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EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PROCEDURAL JUSTICE, PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, AND INTENT TO LEAVE AMONG TEMPORARY EMPLOYEES

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ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST, ORGANIZATIONAL

COMMITMENT, AND INTENT TO LEAVE AMONG TEMPORARY EMPLOYEES

by

KRISTEN WADDELL

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Abstract

EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PROCEDURAL JUSTICE, PERCEIVED
ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST, ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT, AND INTENT TO LEAVE AMONG TEMPORARY EMPLOYEES

Kristen Waddell

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The University of Texas at Tyler
April 2016

The nature of today's business world is ever changing, and it is crucial that organizations remain flexible. In order to compete in this fast-paced business environment, companies must be able to react quickly to meet business demands while still keeping an eye on the bottom line, often referred to as strategic flexibility (Nadkarni & Herrmann, 2010). The use of temporary employees also allows organizations to target the specific skill set they need to further their businesses without extending their resources of both time and money by either recruiting individuals themselves or by developing their own employees (Chambel & Castanheira, 2006). Being able to employ a flexible workforce that can meet the direct and immediate business needs can be of great competitive advantage to an organization.

The management of temporary employees is often complicated due to issues of co-employment and differing types of employment contracts. Literature focusing on how to manage this group appears to me limited (Feldman, Doerpinghaus, & Turnley, 1994). Instead the bulk of current literature concerning temporary employees is focused on the perceived differences in the psychological contracts and work behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), between permanent and temporary employees (Kraimer, Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe,

2005; Moorman & Harland, 2002). These studies have often yielded contradictory results, further complicating the issues related to managing this employee category.

Given that the temporary employment industry has increased substantially in recent years with no signs of decline in the near future, the management of temporary employees is becoming increasingly important to organizations (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). Regardless of the type of employment, turnover can be costly to an organization. Surprisingly, there seems to be a lack of awareness concerning the treatment of temporary employees and how it impacts their intent to leave. It is thought that this type of negative treatment could be fueled by the fear of co-employment, which can lead to legal repercussions if both the client and temporary agency share permanent employment roles (Tansky & Veglahn, 1995). Managers need to be aware of how the treatment of the temporary workforce impacts an organization's outcomes.

The purpose of this study was to examine the unique contextual relationship between temporary employees and the client organization. This study investigated the impact of positive behaviors by the client organization, as measured by procedural justice and perceived organizational support, on a temporary employee's intent to leave his or her assignment prematurely. The purpose of this study was also to examine whether perceived organizational support (POS) and procedural justice also lead to organizational commitment and organizational trust, which in turn lead to a decrease in intent to leave among temporary employees.

This study examined these constructs in the context of temporary employees by surveying temporary employees who were currently on assignment or who had held an assignment within the past year. Results of structural equation modeling showed that the temporary employees in this study did respond in a similar manner as permanent employees. Results revealed that procedural justice was a precursor of perceived organizational support, and

that POS was a positive predictor of organizational commitment. It was also found that organizational commitment mediated the relationship between POS and intent to leave. While the relationship between organizational trust and intent to leave was not significant, post-hoc analysis indicated that organizational trust did moderate the relationship between POS and intent to leave.

Chapter One

Introduction

Chapter one provides a general introduction by presenting a background to the study along with focusing on the statement of the problem and purpose of the study. Additionally, Chapter One outlines 1) the theoretical underpinning; 2) the research model; 3) research hypotheses; and 4) an overview of the study design. This chapter discusses the study's significance, along with the limitations of this study. Definitions of key terms are also presented.

Background to the Problem

The nature of today's business world is ever changing, and it is crucial that organizations remain flexible. In order to compete in this fast-paced business environment, companies must be able to react quickly to meet business demands while still keeping an eye on the bottom line, often referred to as strategic flexibility (Nadkarni & Herrmann, 2010). In some cases, businesses are required to increase their manpower at a moment's notice, all the while knowing they may have to just as quickly decrease their employee count. By managing their workforce in response to the external environment, organizations can compete within their selected industries (Kalleberg, 2001).

