*. I note three questions that are linked intuitively to the underlying construct that I have deemed (for the purposes of later analysis) *Leader Values*

- Senior leaders in my agency lead by example in ethical behaviour

- Does your supervisor act in accordance with the APS Values in his or her everyday work?

- Do senior leaders (i.e. the SES) in your agency act in accordance with the APS Values?

The component loadings listed below provide correlations between the various items

listed and the final factor score used for later analysis.

Table 22: Factor Component Statistics – Leader Values

	Initial	Extraction	Component Loadings
Senior leaders in my agency lead by example in ethical behaviour	1.000	.556	.746
Does your supervisor act in accordance with the APS Values in his or her everyday work?	1.000	.501	.708
Do senior leaders (i.e. the SES) in your agency act in accordance with the APS Values?	1.000	.649	.805

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

The following table shows that the factor score derived for later analysis (*Leader Values*) explains 56.873% of the variance in the underlying three items.

Table 23: Total Variance Explained – Leader Values

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.706	56.873	56.873	1.706	56.873	56.873
2	.730	24.345	81.218			
3	.563	18.782	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

The third factor seeks to measure a key independent variable for models 1 and 2 – namely *Intrinsic Motivation*. I note three questions that are linked intuitively to the underlying construct that I have deemed (for the purposes of later analysis) *Intrinsic Motivation.*

- I enjoy the work in my current job
- My job gives me opportunities to utilise my skills
- My job gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment

The component loadings listed below provide correlations between the various items listed and the final factor score used for later analysis.

Table 24: Factor Component Statistics – Intrinsic Motivation

	Initial	Extraction	Component Loadings
I enjoy the work in my current job	1.000	.829	.911
My job gives me opportunities to utilise my skills	1.000	.822	.907
My job gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment	1.000	.869	.932

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

The following table shows that the factor score derived for later analysis (*Intrinsic Motivation*) explains 84.013% of the variance in the underlying three items.

Table 25: Total Variance Explained – Intrinsic Motivation

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.520	84.013	84.013	2.520	84.013	84.013
2	.279	9.311	93.324			
3	.200	6.676	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

The third factor seeks to measure a key independent variable for models 1 and 2 – namely *Extrinsic Motivation*. I note three questions that are linked intuitively to the underlying construct that I have deemed (for the purposes of later analysis) *Extrinsic Motivation.*

- I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for doing a good job

- I am fairly remunerated (e.g. salary, superannuation) for the work that I do

- I am satisfied with my non-monetary employment conditions (e.g. leave, flexible work arrangements, other benefits)

The component loadings listed below provide correlations between the various items listed and the final factor score used for later analysis.

Table 26: Factor Component Statistics – Extrinsic Motivation

	Initial	Extraction	
I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for doing a good job	1.000	.592	.769
I am fairly remunerated (e.g. salary, superannuation) for the work that I do	1.000	.630	.794
I am satisfied with my non-monetary employment conditions (e.g. leave, flexible work arrangements, other benefits)	1.000	.617	.785

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

The following table shows that the factor score derived for later analysis (*Extrinsic Motivation*) explains 84.013% of the variance in the underlying three items.

Table 27: Total Variance Explained – Extrinsic Motivation

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.839	61.303	61.303	1.839	61.303	61.303
2	.603	20.114	81.417			
3	.557	18.583	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

I then considered the bivariate correlations between the extracted factors and the directly used measures in the two models. Zero-order Pearson correlations between the measures are shown below. Due to the very large sample size, all items were significantly correlated. There was a moderate to strong positive association between Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation, Attachment and Leader Values.

Table 28: Correlations

			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Intrinsic	Pearson Correlation	1						
		Sig. (2-tailed)							
		N	90733						
2.	Extrinsic	Pearson Correlation	.517**	1					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000						
		N	90334	90826					
3.	What is your gender? (Male =1, Female = 2)	Pearson Correlation	-.032**	-.089**	1				
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000					
		N	90043	90134	91216				
4.	How old were you at your last birthday?	Pearson Correlation	-.014**	.073**	-.063**	1			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000				
		N	90645	90738	91142	91845			
5.	Leader Values	Pearson Correlation	.389**	.426**	-.050**	.087**	1		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000			
		N	83340	83444	83230	83750	83827		
6.	Attachment	Pearson Correlation	.573**	.413**	-.022**	-.031**	.412**	1	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
		N	88998	89099	88875	89456	83554	89542	
7.	Which of the following statements best reflects your current thoughts about working for your agency?	Pearson Correlation	-.425**	-.313**	.069**	.075**	-.271**	-.454**	1
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
		N	85443	85540	85346	85886	83416	85618	85966

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).,

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

I can see from the table above that the positively framed measures (Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation, for example) are negatively correlated with my measure of Anticipated Tenure (Which of the following statements best reflects your current thoughts about working for your agency?). This is due to the fact that for most measures in the model, higher reflects a better or more desireable situation, for the Anticipated Tenure the opposite is true. This measure could have been recoded, but I rather note this here for later reference.

Table 29: Anticipated Tenure - Which of the following statements best reflects

your current thoughts about working for your agency?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	I want to leave my agency as soon as possible	5006	5.4	5.8	5.8
	I want to leave my agency within the next 12 months	6010	6.5	7.0	12.8
	I want to leave my agency within the next 12 months but feel it will be unlikely in the current environment	13188	14.3	15.3	28.2
	I want to stay working for my agency for the next one to two years	18871	20.5	22.0	50.1
	I want to stay working for my agency for at least the next three years	42891	46.7	49.9	100.0
	Total	85966	93.5	100.0	
Missing	System	5971	6.5		
Total		91937	100.0		

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

Model 1

For this study I undertake two OLS regression analyses. The first explores the dependent variable of Attachment and the second explores the dependent variable of anticipated future tenure in the APS.

The following table reports the findings of my initial linear regression analyses for the dependent variable *Attachment*. I conducted a stepwise arrangement with the focal independent variable Leader Values introduced in the second step.

All variables are significant ($p < 0.05$) in the second step model. I note that *Extrinsic Motivation* and *Intrinsic Motivation* both positively predict *Attachment*. Females are slightly more attached than males, and older workers become less attached as they age. Employee perceptions of *Leader Values* positively and significantly predicts *Attachment.*

Table 30: Model 1 – Predicting Attachment

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.092	.013		6.997	.000
	Intrinsic Factor	.487	.003	.487	147.467	.000
	Extrinsic Factor	.164	.003	.164	49.376	.000
	What is your gender? (Male =1, Female = 2)	.010	.006	.005	1.807	.071
	How old were you at your last birthday?	-.017	.001	-.036	-12.699	.000
2	(Constant)	.125	.013		9.748	.000
	Intrinsic Factor	.440	.003	.440	133.123	.000
	Extrinsic Factor	.105	.003	.104	31.007	.000
	What is your gender? (Male =1, Female = 2)	.015	.006	.007	2.660	.008
	How old were you at your last birthday?	-.024	.001	-.050	-17.865	.000
	Leader Values	.200	.003	.200	63.988	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Attachment

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

The following table summarises the overall model fit of the two regression models applied. I note an overall improvement in the model between steps 1 and 2 (p <0.05).

Table 31: Model 1 Summary Statistics

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.589[a]	.347	.347	.807
2	.615[b]	.378	.378	.787

a. Predictors: (Constant), How old were you at your last birthday? Intrinsic Factor, What is your gender? Extrinsic Factor

b. Predictors: (Constant), How old were you at your last birthday? Intrinsic Factor, What is your gender? Extrinsic Factor, Leader Values

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

In the following table I introduce an interaction term to assess whether *Leader Values* moderates the impact of *Intrinsic Values* on *Attachment.* I note a small but significant (p < 0.05) coefficient for the interaction term in the model below.

Table 32: Model 1 with Moderation – Predicting Attachment

Model	Beta	Std. Error	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
(Constant)	0.137	0.013	10.636	0	0.112	0.162
Intrinsic	0.448	0.003	132.459	0	0.441	0.454
Leader Values	0.205	0.003	64.894	0	0.199	0.211
Intrinsic x Leader Values	-0.027	0.002	-10.938	0	-0.031	-0.022
Extrinsic	0.103	0.003	30.521	0	0.096	0.11
What is your gender? (Male =1, Female = 2)	0.013	0.006	2.364	0.018	0.002	0.024
How old were you at your last birthday?	-0.024	0.001	-17.728	0	-0.026	-0.021

$N = 82092$, $R = .615$, $R^2 = .379$, $p < 0.001$

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

A negative directionality of this interaction term suggests a convergence of effect as the moderator increases in size/scale. This can be interpreted more easily on the following figure.

Figure 5: Interaction of Intrinsic Values and Leader Values in Predicting

Attachment
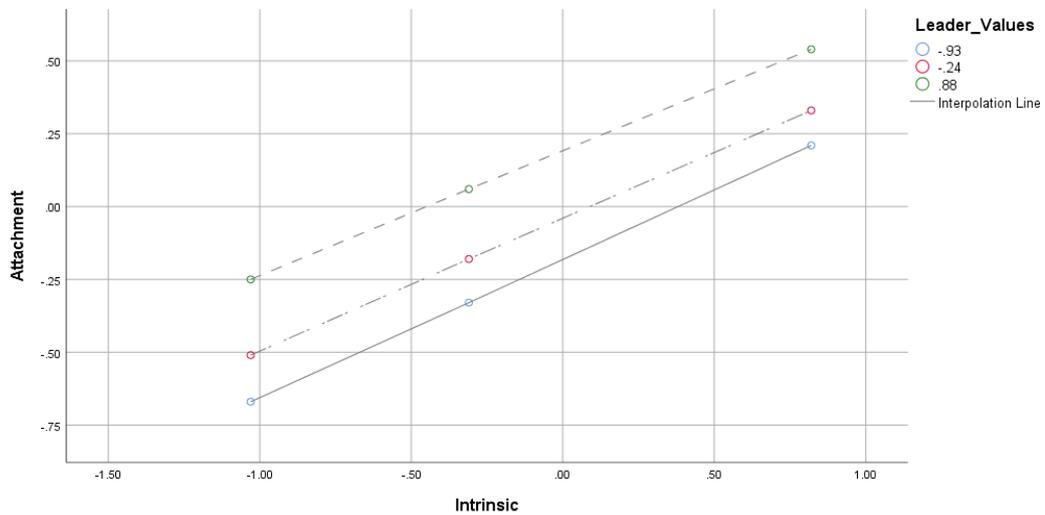
 Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

The following table provides further information of the conditional effects of the interaction of *Leader Values* and *Intrinsic Rewards* preference on predicting *Attachment*. I note that across the range of *Leader Values* the interaction term remains significant. The decline in the arithmetic value of the effect size as *Leader Values* increases illustrates the convergence between point estimates for the overall model as *Intrinsic Rewards* preference increases.

The divergence can be interpreted thus. At more positive levels of *Intrinsic Motivation*, a more positive view of *Leader Values* accentuates the impact of this *Intrinsic Motivation* to enhance *Attachment.* This effect is evident in the next table.

Table 33: Model 1 Moderation Probe - Conditional Effect of Focal Predictor at

Values of the Moderator

Leader Values	Effect	Std. Error	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-1.353	0.484	0.005	93.004	0	0.473	0.494
-1.095	0.477	0.005	100.755	0	0.467	0.486
-0.837	0.47	0.004	109.165	0	0.461	0.478
-0.579	0.463	0.004	117.786	0	0.455	0.471
-0.321	0.456	0.004	125.713	0	0.449	0.463
-0.064	0.449	0.003	131.536	0	0.443	0.456
0.194	0.442	0.003	133.665	0	0.436	0.449
0.452	0.436	0.003	131.137	0	0.429	0.442
0.71	0.429	0.003	124.295	0	0.422	0.435
0.968	0.422	0.004	114.608	0	0.415	0.429
1.225	0.415	0.004	103.787	0	0.407	0.423
1.483	0.408	0.004	93.105	0	0.4	0.417
1.741	0.401	0.005	83.254	0	0.392	0.411
1.999	0.394	0.005	74.491	0	0.384	0.405
2.257	0.388	0.006	66.834	0	0.376	0.399
2.514	0.381	0.006	60.189	0	0.368	0.393
2.772	0.374	0.007	54.429	0	0.36	0.387
3.03	0.367	0.007	49.425	0	0.352	0.381
3.288	0.36	0.008	45.059	0	0.344	0.376
3.546	0.353	0.009	41.23	0	0.336	0.37
3.803	0.346	0.009	37.856	0	0.328	0.364

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

I note (above) that the lower Leader Values scores (indicative of a better perception of leader values) sees a greater coefficient of interaction than the higher scores (indicative of perceived worse managerial behaviour by responders.

Model 2

I then moved forward, re-running the prior analysis with a separate but related dependent variable – Anticipated Tenure. There were five potential responses to this question, as follows:

- I want to leave my agency as soon as possible

- I want to leave my agency within the next 12 months

- I want to leave my agency within the next 12 months but feel it will be unlikely in the current environment

- I want to stay working for my agency for the next one to two years

- I want to stay working for my agency for at least the next three years

As mentioned previously, the directionality of this variable is the opposite of the prior dependent variable with 1 being the most negative response and 5 being the most positive option. As such a negative directionality of the coefficients below can be interpreted as being more "positive" in terms of the relationship between the predictor and the outcome.

I note in the second model (Step 2) that all of my derived factors report a significant and negative directionality. This suggests that higher Intrinsic and Extrinsic

Motivation and higher Attachment and Leader Values predict a lower intention to depart the organization. In the model, females are more likely to have a shorter time horizon than males ($p < 0.05$) and the time horizon for departure tends to shorten as employees age.

Table 34: Model 2 – Predicting Anticipated Tenure

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3.569	.017		210.789	.000
	Intrinsic	-.253	.005	-.210	-53.010	.000
	Extrinsic	-.100	.004	-.083	-23.060	.000
	q1. What is your gender? (Male =1, Female = 2)	.129	.007	.053	17.330	.000
	q2. How old were you at your last birthday?	.041	.002	.071	23.328	.000
	Attachment	-.355	.004	-.295	-79.128	.000
2	(Constant)	3.558	.017		210.148	.000
	Intrinsic	-.246	.005	-.204	-51.332	.000
	Extrinsic	-.085	.004	-.071	-19.043	.000
	What is your gender? (Male =1, Female = 2)	.127	.007	.052	17.153	.000
	How old were you at your last birthday?	.043	.002	.075	24.477	.000
	Attachment	-.341	.005	-.284	-74.313	.000
	Leader Values	-.058	.004	-.048	-13.761	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Which of the following statements best reflects your current thoughts about working for your agency?

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

I note in the following table that the overall model provides a good level of prediction of the variance in the dependent variable ($R2 = .259$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 35: Model 2 Summary Statistics

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.508[a]	.258	.258	1.036
2	.509[b]	.259	.259	1.035

a. Predictors: (Constant), Attachment, q1. What is your gender? q2. How old were you at your last birthday? Extrinsic Factor, Intrinsic Factor

b. Predictors: (Constant), Attachment, q1. What is your gender? q2. How old were you at your last birthday? Extrinsic Factor, Intrinsic Factor, Leader Values

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

In the following table, the interaction between Intrinsic Values and Leader Values is introduced. This interaction term is shown to be significant (-0.05, $p < 0.05$). The addition of the interaction term also significantly improves the overall model fit (R^2 change $= 0.003$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 36: Model 2 with Moderation – Predicting Anticipated Tenure

Model	Beta	Std. Error	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
(Constant)	3.581	0.017	211.035	0	3.548	3.614
Intrinsic	-0.230	0.005	-46.943	0	-0.24	-0.22
Leader Values	-0.050	0.004	-11.669	0	-0.058	-0.041
Intrinsic x Leader Values	-0.050	0.003	-15.689	0	-0.057	-0.044
Extrinsic	-0.088	0.004	-19.679	0	-0.097	-0.079
What is your gender? (Male =1, Female = 2)	0.124	0.007	16.748	0	0.109	0.138
How old were you at your last birthday?	0.043	0.002	24.688	0	0.04	0.047
Attachment	-0.344	0.005	-74.965	0	-0.353	-0.335

N = 82092, R = .512, R^2 = .262, p < 0.001

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

Probing the conditional effects of the interaction of *Leader Values* and *Intrinsic Rewards* preference on predicting *Tenure,* I note that across the range of *Leader*

Values the interaction term remains significant. The increase in the arithmetic value of the effect size as *Leader Values* increases illustrates the divergence between point estimates for the overall model as *Intrinsic Rewards* preference increases.

Table 37: Model 2 Moderation Probe - Conditional Effect of Focal Predictor at

Values of the Moderator - Predicting Anticipated Tenure

Leader Values	Effect	Std. Error	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-1.353	-0.162	0.007	-22.505	0	-0.176	-0.148
-1.095	-0.175	0.007	-26.494	0	-0.188	-0.162
-0.837	-0.188	0.006	-30.99	0	-0.2	-0.176
-0.579	-0.201	0.006	-35.905	0	-0.212	-0.19
-0.321	-0.214	0.005	-41.001	0	-0.224	-0.204
-0.064	-0.227	0.005	-45.85	0	-0.236	-0.217
0.194	-0.24	0.005	-49.88	0	-0.249	-0.23
0.452	-0.253	0.005	-52.573	0	-0.262	-0.243
0.71	-0.266	0.005	-53.701	0	-0.275	-0.256
0.968	-0.279	0.005	-53.415	0	-0.289	-0.268
1.225	-0.292	0.006	-52.109	0	-0.303	-0.281
1.483	-0.305	0.006	-50.217	0	-0.316	-0.293
1.741	-0.318	0.007	-48.078	0	-0.33	-0.305
1.999	-0.33	0.007	-45.911	0	-0.345	-0.316
2.257	-0.343	0.008	-43.836	0	-0.359	-0.328
2.514	-0.356	0.009	-41.912	0	-0.373	-0.34
2.772	-0.369	0.009	-40.155	0	-0.387	-0.351
3.03	-0.382	0.01	-38.567	0	-0.402	-0.363
3.288	-0.395	0.011	-37.136	0	-0.416	-0.374
3.546	-0.408	0.011	-35.848	0	-0.431	-0.386
3.803	-0.421	0.012	-34.688	0	-0.445	-0.397

Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

This divergence effect can be interpreted in the following figure. I note that as Intrinsic Motivation increases coupled with a higher Leader Values score. At higher (worse) levels of Intrinsic Motivation, better (lower) levels of Leader Values tend to buffer employees' anticipated tenure rating. This can be interpreted that Leader Values become a more important determinant of intention to depart as employees feel less intrinsically motivated.

Figure 6: Interaction of Intrinsic Values and Leader Values in Predicting Anticipated Tenure
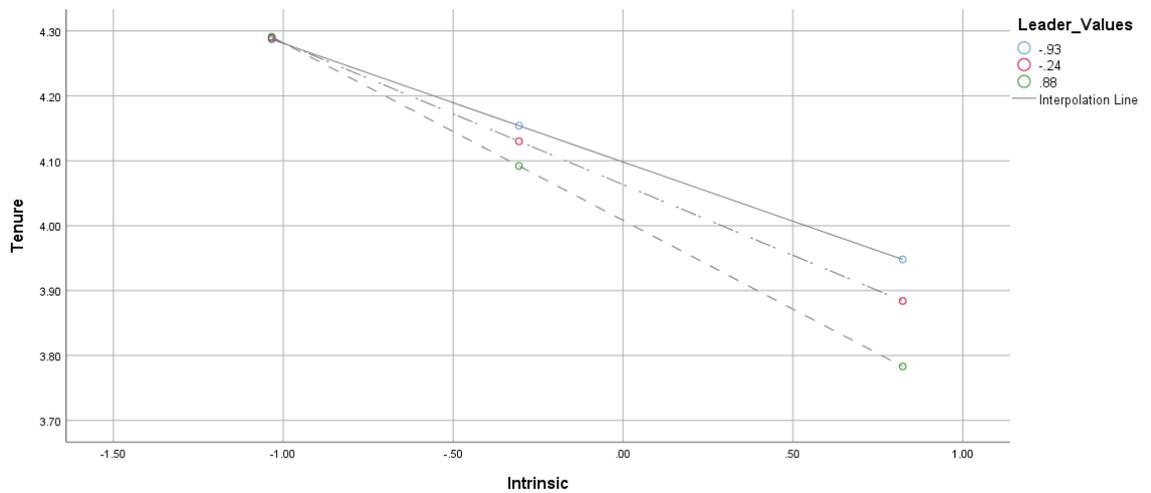
Data Source: APS State of the Service Survey

5.1.4 Discussion

The above evidence, assembled to demonstrate the various processes required of OLS regression analysis employing exploratory factor analysis, provides evidence that in the Australian Public Service sample values of senior employees and managers matter significantly in the formation of employee attachment and the intended length of future tenure at work.

Perceived values of leaders – senior and more direct – tend to improve a variety of attitudinal and behavioural outcomes among employees. Intrinsic motivation among employees is a strong predictor of both attachment and anticipated tenure. When intrinsic motivation among employees is low, the perceived values among managerial employees held by those junior employees tends to buffer their intention to depart from the organisation.

Security is a precious asset. It should be a goal of everyone who genuinely wants to build a good society rather than one that facilitates the aggrandizement of a privileged elite who knowingly gain from the insecurities of others.

Guy Standing, 1948 -

5.2 Study 2 - What Employees Value and their Participation in the temporary contract employment market.

5.2.1 Introduction

An increasing number of workers across a wide range of sectors are finding themselves employed under non-traditional arrangements. These workers, often referred to as 'gig' workers are employed by organisations to complete a task within a defined timeframe at the end of which their connection to the organisation is terminated. A review of the literature around this 'gig' economy highlights a number of opposing opinions as to why these new arrangements have arisen and why the number of workers employed under these arrangements continues to grow (Hawley, 2018).