Among the driving forces of business change is the aging workforce. Organizations are currently having to replace large numbers of baby boomer workers who have reached retirement age. Along with these retiring workers, organizations are losing their skills and knowledge (Rappaport, Bancroft, & Okum, 2003). However, as the workplace transitions, the context in which it operates expands. Through globalization, competition intensifies. Burke and Ng (2006) stated, "Global competition is often about price, and companies are striving to be the lower cost producers in order to compete. The result is increased competition and the pressure for efficiency" (p. 91).

The increasing use of technology also changes the face of how organizations conduct business. Because of the constant connectivity and expectations for immediacy, organizations are required to react and respond to business needs in the time it takes to send an e-mail. As a consequence, employers are expected to stay up-to-date on the latest and best technologies and business practices, along with acquiring the new skill sets to accommodate them. While the use of technology can indeed assist organizations in training and development, the speed at which workers are required to react to changes may be problematic (Kalleberg, 2003).

The changing nature of the workplace calls for a different employer/employee relationship (Kalleberg, 2001). As a way to respond to this changing environment, organizations are turning to the use of temporary or contingent workers (Moorman & Harland, 2002). Temporary workers can be defined as workers who are attained and paid by a third party agency (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). The use of these temporary workers allows an organization to change the size of its workforce at virtually a moment's notice while taking advantage of what is thought to be lower labor costs (Chambel & Castanheira, 2006). As Burke and Ng (2006) pointed out, "From an employer's perspective, it is a lot cheaper and easier to hire contract workers than to put them on fulltime payroll" (p. 92).

The use of temporary employees also allows organizations to target the specific skill set they need to further their businesses without extending their resources of both time and money by either recruiting individuals themselves or by developing their own employees (Chambel & Castanheira, 2006). Being able to employ a flexible workforce that can meet the direct and immediate business needs can be of great competitive advantage to an organization.

Whatever the reason, the number of temporary employees in the United States is growing at a phenomenal rate. This past year alone temporary staffing agencies employed an average of

3.26 million contract and temporary workers each week. The American Staffing Agency (2014) stated that staffing agencies added an estimated 113,300 temporary employees to their payroll each week. Within one year, staffing agencies have seen their sales increase by over 6%, with sales totaling $29.45 billion (American Staffing Association, 2014). Cappelli and Keller (2013) also found that on average, an organization's onsite workforce consisted of 2.1% of temporary workers. This number may seem insignificant, however, the finding that 90% of organizations have converted temporary workers to permanent employees gives this statistic more meaning (Cappelli & Keller, 2013).

The use of temporary employees has also been said to be counter intuitive to best human resource practices as the use of such employees is often left out of business strategy (Cappelli & Keller, 2013; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009). Pfeffer (1994) stated,

> "If competitive success is achieved through people—if the workforce is indeed an increasingly important source of competitive advantage—then it is important to build a workforce that has the ability to achieve competitive success and that cannot be readily duplicated by others. Somewhat ironically, the recent trend toward using temporary employees, part-timers, and contract workers, particularly when such workers are used in core activities, flies in the face of the changing basis of competitive success" (p. 21).

Organizations that want to gain and maintain competitive advantage must have a committed workforce (Moorman & Harland, 2002). Although temporary employment can provide benefits to both the employee and employer, it is often viewed as a means for employers to attain cheap labor in which they do not have to invest time, money, or resources in employee engagement or development (Koene & Riemsdijk, 2005). This type of attitude often leads to exploitation of the temporary employee, which in turn could have a negative impact on a

temporary employee's attitude, resulting in a less committed workforce (Boyce, Ryan, Imus, & Morgeson, 2007). Kuvaas and Dysvik (2009) noted that "organizations can overcome this dilemma by providing more organizational support, inducements, and obligations for their temporary employees, thereby promoting their job attitudes and behaviors" (p. 249).

The management of temporary employees is often complicated due to issues of co-employment and differing types of employment contracts. Literature focusing on how to manage this group appears to me limited (Feldman, Doerpinghaus, & Turnley, 1994). Instead, the bulk of current literature concerning temporary employees is focused on the perceived differences in the psychological contracts and work behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), between permanent and temporary employees (Kraimer, Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe, 2005; Moorman & Harland, 2002). These studies have often yielded contradictory results, further complicating the issues related to managing this employee category.