Broadly debate protagonists relating to gig employment occupy two camps. For one camp the rise of gig jobs is a sign of the rise of precarious employment. This view sees little of benefit from gig work for the workers themselves. The creation of such jobs is seen to facilitate the destruction of traditional and long established workers' rights (Fleming, 2017; Hill 2015).

The second camp see gig work as a natural progression of the labour market away from highly centralised and inflexible arrangements towards a more flexible labour market (Bevan, Brinkley, Cooper & Bajorek, 2018; Kwok, 2017). As the internet has risen to be the central organising technology of the world economy it has allowed for the development of what have become platform firms – organisations like eBay and

Amazon in retail, Airbnb in hospitality and Freelancer.com and Uber in services that are able to match buyers and sellers for goods and services with far fewer transaction costs than have traditionally been seen (Langley & Leyshon, 2017).

5.2.2   The Uber Example

An example of a large and emergent employer of gig workers is Uber. Uber was established in San Francisco in 2009 as a ridesharing company. Ridesharing is a simple idea – the owners of cars could use their spare time to drive riders around, with payment for their time provided by riders who did not want to own cars. The matching of riders and drivers would be done through an automated, web enabled and mobile reservations system. The booking, information transmission and payment would all be undertaken seamlessly and almost instantly using smartphones and a central, cloud-based, reservations system (Stone, 2017).

The internet provided the technology to organize (potentially) a massive network of riders and drivers. It was the uptake of smartphones in the US that added the final spark that converted the idea into a viable business. Smartphone sales in the US doubled from USD 5.2b to USD 10.4b between 2006 and 2008. These phones ran 'apps' - programs hosted on the phones, often employing location or proximity technology – to meet user needs. This location-based technology was a key to Uber's success. By using the phones' location-based capabilities drivers and riders could locate each other easily. By integrating payment into the platform, riders would be able to pay online and not worry about carrying cash or tipping.

The market, on both the seller and buyer side, seemed assured. While many Americans own cars, those cars spend up to 99% or more of their time parked in expensive parking garages, with this especially true in built up areas where commutes are short. Those cars, however, depreciate and require costly maintenance. Getting better use from them as an asset would be attractive to owners. Not having to own one at all would be attractive to many potential riders.

Uber was one of the earliest, and has become one of the most prominent, exponents of the 'gig economy'. The gig economy suggests that many workers are keen and able to sacrifice some of the certainty of full time work and undertake instead a variety of work 'gigs'. Uber had claimed that drivers could earn up to USD50k per annum, although this claim was soon questioned. Indeed, the earnings that Uber drivers actually garner after all costs are met is becoming a major irritant for Uber. In some markets (New York for example) it has been accused of a 'race to the bottom' in terms of what it and other rider sharing companies can pay its drivers.

Objectively, both camps have their points to make. A Marxist view of platform-based employers like Uber provides a darkly stark picture. Uber exercises almost total control over workers through their control of the access between customers and employees. Workers are paid piece rates under arrangements under the complete discretion of Uber (Lobel, 2017). Further, Uber eschews the notion of their drivers being employees, preferring instead the legal status of independent contractors, with the inherent limitations of liabilities and entitlements that such status provides (Lawler & Willey, 2017).

Uber, however, provides a marvellous example of how distributed technology can facilitate improved efficiencies in industries like transportation. In key markets Uber has sufficient riders and drivers to immediately aggregate travellers along the same route pattern into groups of two or three – enhancing revenues and reducing waste. Uber's riders can opt to travel alone from where they are located or to travel in groups after being picked up a block or two away.

5.2.3 Where is Gig Labor Employed?

Friedman (2014) notes that while some gig workers are young and well educated and employed in jobs utilising advanced technologies, a common perception, the majority of gig workers are employed in labor–intensive work in sectors such as construction. There has been a longstanding prevalence of what are now thought of as gig workers in industries like construction due to the historical path-dependencies associated with the licensed trades (like plumbing and carpentry) which were often organised around individual contractors (Eccles, 1981).

This is not to say that gig workers are not commonly found in sectors associated with highly skilled and higher paid work. These types of roles, in fact, that were once almost entirely located within larger firms and organisations are increasingly subject to individual contracting. However, the majority of gig labor is found in sectors where skill competence is generally lower and hence lower remuneration.

Friedman also notes that since 2001 the greatest growth in employment in the US has been around workers employed under non-traditional work arrangements. While the great majority of US workers are still employed under traditional arrangements, this

is slowly but steadily changing. He believes that the sectors identified in his research as employing few gig workers are sectors where worker organisations (unions) are relatively strong compared to other sectors where gig work is more common and growing. This could suggest that it is employers rather than employees who are keen to see the move away from traditional work arrangements to gig or non-traditional work arrangements.

It has often been suggested that technology is a driver of gig work arrangements. However, Friedman's (2014) research demonstrates that gig labour can be found in both high and low technology sectors and as such it is unlikely that technology alone is a driver for these more non-traditional work arrangements. In fact, gig labour can be found in a wide and diverse range of sectors and these include occupations in both high and low technology sectors.

It has further been advocated that in general, workers under these gig arrangements are disadvantaged compared to similarly skilled and educated workers employed under more traditional work arrangements. Certainly, from Freidman's (2014) research this appears to be the case. He suggests that the main benefactors of this new approach to work arrangement are a minority of middle-aged and well-educated workers employed as independent contractors and more broadly employers or companies who profit from lower labor costs as result of reduced benefits being provided. He states that here age and education level impact workers earning ability, with younger and less well-educated workers fairing the worst under these non-traditional arrangements.

Despite this discrepancy between what gig workers and traditionally employed workers earn, it has been proposed that gig work is still preferred by some workers. The reasons for this preference include flexibility, freedom to choose projects/tasks, ability to work from home or from other places not considered a traditional workspace. In addition, entrepreneurial intention was intimated as a key motivator for gig employment in younger workers.

The reality is that the majority of gig workers only achieve these non-traditional benefits at the expense of more traditional benefits and only a minority of gig workers enjoy both these non-traditional benefits in addition to high earnings. Friedman's (2014) found that a large contingent of gig workers in the current economic environment would prefer a return to more traditional employment conditions. Yet the gig economy continues to expand. This could be seen as a further indication that employers rather than workers supporting this change in employment relationships.

From this research of the currently available literature, it became clear that a key issue confronting gig workers was a trade-off between their capacity to determine issues associated with the job itself (what to do, when to do it, and for whom) and job security. There is a clear trade-off available for workers entering this type of employment, and I wanted to explore the interplay of these choices in developing a better understanding of why workers choose gig careers. As such, the following hypothesis was developed:

> *H1: A preference for job security moderates a preference for the work itself in predicting the likelihood of choosing a gig employment relationship?*

5.2.4 Empirical Analysis

In the following section I provide an analysis of Australian data that explores the work-related values of workers who hold a 'gig job' in Australia. I draw upon the AWRS survey to support this analysis.

The AWRS reports data from 5,038 employees. To ensure the sample was not biased by outliers I decided to screen the sample for employees who reported an hourly wage or earnings under $500 but above $0. There were many self-employed workers in the sample who did not report earning and there were also a significant number who reported very high weekly earnings. These were excluded from the analysis. I also only selected those employees who reported that they were employed on a fixed term contract and worked at least ten hours in the month. This screening reduced the sample to 3,335 respondents.

Table 38: Method of Setting Pay

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Negotiated amount with my employer	1921	38.1	41.3	41.3
	By an enterprise agreement (EBA)	691	13.7	14.9	56.2
	By an award (i.e. the relevant pay rate contained in the award, and no more)	1095	21.7	23.6	79.8
	My employer offered me an amount that was more than the award/standard rate,	941	18.7	20.2	100.0
	Total	4648	92.3	100.0	
Missing	Other	25	.5		
	MISSING IN ERROR	22	.4		
	Don't know	343	6.8		
	Total	390	7.7		
Total		5038	100.0		

Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014

My dichotomous gig worker variable was thus all employees who were working on a fixed term contract and reported yes to one of the following means of setting pay – either they negotiated an amount with their employer or their employer offered them an amount that was more than the award/standard rate. Of this group, 92 were deemed to have gig employment and 3263 were not.

The following table provides evidence in relation to binary correlations between the variables. I note that gig workers tended to work fewer hours than other employees. Attitudinally, in relation to what they looked for in a job, gig workers tended to have

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a lower preference for job security and hours worked than others, but a higher

preference for freedom to decide at work, the work itself and a say in the job.

Table 39: Pearson Correlation for All Study Variables

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.	GigJob	-	.027	.028	-.010	-.002	.043*	.039*	-.017	-.036*	.050**	-.038*
2.	Age		-	-.042*	-.002	-.040*	.139**	.066*	-.233**	-.007	.032	.016
3.	Gender (M = 1, F = 2)			-	.018	.127**	.046**	-.072**	-.083**	-.039*	.012	.105**
4.	Highest Education				-	-.028	-.020	-.013	.012	.023	.001	.032
5.	Work Life Balance					-	-.067**	-.148**	-.193**	-.229**	-.270**	-.045**
6.	Freedom to Decide at Work						-	.095**	-.251**	-.215**	-.086**	-.190**
7.	Say in Job							-	-.153**	-.123**	-.076**	-.144**
8.	Total Pay								-	.005	-.148**	-.096**
9.	Job Security									-	-.185**	-.120**
10.	Work Itself										-	-.094**
11.	Hours Worked											-

Gender is coded 1 for male and 2 for female. The 'highest education' variable is coded 1 for Master's or higher to 6 for secondary school only. Correlation significant at $p < 0.05$ * and $p < 0.01$ level ** (2-tailed).

Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014.

Table 40: Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	S.D.
Age	40.78	12.48
Gender (Female = 2)	1.57	.495
Highest education	4.77	24.332
Work Life Balance	2.30	1.30
Freedom to Decide at Work	1.64	1.00
Say in Job	1.35	0.77
Total pay	2.01	1.13
Job security	1.90	1.15
Work itself	1.98	1.18
Hours worked	1.54	0.89

The 'highest education' variable is coded 1 for Master's or higher to 6 for secondary school only. Valued outcomes are graded from 4 (most important), 3 (second most important), 2 (third most important) to 1 (not mentioned).

Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014.

The following page provides a binary logistic regression analysis of the job preference related predictors of holding a gig job. I note that higher education levels tend to be strong positive predictors of holding such a role, while a focus on 'the work itself' as an attractor to a specific job also being a positive predictor of holding such a role.

A preference for job security was, as may be expected given the tenuous nature of the working relationships involved in gig work, a negative and marginally significant predictor of holding a gig job ($p < 0.10$).

*Table 41: Results of Logistic Regression Predicting Holding Gig Job*

	Beta	S.E.	z	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	-6.2152	1.8208	-3.4135	0.0006	-9.7838	-2.6466
Control Variables						
Age	0.0142	0.0090	1.5785	0.1144	-0.0034	0.0319
Gender (Male – 1; Female -2)	0.3696	0.2240	1.6500	0.0989	-0.0694	0.8087
Highest education	-0.2343	0.0656	-3.5721	0.0004	-0.3629	-0.1057
Predictors of Gig Job						
Work Life Balance	0.1200	0.1483	0.8090	0.4185	-0.1707	0.4107
Freedom to Decide at Work	0.2586	0.1566	1.7006	0.0902	-0.0144	0.1962
Say in Job	0.3001	0.1698	1.7677	0.0771	-0.0326	0.6329
Total pay	0.1478	0.1581	0.9345	0.3500	-0.1622	0.4578
Job security	0.4373	0.2371	1.8443	0.0651	-0.0274	0.9020
Work itself	0.5911	0.2115	2.7946	0.0052	0.1765	1.0057
Hours worked	-0.1895	0.1935	-0.9792	0.3275	-0.5687	0.1898
Interaction Effects						
Job Security * Work Itself	0.0051	0.0028	1.8133	0.0710	-0.0004	0.0106

Model summary: $p = 0.0005$, McFadden = .0411, Nagelkirk = 0.0463, n = 3179

Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014.

I wished to focus some attention on this interaction to better understand how a preference for the work itself interacted with a preference for job security to predict the holding of a gig job. The pattern of moderation or integration is illustrated below.

Figure 7: Interactions of Job Security and the Work Itself in Predicting Gig Jobs
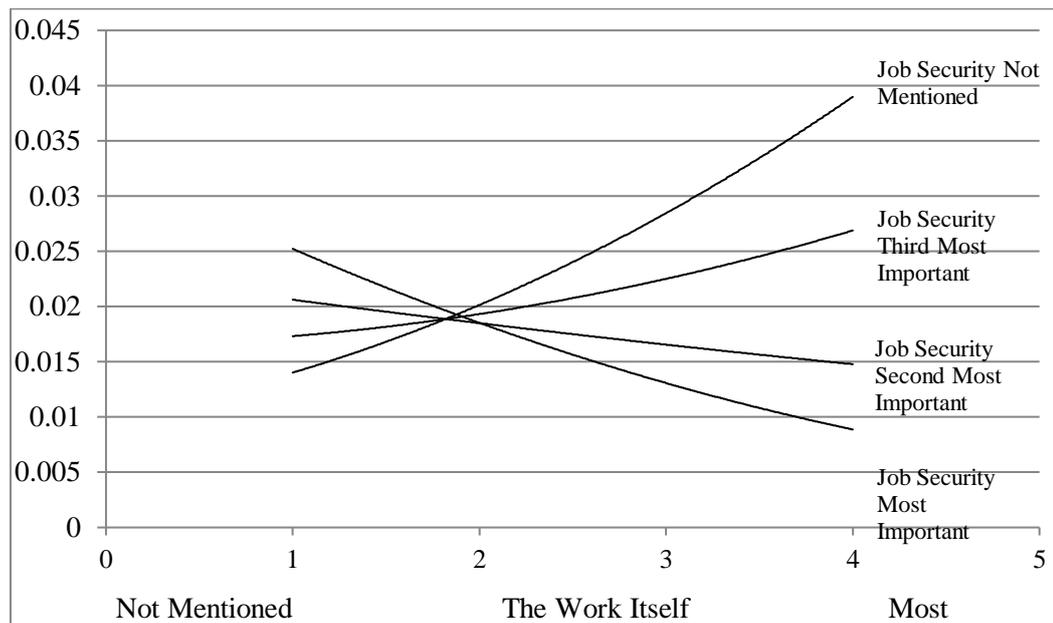
Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014.

As can be seen, when employees rate job security among their top three concerns in relation to a job, the prevalence of holding a gig job drops considerably. When job security is the most important element of the job, the point estimate for the model rests under 1%. When job security is not mentioned among the top 3 concerns of the employee, the rate of gig employment increases almost fourfold to around 4%.

There is a fountain of youth: it is your mind, your talents, the creativity you bring to

your life and the lives of people you love. When you learn to tap this source, you

will truly have defeated age.

Sophia Loren, 1934 - .

5.3 Study 3 - Employee Age, Work-based Values and Job Satisfaction in the Healthcare Sector

5.3.1 Introduction

Age diversity in organisations' workforces presents a number of challenges. However, if managed appropriately these challenges may present opportunities to tailor workplace arrangements to better suit the preferences of individual age groups. Traditionally, HR policies in organizations have tended to adopt a universal application for all staff. This approach innately assumes that all employees have the same values and preferences in the workplace. However, with mounting research in the area of workforce diversity, there is convincing evidence to suggest that differences in workplace values and preferences exist among employees. In turn, these differences interact with those policies to impact factors such as job satisfaction and intention to stay.

In many sectors of the economy there is an increasing need to attract and retain older workers. As such, findings from research into differences between groups of employees based on their age could potentially have practical implications for the HR policies of organisations. This is especially relevant in sectors with an older average workforce, such as the healthcare and social assistance sector.

This research aims to contribute to the growing body of research that looks at the moderating effect of age on the drivers of job satisfaction. I test several hypotheses to improve our understanding of how the relationship between job security, work autonomy and job satisfaction are moderated by age. The practical contribution of

this approach is to improve the tailoring of HR programs to better meet the needs of all workers in organisations, with a specific intention of retaining and attracting older workers.

5.3.2. The Healthcare Context

The healthcare and social assistance sector was chosen for this research for a number of reasons. The sector is expanding globally, due in part to the move towards a service-based economy in many developed nations. Relatedly, an ageing population, driven in part by improved healthcare technology and standards, is increasing the demand for health services, especially amongst the elderly. This is leading to a concomitant increase in demand for skilled healthcare and social assistance workers. In Australia, for example, the Federal Department of Employment (Department of Employment, 2017) has projected growth of more than 250,000 jobs in the five years leading to 2021 in these sectors.

Coupled with this net growth in new roles is a significant challenge driven by departures from the workforce by older healthcare and social assistance workers. In Australia and elsewhere the baby-boom generation born from 1946 to 1964 are exiting the labour market through retirement. The youngest among these (those born in 1964 for example) are approaching their mid-50s in 2017 with retirement a viable and attractive option for many.

From a sectoral point of view, keeping as many of these mature workers in the healthcare labour pool is an important challenge. Their experience and skills are both

positive for organisations seeking to maintain a competent workforce (Auerbach, Buerhaus & Staiger, 2014).

The types of employees I included in my research are employed by enterprises and organisations in the healthcare and social assistance sector. It can be argued that these sectors employ a diverse range of professionals and other workers to meet the complex needs of their clients. As such I adopt a fairly wide definition of professional and non-professional roles in sub-sampling for this study.

Much of the current research exploring workplace diversity focuses on generational differences. Lyons & Kuron (2013) note, however, that simplification of values by generations is problematic. Attributing certain generations (baby-boomers and Generation X, as examples) with certain shared values, they note, has been a popular notion. This research area is, however, fraught with measurement difficulties. One key challenge relates to the "age–period–cohort" issue. In my example, variance with the work and life values of those born in 1960 (baby boomers) with 1970 (Generation X) may be better explained by age-related factors than in any innate variation in values.

To confuse matters further they note potential cohort effects, with those growing to emotional maturity in the relatively different era of the 1960s being exposed to different cultural cues than those reaching maturity in the 1980s. These cohort effects would indeed be supportive of the idea that different generations exhibit different fundamental values. Indeed, such variance must have a root cause within the social and economic context within which generations emerge in the absence of some other biological explanation.

Noting these concerns, I avoid any fundamental generational archetypes in this research, relying instead on age as a continuous and objectively measurable construct. Generations' research, however, forms an important background to my paper.

My results confirm differences between younger and older workers when examining the interaction of age, job security and job autonomy on satisfaction. In addition, I found that workers in the healthcare and social assistance sectors become less satisfied with their work as they age. My results suggest the need for ongoing research in this area, specifically exploring the interrelationship between attitudinal factors in order to extend our understanding of what drives satisfaction at the individual level. Additionally, my findings are particularly apposite for sectors such as healthcare and social assistance where the workforce has a higher age than is the case for the overall workforce.

The surety of human life's finite nature provides ample reason for a change in attitudes towards work and leisure as we age (Hirschi, Herrmann, Nagy & Spurk, 2016). The labour path of most workers proceeds through education, early work years, career stabilisation and progression towards eventual retirement. Even as the notion of a similar job for life has decreased in importance, career progression is still viewed as an important element of work life – even if between sectors of work and specific occupations (da Silva, Trevisan, Veloso & Dutra, 2016; Kuron, Lyons, Schweitzer & Ng, 2015).

Much research suggests that what employees value changes as they age. Stynen, Forrier & Sels (2014), for example, note that older workers are generally less

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attentive to maximising remuneration than is the case for younger workers. As their self-perceived tenure in the workforce declines, older workers tend to be more stable in their workplace, even when the perceived remunerative benefits of moving employer are noted.

Armstrong-Stassen (2008) frames this workforce stability in a somewhat negative light, noting that older workers tend to experience both structural (hierarchical) and content (job content) plateauing. This indicates a strong inertial effect on the upward trajectory of older workers' careers combined with a narrowing of their horizontal work flexibility. Whether these effects are driven primarily by organisational systems and restrictions, or by a change in the level of ambition of older workers, or by some combination of these and other factors, is moot. Nonetheless, there is strong evidence that the innate relationship between older workers and their work differs considerably from this relationship among younger workers.

Older workers are, however, not a homogeneous group. Among older workers, organisations see a variety of skills and degrees of commitment. Maintaining a flexible and responsive set of policies relating to older workers will clearly tend to enhance how engaged they are at work and thus the mutual benefits available from their employment (Claes & Heymans, 2008).

While there is a significant amount of research which explores the effect of generational differences on employees' work values and job satisfaction, the evidence from this research is often conflicting. Some explanation for these mixed results may include the failure to account for differences in national contexts between studies, the role of ethnicities and gender. Another inconsistency in generational

research is the lack of agreement on generational labels and the corresponding years the labels encompass (Smola & Sutton 2002).

In a landmark study in 2010, Jean Twenge and colleagues (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010) investigated three representative samples of American high school seniors from 1976, 1991, and 2006 (N = 16,507) representing in turn Baby Boomers, Generation X (GenX), and Generation Me (or Millennials). They found that while some attitudes persisted, others changed. For example, leisure value preference increased among the latter two generations while work centrality preference steadily declined. Other changes were non-monotonic – for example, extrinsic value preference declined from GenX to GenMe, but both values were higher than those reported by Baby Boomers.

Given that the evidence from research on generational differences in work values and satisfaction is often inconclusive, the case for generational differences impacting employees' preferences and values is not yet convincing (Drabe, Hauff & Richter, 2015). Noting this, I have chosen to adopt age as a continuous variable in my study, rather than rely on generational categories. In making this choice, I note that the idea that employees have different work values and preferences dependent on their age remains a useful idea for HR managers/programs.

5.3.3   Perceived Employer Loyalty and Job Satisfaction

In their review of the 'generations at work' literature, Lyons & Kuron (2013) note a preponderance of research that suggests that younger workers are more neurotic and

narcissistic than their elders while also exhibiting lower levels of self-assuredness and achievement orientation.

Taken together these findings might suggest a lower sense of employer loyalty or obligation among successive generations. Indeed, the wider and more expressive career interests of younger workers would tend to predispose them to a wider array of potential jobs, employers and occupations over their work lives (Lyons, Schweitzer & Ng, 2015).

If this is an emerging predisposition among young workers, it is supplemented by the demise of the 'jobs for life' model and the rise of what has been termed 'the precariat' (Standing, 2016). Where once working for an employer for life was seen as desirable and a normal state of affairs, younger works are more amenable to flexibility in terms of employers and roles – both by necessity and by disposition.

For older workers, the meaning of work changes as their financial means become more settled and robust. Self-selection may tend to occur as older workers who derive certain innate satisfaction from their work tend to persist longer in the workforce compared to those who dislike their work. The concurrence of older age and active workforce participation tends to be associated with a greater degree of perceived security in the job and a willingness to share skills and knowledge with younger and emerging workers who may hitherto have been seen as 'competitors' for status and other benefits (Templer, Armstrong-Stassen & Cattaneo, 2010).

> *H1:* Age will moderate perceived job security in a positive (divergent) fashion such that for older workers, higher job security will be a stronger

positive predictor of overall job satisfaction than will be the case for younger workers.

5.3.4 Perceived Self-Agency and Autonomy and Job Satisfaction

Enhanced autonomy at work – or greater say in how a job will be undertaken – has generally been seen to have positive motivational impacts (Humphrey, Nahgang & Morgenson, 2007). This might tend to be exacerbated in stressful roles, or where employees are particularly susceptible to stress (Wall, Jackson, Mullarkey & Parker, 1996).

A number of recent studies have considered how older workers respond to enhanced autonomy and personal agency at work. Ng & Feldman (2014), for example, in a meta-analysis of previous studies, found that job autonomy tended to predict both job self-efficacy and job performance for older workers more than was the case for younger workers. They note, however, that there are few evident downsides to enhanced employee autonomy where such arrangements are practicable:

> *granting employees more autonomy is likely to have positive effects on their job motivation, job attitudes, job behaviors, and well-being. In general, then, it is reasonable to redesign jobs and develop additional empowerment practices to enhance employee motivation* (Ng & Feldman, 2014: 76).

Interestingly, however they noted that the predictive relationships of job autonomy to both job satisfaction and to affective commitment tended to weaken as employees became older. While not necessarily conflicting, these resultant variations of understanding emerge from what the authors note is conflicted intellectual terrain.

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Supporting this notion that older workers value heightened autonomy, Ng & Feldman (2014) note that enhanced task variety and more elaborate social networks at work assist older workers as they manage a wider set of tasks and work relationships. From the organisational point of view, steps can be taken to enhance specific job flexibility to rebalance job roles towards sets of tasks and skills utilisations (in the formation of individual work arrangements, or 'i-deals') that are more valued by older workers (Oostrom, Pennings & Bal, 2016).

In similar vein, Münderlein, Ybema & Koster (2013) note that older workers are especially receptive to flexibility and accommodations where the physical demands of work and their own physical capabilities are not well matched. Not only are such arrangements attractive to older workers in terms of making jobs more attractive, they are also attractive for the organisation as they allow for the repackaging of specific tasks and skillsets in a flexible and organisationally-relevant manner.

> *H2:* Age will moderate perceived 'say' in how a job is done in a positive (divergent) fashion such that for older workers, higher 'say' will be a stronger positive predictor of overall job satisfaction than will be the case for younger workers.

5.3.5 Empirical Analysis

This study uses linear regression to ascertain the impact of the measures noted below on overall job satisfaction of employees in the healthcare and social assistance context. I extend the simple linear model with the addition of two interaction terms

that explore the moderating role of employee age on both (a) satisfaction with job security and (b) satisfaction with 'say' in how an employee undertakes their job.

Sample

The data for my study is drawn from a healthcare and social assistance sector subsample of the Australian Workplace Relations Survey (AWRS). The AWRS was conducted during the first half of 2014 on behalf of Australia's Fair Work Commission. It surveyed a representative sample of both employees and employers in relation to workplace and employment issues.

The data was gathered via a combination of computer-assisted telephone interviewing and surveys, both online and paper-based. Participation in the study was entirely voluntary. In the final analysis, 1,509 enterprises completed all employer components of the questionnaire and 5,038 employees within these enterprises also completed the employee version. In the context of this survey, enterprises included private and public-sector organisations and not-for-profits.

I was interested, for this study, in a subsample of the healthcare and social assistance workforce. I thus narrowed my sample to enterprises and organisations in the healthcare and social assistance sector. Within this sector, I subsampled employees whose jobs were described as (a) health professionals, (b) legal, social and welfare professionals, (c) health and welfare support workers and (d) carers and aides. After this screening, I identified a subsample of 288 respondents for this study from within the wider 5,038 AWRS respondents.

Key demographic descriptors of my sample are as follows. The mean age of my sample was 42 years, with a standard deviation (SD) of 12.75 years. The minimum age was 19 and the maximum was 73 years. Only 12.2% of my sample was male. This is in general accordance with the heavily gendered (female dominated) nature of the healthcare and social assistance workforce in Australia and elsewhere.

The mean employer tenure (that is, work with the existing employer) was 5.25 years with an SD of 5.22 years. On average respondents worked 31.72 hours per week (SD of 10.4 hours). In terms of educational qualifications, 13.9% had completed a Masters or higher postgraduate degree, 11.8% had completed a Graduate Diploma and/or Graduate Certificate postgraduate degree, 31.4% a Bachelor (undergraduate) degree, 16.4% an Advanced Diploma or Diploma vocational qualification, 20.6% a Certificate-level vocational qualification and 5.9% had completed secondary school.

I conducted a linear regression for this paper, investigating as my dependent variable (DV) the predictors of overall job satisfaction for my healthcare workforce. my model included employee age, tenure with current employer, gender, highest educational qualification completed, and hours worked per week.

Measures

Age has been shown to predict employee satisfaction generally (Wisse, van Eijbergen, Rietzschel & Shiebe, 2015) and also in the healthcare workforce (Teclaw, Osatuke, Fishman, Moore & Dyrenforth, 2014). Age is of particular relevance in healthcare and social assistance in many nations (including Australia) due to the older

profile of the workforce in comparison to the wider economy. This measure is a focal one in my study as I look both at the direct effect of age on employee satisfaction and also its interaction effects on two key determinants of job satisfaction.

Tenure with a current employer has been shown in previous studies to be a positive predictor of employee satisfaction (Lee & Way, 2010). The direction of causality may be hard to specify in this case, as satisfied employees are more likely to stay and possibly duration of employment provides employees with more surety of job security which may enhance satisfaction.

Gender has been shown to have complex and nuanced effects on job satisfaction. For example, males tend to exhibit higher aggression in the workplace an in certain organisational settings that value this trait, males tend to be more satisfied than females (Banerjee & Perrucci, 2010; Malone & Issa, 2012). In the healthcare and social assistance context, however, males tend to be a minority of the workforce and self-selection by men into this career assumed an attraction to the opportunities and rewards of the sector (Ahmad & Oranye, 2010).

Educational qualifications have a complex effect on satisfaction also. In the context of the Greek retail industry, for example, higher qualified staff tended to have lower satisfaction than those with lower educational qualifications (Giannikis & Mihail, 2011). Where there is a close match between educational qualifications in terms of content and level, however, higher qualifications tend to predict both seniority and satisfaction (Theodossiou & Zangelidis, 2009). This will tend to be the case in the health sector where registration or the right to work is tied to completion of specific higher education or (less commonly) vocational education qualifications.

Hours worked per week are also included in my model. Generally, more hours worked tend to lead to greater work and life stress, thus inhibiting job satisfaction (Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996). In the healthcare physician context, very long hours worked often predict burnout (Shanafelt *et al.,* 2012). As such, I would anticipate a significant negative relationship between hours worked and employee satisfaction.

Elements of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been shown to be driven by a variety of issues, with different employees placing a higher valuation on extrinsic motivators like pay and work conditions, while others tend to place a higher value on intrinsic motivators like teamwork climate and work freedom/autonomy.

The AWRS surveyors asked a number of questions in relation to job satisfaction. The responses to these questions were included in the analysis to better gauge how these items motivate healthcare and social assistance workers. Respondents were asked the overall question "How satisfied are you with the following aspects of your job?" They were asked then to rate the following items on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (extremely dissatisfied) to 7 (extremely satisfied). The items comprise (a) the flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments, (b) the freedom to decide how to do your own work, (c) your say about what happens in your job, (d) your total pay, (e) your job security, (f) the work itself and (g) the hours you work. Respondents were then asked the omnibus question "thinking of the aspects of job satisfaction you have just rated, overall, how satisfied are you with your job?".

Similar measures have been used in a recent study by Kifle, Kler & Shankar (2016). The questions provide good coverage of a variety of potential drivers of overall job satisfaction relating to autonomy, flexibility, remuneration and work conditions (Anitha, 2014).

Results

Table 1 reports the correlations among variables. High correlations among some variables (especially the component variables for job satisfaction and overall satisfaction). To address this issue, I calculated variance inflation factors (VIF) using SPSS. The VIF scores ranged from 1.08 to 2.74, with a mean of 1.83. These are comfortably less than the threshold value of 10 suggested by Greene (2003).

Table 42: Pearson Correlation for All Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Age	-	.31**	.01	.10	-.15*	-.09	-.05	-.16**	-.07	-.13*	-.02	-.07	-.17**
2. Tenure		-	.08	.10	-.02	-.01	.01	-.03	-.02	.09	-.04	-.06	-.08
3. Gender (M = 1, F = 2)			-	-.02	-.09	.05	-.02	-.03	-.13*	.01	.08	.09	.09
4. Highest Education				-	-.07	-.02	.00	-.08	-.08	.06	.04	-.10	-.04
5. Hours Worked per Week					-	-.08	.02	.14*	.04	.08	.05	.03	.06
6. Flexibility work/non-work						-	.64**	.56**	.41**	.40**	.43**	.64**	.55**
7. Freedom to decide on own work							-	.73**	.38**	.44**	.50**	.50**	.61**
8. Say about own job								-	.51**	.54**	.51**	.51**	.65**
9. Total pay									-	.44**	.37**	.48**	.58**
10. Job security										-	.36**	.38**	.59**
11. Work itself											-	.49**	.67**
12. Hours worked												-	.62**
13. Overall satisfaction													-

Gender is coded 1 for male and 2 for female. The 'highest education' variable is coded 1 for Master's or higher to 6 for secondary school only. Correlation significant at $p < 0.05$ * and $p < 0.01$ level ** (2-tailed). Data Source: AWRS Survey 2014.

While not the basis of my focal hypotheses, the control variables in my regression model exhibited the expected directionalities and significances across the sample. I note in table 2 that satisfaction with freedom to decide on own work, for example, tended to increase overall satisfaction (0.0909, $p < 0.10$). Satisfaction with total pay also predicted enhanced overall job satisfaction (0.1546, $p < 0.0001$) as did satisfaction with the work itself (0.3528, $p < 0.0001$) and satisfaction with hours worked (0.1323, $p < 0.05$). In relation to the remaining control variables in my model, women are generally more satisfied than men (0.3166, $p < 0.05$) and tenure with a specific employer tends to reduce overall job satisfaction (-0.0184, $p < 0.05$).

To test my first hypothesis that suggested that older workers will weigh job security more heavily in their estimation of overall job satisfaction than will younger workers I included an interaction term for age and job security in my model. I noted that this interaction term was indeed positive and significant at the 10% level ($p = 0.0710$) in Table 2.

Figure 1 provides a graphical representation of this effect to aid interpretation. The divergent lines in the figure represent the line estimates for perceived job security at 1 SD above and below the mean, and at the mean level. I note that as the sample ages, the manner in which lower perceived job security negatively impacts on overall job satisfaction increases. H1 is thus supported in my sample at $p < 0.10$.

Figure 8: Interaction of Age with "Your job security".
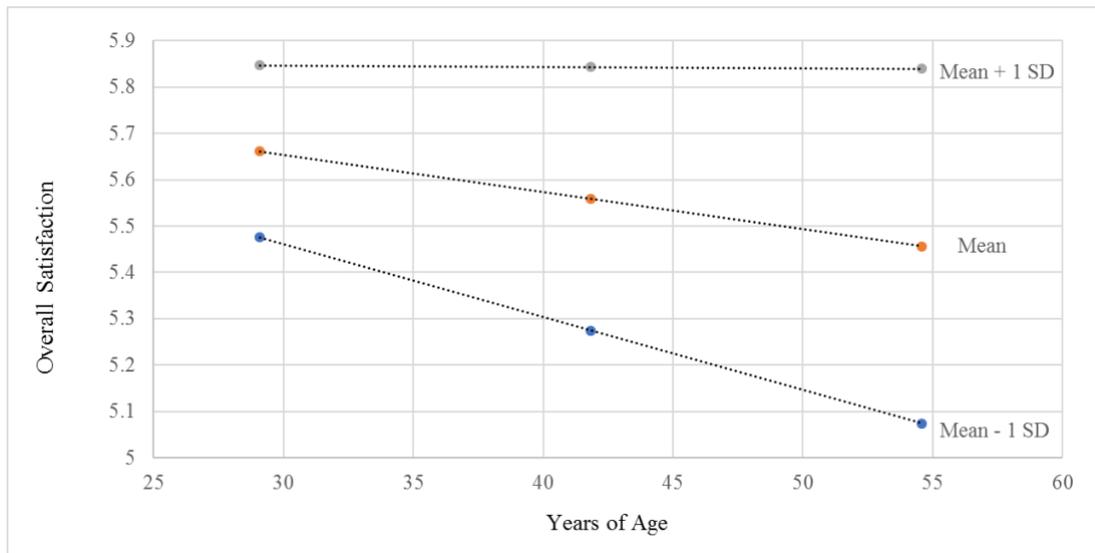
Data Source: AWRS 2014 Survey

H2 goes on to suggest that older workers will weigh perceived 'say' in how a job is done in forming their overall view on job satisfaction such that for older workers, higher 'say' will be a stronger positive predictor of overall job satisfaction than will be the case for younger workers.

The form of this hypothesis again suggests a divergence pattern between the higher and lower 'say' groups as the sample ages. I again included an interaction term in my model (Table 2) and note that the interaction term is indeed positive and significant at $p < 0.05$ ($p = 0.0485$).

Table 43: Results of Regression Predicting Overall Satisfaction

	Beta	S.E.	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
Constant	2.0100	0.7774	2.5854	0.0103	0.4790	3.5411
Control Variables						
Age	-0.0612	0.0153	-4.0028	0.0001	-0.0914	-0.0311
Tenure	-0.0184	0.0086	-2.1493	0.0326	-0.0353	-0.0015
Gender	0.3166	0.1293	2.4489	0.0150	0.0620	0.5712
Highest education	-0.0048	0.0293	-0.1646	0.8694	-0.0625	0.0529
Hours worked per week	0.0018	0.0042	0.4284	0.6687	-0.0065	0.0101
Components of Job Satisfaction						
Flexibility work/non-work	0.0182	0.0543	0.3348	0.7380	-0.0887	0.1251
Freedom to decide on own work	0.0909	0.0535	1.7006	0.0902	-0.0144	0.1962
Say about own job	-0.1284	0.1289	-0.9960	0.3202	-0.3823	0.1255
Total pay	0.1546	0.0329	4.7072	< 0.0001	0.0899	0.2193
Job security	-0.0245	0.1122	-0.2187	0.8270	-0.2455	0.1964
Work itself	0.3528	0.0446	7.9064	< 0.0001	0.2649	0.4407
Hours worked	0.1323	0.0407	3.2500	0.0013	0.0521	0.2125
Interaction Effects						
Age * Job security	0.0051	0.0028	1.8133	0.0710	-0.0004	0.0106
Age * Say about own job	0.0049	0.0025	1.9826	0.0485	0.0010	0.0098

Model summary: $R^2 = 0.734$, $F(14, 255) = 50.1366$, $p < 0.001$.

Data Source: AWRS 2014 Survey

Again, to aid interpretation I present Figure 2. In this figure, I again note the divergence pattern as the sample ages. Older workers tend to have significantly lower overall satisfaction than younger workers as they perceive a decrease in 'say' in how their job will be done.

Figure 9: Interaction of Age with "Your say about what happens in your job".
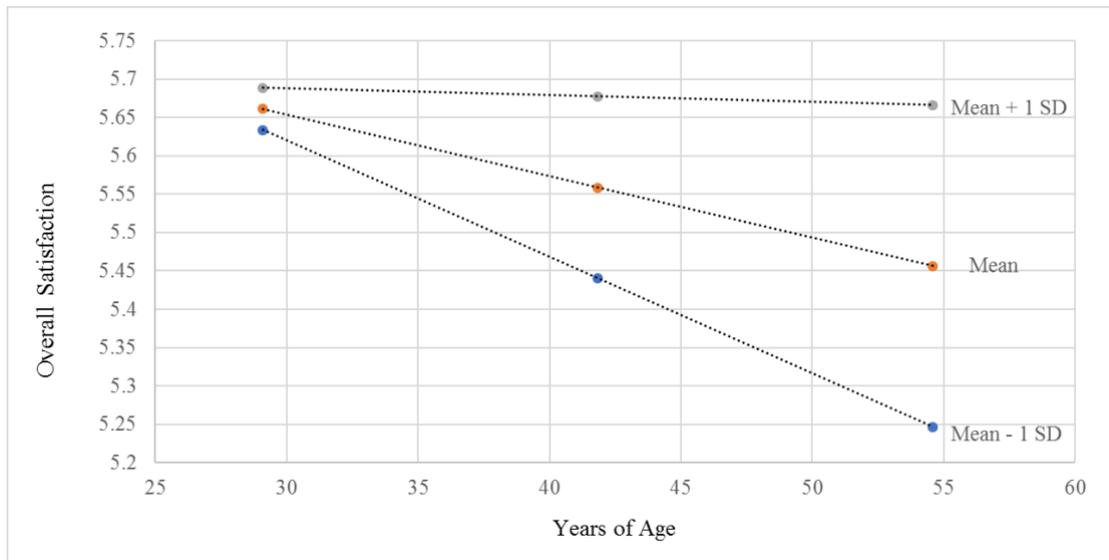
Data Source: AWRS 2014 Survey

I go on to investigate the conditional effects of age on overall satisfaction at different values of the two moderators – job security and 'say' in job. These results are presented in Table 23.

Table 44: Conditional Effect of Age on Overall Satisfaction at Values of Moderators

Job security	Say about own job	Effect	S.E.	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
- 1 SD	- 1 SD	-0.0229	0.0055	-4.1365	< 0.0001	-0.0338	-0.012
- 1 SD	Mean	-0.0157	0.0053	-2.9593	0.0034	-0.0262	-0.0053
- 1 SD	+ 1 SD	-0.0086	0.0075	-1.1364	0.2569	-0.0234	0.0063
Mean	- 1 SD	-0.0152	0.0054	-2.8299	0.0050	-0.0257	-0.0046
Mean	Mean	-0.0080	0.0035	-2.2907	0.0228	-0.0149	-0.0011
Mean	+ 1 SD	-0.0009	0.0052	-0.1679	0.8668	-0.0111	0.0093
+ 1 SD	- 1 SD	-0.0075	0.0076	-0.9871	0.3245	-0.0223	0.0074

| + 1 SD | Mean | -0.0003 | 0.0051 | -0.0604 | 0.9519 | -0.0104 | 0.0098 |
| + 1 SD | + 1 SD | 0.0068 | 0.0052 | 1.3165 | 0.1892 | -0.0034 | 0.0171 |

Data Source: AWRS 2014 Survey

Here I note that when perceived job security is low, increasing age has a significant negative effect on overall satisfaction even when 'say' about job is at mean levels. It is only when 'say' about job increases towards 1 SD above the mean that the conditional effect of age becomes non-significant ($p > 0.10$).

I further go on to note that at mean levels of job security, low (measured by 1 SD below the mean) and mean 'say' about job provide the context for a negative and significant association between increasing age and decreasing overall job satisfaction. Again, it is only as 'say' increases beyond the mean towards 1 SD above the mean that this relationship between increasing age and decreasing overall satisfaction becomes non-significant ($p > 0.10$).

Discussion

My research has a number of theoretical and practical implications that I seek to explicate here.

Theoretical Implications

My two focal contributions relate to the changing impact of satisfaction with job security and with say in how a job is undertaken as employees age as predictors of overall job satisfaction. The interaction of age and job security suggests that older

employees weigh job security more heavily than younger employees, and especially weight low job security highly as a negative driver of overall job satisfaction.

This finding is somewhat novel and may warrant further research. Prior research tends to emphasise the importance of organisational embeddedness for older workers compared to younger workers in predicting intention to stay (Templer, Armstrong-Stassen & Cattaneo, 2010). This tends to coincide with a shifting preference from simple remuneration to a greater preference for stability (Claes & Heymans, 2008). Within this notion of 'job security', therefore, issues associated with perceived relational stability among employers and employees and certainty in the mind of the older worker may be as important as any rational assessment of the likelihood of some forthcoming involuntary separation (which may be a simple interpretation of this 'job security' measure).

This finding would be broadly consistent with my second major focal finding relating to the changing importance of 'your say about what happens in your job' as employees age. Greater agency and autonomy would tend to coincide with this wider notion of 'job security' as more social and organisational embeddedness than the narrower interpretation. Indeed, I see evidence of this covariance in table 1 where 'say' and 'job security' are indeed significantly correlated (.54, $p < 0.01$).

Exploring this complex interrelationship of factors and developing a better understanding of the nature of the relationship of older workers and their work roles and relationships is an important challenge. My research indicates the presence of a rich potential for further explanation of this set of issues.

Practical Implications

Maintaining an engaged and committed older workforce has many organisational benefits. This is especially the case in healthcare, where an older workforce is coupled with increasing labour demand to present significant staffing challenges for many healthcare organisations.

Concerningly, I note in my sample that older workers overall in my sample are generally less satisfied than younger workers (-0.0612, $p < 0.001$). This indicated that, across my sample, as healthcare and social assistance workers age they generally become less satisfied with their roles.

The results of this study strongly support a move away from a 'one size fits all' arrangement for workers in healthcare and social assistance organisations. Specifically, older workers seem to value certainty around job security more heavily than younger workers. This may be a product of their more limited opportunities to seek new work should they lose their job, and also the perceived importance of risk minimisation regarding earnings as they approach retirement.

Older workers also value 'say' in how they go about their job more explicitly than younger workers. I note that the downward trend in job satisfaction as workers age is exacerbated when older workers sense or experience lower satisfaction with 'say' or self-agency and autonomy at work.

Addressing these two considerations will have important benefits for healthcare and social assistance organisations. Maintaining a more satisfied older cohort of employees will ensure that their experience and skills are available to the organisation

while also providing a ready group of mentors for younger workers entering the sector.

Limitations

My study is based on a cross-sectional employee survey dataset and many of the questions used here in relation to job satisfaction are attitudinal in nature. As such there is some potential that this study may be influenced by common-method variance (CMV) (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). This arises when an issue exogeneous to the questions asked exerts an influence on the responses provided to confound the findings of the study.

For example, an employee may have a strong feeling of disgruntlement and this attends to his answers in the survey instrument, ensuring the most negative light is cast on the organisation regardless of the particular question or issue being explored. Such a situation is not uncommon, and may be a significant problem where it creates a systematic bias in the responses provided by an identifiable group or strata of respondents.

To address this potential issue, both ex ante (design) and ex post (analytical) strategies were used. First, the design of my study and the hypotheses developed focus on second-order interaction effects rather than solely on linear or direct effects. Chang, Van Witteloostuijn & Eden (2010) notes that these second order interaction or moderation effects are generally less susceptible to CMV than a mode based solely on linear effects.

Second, following Harman (1961) I adopted a single factor test to assess CMV-related endogeneity. To do this all items were loaded onto a single factor using

principal component analysis in SPSS. Harman noted that where more than 50% of

the cumulative variance was explained by the single factor, CMV was potentially

problematic. In my model I noted a result well under this benchmark of 36.06%.

6. Conclusions and Implications

Understanding the complexity of motivational and values heterogeneity is an important challenge for researchers. The goal of this portfolio is to better understand what impact employees' personal values have on a variety of work-related outcomes.

The three studies forming my dissertation seek to develop models that extend the literature relating to values and integrating this with the literatures on employee engagement and job tension to seek to develop important new conceptual thinking and practical new knowledge relevant to the design of human resource strategies, policies and systems that influence key organisational choices of employees.

In addition, a common focus of the three studies relates to second-order or interaction effects. That is the aim is to investigate contingent relationships between factors rather than focusing on simple linear effects. This is important as these second-order effects are generally novel in the relevant empirical literature. In terms of context, the research focuses on the Australian workforce, so it seeks to provide important new evidence to guide theory, practice and policy.

Specifically, this portfolio has contributed to theory and practice by:

- Showing that organisations need to consider how positive and negative climate issues impact employees when implementing various employment-related initiatives
- Identifying that as the nature of work changes organisations need to consider how they can increase the appeal of these work changes to attract and retain employees

- Demonstrating that models that ignore employee values will tend to, at best, be partially useful in achieving the changes that are expected and hoped for by organisations;

- Confirming that aligning values and incentives is a precondition for successful organisational change and improvement

- Reinforcing that organisational values are diverse in modern organisations, and this diversity is influenced by a variety of demographic factors and

- Highlighting that heterogeneity in worker preferences for a certain role and/or job security may tend to predispose these workers to emerging 'temporary contract' jobs.

A common outcome across the three studies is the importance of considering individual-level preferences in the design of jobs and employment arrangements. The study undertaken within the APS sample shows how the perceptions of leader values impact issues of attachment and anticipated tenure within junior employees. I draw on the P-O fit literature to frame this issue as one of values congruence – a particular congruence or valence that has not previously been explored in a large-n study of this kind.

In terms of my study investigating the choices and values of gig workers, I noted the complex interplay between job security preferences and a preference for issues associated with the work itself. I note that gig workers are generally able to decide what they do, and indeed for whom they work. However, for those with an over-arching concern in relation to job security there is a crowding-out effect that makes gig work fundamentally less attractive.

Finally, the paper on older workers in healthcare shows how job-related values change over time in their ability to predict job satisfaction. As workers age, their preference for both job security and the say on how their job should be conducted both increase in importance in predicting overall job satisfaction. This is an important addition to the relevant empirical literature.

6.1 Study 1 - Implications for Practice

Values alignment between junior and senior staff – at least as perceived by junior staff – has important attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. I note from the evidence assessed that a perception that leaders in an organisation are acting in an ethical manner tends to predispose more junior employees to have higher levels of organisational attachment. I further note that even after taking into account this heightened level of attachment, higher perceived leader values tends to significantly reduce anticipated voluntary departure from the Australian Public Service among the sample analysed.

In both models assessed for this dissertation perceived leader values were seen to significantly predict the positive attitudinal and behavioural outcomes of attachment and anticipated tenure. This shows the importance of managers following, and being seen to follow, strong and ethical values.

Values are observed by subordinates in many ways. Ethical behaviour can be observed through both words and actions, by behaviours, decisions and policies. These behaviours both create an ethical environment and also send a set of signals relating to the types of behaviours expected from subordinates. It is clear that

subordinates receiving positive ethical signals respond positively in both their own attitudes and behaviours.

I note that both Models 1 and 2 provide evidence of an interaction between intrinsic motivation and perceived leader values. In model 1 I note that at higher levels of intrinsic motivation, lower perceived leader values tends to disproportionately detract from attachment. This is evident due to the divergent lines visible in the relevant figure illustrating the interaction effect. In practice, the -1 SD line for leader values is flatter than the +1 SD line for this value, suggesting a cumulative positive effect for highly intrinsically motivated staff who observe positive managerial values in predicting higher levels of attachment.

Model 2 integrates this attachment variable to predict anticipated future tenure. Here I note a pattern whereby higher perceived leader values tend to reduce the negative effects of low intrinsic motivations for employees. In essence lower intrinsic motivation tends to shorten anticipated tenure, but this is less pronounced for those employees who observe higher leader values.

6.2 Study 2 – Implications for Practice

I find evidence that gig workers vary from the general working population on a number of variables relating to job preference. The evidence from the AWRS tended to suggest a degree of volition or choice for some opting into gig employment driven by a set of work preferences that are supported by this style of employment.

A clear preference for higher job security is a significant negative predictor of holding a gig job. Convserely there is evidence to suggest an attraction to a specific role or

set of tasks that a gig worker may find him or herself able to complete for an employer seems to be a significant and positive predictor of holding a gig role.

Potential practical implications for this relate to the design of gig roles and the potential for intermediaries who may guarantee a certain amount of work. Should a platform employer be able to provide a level of assurance in term of hours worked and earning, a significant proportion of potential gig workers who may be concerned about a lack of job security may opt to work in such arrangements through a platform entity.

6.3 Study 3 - Implications for Practice

As the population ages, older workers are becoming more important and prevalent in organisations. Older workers tend to have a variety of skills and experience that are important for organisational performance and sustainability.

Globally, the baby boomer generation, born from 1946 until 1964, are aged from 55 to 73 in 2019. This age group is over-represented in many industries, including teaching, health care and the public sector. Many within this age cohort who are still working are considering their work futures – to stay, to leave or to flexibly reframe their work arrangements.

Keeping older workers where possible may well be beneficial for many organisations. Their presence creates significant benefits while reducing any loss of skills, knowledge and social capital accumulated over decades of work caused by their departure.

However, adaptations to roles are necessary. As workers age, the meaning they drive from their work changes. Their financial situation often becomes less pressing. Self-selection may tend to occur. Certain (older) workers derive innate satisfaction from their jobs, well beyond the more tangible benefits that come from salary. For these workers maintaining a positive organisational environment will be decisive in maintaining their continuing commitment and attendance.

For some older workers, physical challenges in roles may drive them to leave the workforce before they might otherwise elements of work are the key challenge that will drive them towards retirement. It is true that such roles often include trade and manual roles where decades of valuable knowhow and expertise may be lost.

A key finding from this research is that a focus on flexibility for older workers may be valuable. For some such workers, perceived or real inflexibility in work scheduling or works tasks may be an important factor. This may limit their capacity to manage emergent issues outside the workplace coincident with their ageing – including for example their own health issues or caring responsibilities for others.

A terminology has developed that suggests 'i-deals', or idiosyncratic deals, are a useful means of enhancing and continuing the engagement of older workers. This approach supports the notion that older workers tend to value greater autonomy and flexibility vis-à-vis younger workers. At the managerial level steps can be taken to increase job flexibility where mutual value can be created (Oostrom, Pennings & Bal, 2016).

It is a two-way street. Older workers are often happy to lose some of the remuneration sought by younger workers in exchange for higher flexibility. Stynen, Forrier & Sels

(2014) have noted that more seasoned workers often are less attentive to maximising remuneration than their younger peers.

There are at least two key practical implications for HR managers. First they should listen to those older workers that they'd like to keep. They should build flexible arrangements that aim to maximise flexibility for those workers while minimising costs to the organisation. Such arrangements can truly deliver win-win outcomes for both managers and their older employees.

6.4 Implications for Theory

Overall, my three studies provide significant evidence that taking into account the individual level preferences of employees will be very helpful to achieve better models of human resource management outcomes and thus will provide better indicators of organisational policies and procedures.

In each of the studies, a consistent finding was that the addition of variables that map individual values provides a better assessment of desirable attitudinal or behavioural outcomes than models that treat employee populations as homogeneous on such constructs or items of variance. In the first study, values valence or congruence between workers and their managers has been seen to predict two desirous attitudinal outcomes – attachment and anticipated tenure. Reflective of the significant literature on person-organisation fit, an alignment of employees values with those they observe from their managers tends to anticipate positive employee outcomes.

My study on gig workers tends to provide a new insight into why people choose gig jobs. I do find that some employees with the personal financial flexibility to opt into

gig employment can create a positive outcome for themselves in relation to overall employment satisfaction. However, issues that are beyond the specific role – like a preference for job security that may in turn be a function of the normal financial demands of modern life – can mitigate any positive outcomes available.

In the earlier review I noted a dichotomous literature debate in relation to gig work. The significant critical body of knowledge tends to see gig work as exploitative and driven by a desire to enhance capital control over labour. When gig work becomes the norm, rather than an adjunct to the normal labour market that employees may opt into by choice, those with more pressing financial and economic challenges may suffer disproportionate negative consequences.

My final study confirms, and provides important empirical evidence to support, the notion that older workers greatly value flexibility or idiosyncratic deals. There is great evidence to support the notion that older workers provide important positive impacts for organisations, especially within the complex emotional terrain of healthcare. Older workers will tend to stay longer where understandable accommodations are able to be offered. These may include changes to the physical nature of work or other arrangements that mitigate some of the negative elements of work while increasing the opportunity for positive outcomes in the workplace.

6.5 Future Directions for Research

This dissertation has sought to deepen and extend the knowledge relating to the need to include individual variance on the dimension of values to research models in HRM.

Methodologically, I employed significant and freely available secondary datasets to explore issues of interest within this domain.

There exists the opportunity and potential to extend and deepen this analysis. One restriction that comes from the use of secondary data is that the questions and constructs that I could use to assess all variables, and most pertinently variables relating to values, were set and given. Developing a primary data gathering tool to better explore these issues is a promising future extension of this research, and one that I would seek to recommend.

Furthermore, many of these issues are socially complex and may benefit from a mixed methods approach in future research. Emerging and dynamic questions, like for example the role of older workers or the nature of the gig economy, are often hard to investigate given the rear looking nature of existing datasets.

Qualitative research is better placed to ask the "what and how" questions than the "why and for whom" questions tested here. For example, a qualitative study of the life stress of Uber drivers may provide a set of insights that extend well beyond this study, and this is something for future research consideration. It is an assumption that there is a degree of choice available to gig workers, but given the complex and changing nature of the world economy and its labour markets, such an assumption may be erroneous for many.

An overarching concern of studies such as these, that draw primarily froma single cross sectional set of data, relates to endogeneity. Essentially, factors outside the survey may be driving responses to the survey and, based on the data available here, these issues are hard to control.

While I sought to mitigate these problems with the post-hoc tools available to me, designing a study from the ground up that separated independent variables in time and place, or by respondents, would be a valuable future extension of this research.

Generally speaking this research has important implications for HRM research in the quantitative arena. It is my hope that future researchers will seek to better integrate individual values and preference variance in their empirical models. This will lead to better understandings of how and why employees make the choices, and hold the attitudes, that they do.

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8. Appendices

In the following appendices introductory issues mentioned in the questionnaire documentation is provided along with evidence of the types of questions asked in the questionnaires and used in this study.

Full details of the questionnaires are available at the respective websites of the Australian Public Service Commission and Fair Work Australia.

Appendix 1 – the APS State of the Service 2014 Questionnaire

Note – the following questions were taken from the Australian Public Service State of the Service Questionnaire 2014 to support quantitative analysis of Study 1.

What is the purpose of this census?

Each year the Australian Public Service Commissioner presents a State of the Service report to parliament after the end of the financial year. The report identifies year-to-year trends in workforce participation and capability across the Australian Public Service (APS).

The report draws on a range of information sources but one of its main data sources is this census. The census is your opportunity to comment and provide feedback on various aspects of working in the APS and your agency. It covers issues such as senior leadership capability, access to and satisfaction with work-life balance and employee engagement. You can access previous reports from the State of the Service Exchange Blog to see how previous employee census results have been reported: http://www.apsc.gov.au/sosr-exchange .

The responses you provide are vital in assisting the Australian Public Service Commissioner to evaluate the state of the APS. Aggregated census data also provides your agency with the attitudes and opinions of employees across a range of important agency-specific issues.

Who is conducting the census?

The Australian Public Service Commission (the Commission) has engaged ORC International (www.orcinternational.com.au) to conduct the census on its behalf. ORC International's data management systems and security policy are ISO 27001 (Information Security Management System) certified.

How long will the census take?

The census should take around 30 to 35 minutes to complete, depending on how many comments you choose to make. We encourage you to take this opportunity to express your attitudes and opinions about your workplace and thank you for your valuable contribution.

Will my answers be confidential?

Your responses will remain confidential unless disclosure of the information is required or authorised by or under an Australian law or a court/tribunal order. The survey is voluntary and, with the exception of the first four questions, you may skip any question you do not wish to answer.

Data is only used in an aggregated, or in the case of comments, de-identified form and no data will be used or provided that allows the identification of any individual.

The names of individual APS employees are not recorded with census responses, and are not provided to the Commission.

In accordance with the Privacy Act 1988 and the Australian Privacy Principles, please see the Privacy Statement below for a clear description of why the data is being collected, under what authority, and how it will be stored and used.

How was I identified to participate?

You were identified from the APS Employment Database (APSED) or by your agency to participate in the census. Each year, the names, AGS numbers and email addresses of all APS employees are

obtained from APSED for the purpose of sending the employee census to all APS employees. Only ORC International has access to both the APSED information and your census results and the information is stored separately.

What happens after I take part in the census?

ORC International will provide the State of the Service team within the Commission with de-identified unit (individual level) record datasets for analysis and reporting purposes. The State of the Service Report 2013–14 will be available on the Commission's website from early December.

Your agency will receive aggregated results for internal use and communication. Again, no data will be provided to agencies that allows the identification of any individual.

Where do I go if I still have questions?

If you have any further questions, please contact ORC International on 1800 065 312 (for technical advice) or the State of the Service team on stateoftheservice@apsc.gov.au (for questions relating to your participation in the survey).

Privacy Statement: APS employee census

What kind of personal information is collected and held?

The APS employee census collects the attitudes and opinions of APS employees on a range of workplace issues.

How is information collected and held?

Information is collected by the Commission's contracted survey provider; ORC International. ORC International is a contracted service provider within the meaning of section 6 of the Privacy Act and their data management systems and security policy are ISO 27001 (Information Security Management System) certified.

Why is the information collected, held, used and disclosed?

The information collected through the APS employee census is collected for the purpose of the APS Commissioner's annual report on the state of the APS. Individual responses are confidential and data is only used in an aggregated, or in the case of free text fields, de-identified form.

Aggregated data is provided to agencies to inform internal management decisions and, where respondents have indicated their consent, de-identified comment data is also provided to individual agencies. Aggregated data may be used for research purposes in the future and is available on www.data.gov.au. No data will be used or provided that allows the identification of any individual.

Authority for collection

The APS Commissioner's statutory functions under the Public Service Act 1999 include:

- developing, reviewing and evaluating APS workforce management policies and practices and maintaining appropriate databases (paragraph 41(2)(c)); and

- reporting to the parliament on the state of the APS (section 44).

To perform these functions the APS Commissioner conducts an annual APS employee census. Data from the census, in conjunction with data from other sources, is used to evaluate and prepare reports on the state of the APS.

In the APS, leadership is a practice used by employees at all levels. The following questions only relate to the leadership practices of Senior Executive Service (SES) employees in your agency. Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements regarding the SES in your agency.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. In my agency, the senior leadership is of a high quality					
2. In my agency, the most senior leaders are sufficiently visible (e.g. can be seen in action)					
3. In my agency, communication between senior leaders and other employees is effective					
4. In my agency, senior leaders engage with staff on how to respond to future challenges					
5. In my agency, senior leaders give their time to identify and develop talented people					
6. In my agency, senior leaders communicate effectively regarding the business risks that we face					
7. In my agency, senior leaders ensure that work effort contributes to the strategic direction of the agency and the APS					
8. In my agency, senior leaders effectively lead and manage organisational change					
9. Senior leaders in my agency lead by example in ethical behavior					
10. In my agency, senior leaders encourage innovation and creativity					

Based on your experience in the workplace, how frequently:

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1. Do colleagues in your immediate work group act in accordance with the APS Values in their everyday work?					
2. Does your supervisor act in accordance with the APS Values in his or her everyday work?					
3. Do senior leaders (i.e. the SES) in your agency act in accordance with the APS Values?					

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements regarding *your current job*:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I enjoy the work in my current job					
2. I have a good immediate supervisor					
3. My job gives me opportunities to utilise my skills					
4. My job gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment					
5. I am satisfied with the recognition I receive for doing a good job					
6. I am fairly remunerated (e.g. salary, superannuation) for the work that I do					
7. I am satisfied with my non-monetary employment conditions (e.g. leave, flexible work arrangements, other benefits)					
8. I have a clear understanding of how my work group's role contributes to my agency's strategic directions					

Which of the following statements best reflects your current thoughts about working for your agency?

1. I want to leave my agency as soon as possible
2. I want to leave my agency within the next 12 months
3. I want to leave my agency within the next 12 months but feel it will be unlikely in the current environment
4. I want to stay working for my agency for the next one to two years
5. I want to stay working for my agency for at least the next three years

Appendix 2 - The Australian Workplace Relations Study (AWRS) Questionnaire

The AWRS comprised six questionnaires designed to collect information from Australian employers and their employees. Five of the six questionnaires were employer-focused questionnaires and one collected information from employees. The first of the five employer-focused questionnaires to be administered was the Enterprise Characteristics (EC) questionnaire (this was administered as the Recruitment questionnaire throughout fieldwork). This questionnaire was completed by all AWRS participating enterprises and ensured that only those enterprises that were eligible completed the remaining employer and employee questionnaire components. It also collected key enterprise characteristics information.

The other four employer questionnaire components included:

- Employee Relations (ER);
- Structure and Operations (SO);
- Workforce Profile (WP); and
- Financial Information (FI).

The single employee-focused questionnaire was distributed to the employees of the participating enterprises. This questionnaire was known as the Employee questionnaire (EE) and was distributed to all employees of enterprises with 21 or less direct employees, or a random sample of employees for enterprises with more than 21 direct employees.

This flow chart provides an overview of the AWRS structure and contains links to each of the questionnaires.

Recruitment and data collection for the AWRS commenced on 24 February 2014. The final AWRS participants were recruited on 26 June 2014, with data collection concluding on 31 July 2014.

An enterprise was considered to be recruited if it fulfilled the following criteria:

1. Met the required target characteristics (as determined by completion of the Recruitment questionnaire)
2. Completed the Employee Relations questionnaire; and
3. Agreed in-principle to participate in all components of the study, with particular emphasis on distribution of the Employee questionnaire.

	Extremely Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Extremely Satisfied
1. The flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments							
2. The freedom to decide how to do your own work							
3. Your say about what happens in your job							
4. Your total pay							
5. Your job security							
6. The work itself							
7. The hours you work							

Importance ranking of aspects when considering Job Satisfaction

The following items represent individual responses within the above question.

Survey respondents were asked to consider each aspect of job satisfaction and provide consider what were the three most important aspects to them when considering their overall job satisfaction.

The ranking for each aspect of job satisfaction is recorded in separate columns in the data file

	Most Important	Second Most Important	Third Most Important	Not Mentioned
1. The flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments				
2. The freedom to decide how to do your own work				
3. Your say about what happens in your job				
4. Your total pay				
5. Your job security				
6. The work itself				
7. The hours you work				