Research investigating differences in psychological contracts has found that temporary employees can adopt a similar mindset to standard employees, given the right work conditions (Kidder, 1998; Moorman & Harland, 2002; Pearce, 1993). Current literature posits that the formal contracts held with temporary employees do not determine their attitudes or behaviors, which instead are determined by different contextual relationships (Chambel & Castanheira, 2006). This finding suggests that certain relationships existing among standard employees also hold true for temporary employees. Therefore, it is important to explore the relationship constructs that reveal how behaviors on behalf of the client organization impact the temporary worker's job attitudes.

Literature focused on temporary employees also conveys the mistreatment, such as social isolation and withholding resources such as information, often experienced by this workforce

segment (Davis-Blake, Broschak, & George, 2003; Koene & Riemsdijk, 2005). This mistreatment has been identified as leading to premature and unplanned turnover among temporary employees, and that turnover among this employee group is a growing issue (Koene & Riemsdijk, 2005; Slattery, Selvarajan, & Anderson, 2008). If organizations wish to decrease unplanned turnover among temporary employees, further examination of the antecedents of intent to leave found throughout standard employment literature must be applied to the constraints of temporary employment.

Perceived organization support (POS) is often cited as an antecedent to intent to leave (Cho, Johanson, & Guchait, 2009; Filipova, 2011). Although POS is frequently discussed in regard to standard employment, the literature concerning temporary employment often focuses on the triangular relationship between the temporary agency, the client organization, and the temporary employee (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006). Some studies suggest that temporary employees distinguish between their relationships with the temporary agencies and with the client organizations; however, further research is needed to explore the direct relationships between the client organizations and the behaviors of temporary employees. This is especially true given a temporary employee spends an overwhelming majority of his or her time with the client organization as compared to the temporary agency (Moorman & Harland, 2002).

Additional cited precursors to intent to leave are procedural justice, organizational commitment, and organizational trust (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Mushonga, Thiagarajan, & Torrance, 2014; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Although these relationships are prominent in literature concerning standard employment, scholars are starting to expand this research to include temporary employees. For example, Jong and Schalk (2010) found that low levels of fairness led to a higher intent to quit among involuntary temporary employees. Even in

a temporary employment relationship, POS toward one organization is related to the perceived procedural justice in that organization, whether it is the client organization or the temporary agency (Liden, Wayne, Kraimer, & Sparrowe, 2003). This finding also indicates that the actions of the client organization can have a direct influence on the attitudes of the temporary employee, even when considering the dual contract with both the temporary agency and the client organization.

One study (Haden, Caruth, & Oyler, 2011) that compared the attitudes of temporary and permanent employees in regard to organizational commitment, and trust, and found no significant difference between temporary and permanent employees in regard to the named constructs. Haden et al. (2011) found that even within temporary employment contracts, statistically significant relationships between the constructs did exist, showing that the temporary employees' behaviors can be impacted by varying levels of organizational commitment, organizational trust, and perceived fairness.

Research indicates temporary and permanent employees hold similar psychological contracts. Even though positions may be temporary, it is not unusual for workers that fill them to work for several consecutive months with the same client organizations and thus develop attitudes toward the organizations that can lead to either positive or negative behaviors (Chambel & Castanheira, 2006). Literature continues to point out the mistreatment of temporary employees; however, it does not seem to answer why the temporary employees are treated differently, even though there is a risk of loss for both the temporary agency and the client organization.

Statement of the Problem

Given that the temporary employment industry has increased substantially in recent years with no signs of decline in the near future, the management of temporary employees is becoming increasingly important to organizations (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). Regardless of the type of employment, turnover can be costly to an organization. Surprisingly, there seems to be a lack of awareness concerning the treatment of temporary employees and how it impacts their intent to leave. It is thought that this type of negative treatment could be fueled by the fear of co-employment, which can lead to legal repercussions if both the client and temporary agency share permanent employment roles (Tansky & Veglahn, 1995). Managers need to be aware of how the treatment of the temporary workforce impacts an organization's outcomes.

Additionally, managers and human resource professionals alike need to be able to use temporary staff as a strategic means to meet business goals. Investigating the relationship between antecedents of intent to leave, specifically procedural justice, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, and organizational trust, along with how managers interact with temporary employees, paints a more holistic picture about how certain treatment impacts temporary employees.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the unique contextual relationship between temporary employees and the client organization. This study investigated the impact of positive behaviors by the client organization, as measured by procedural justice and perceived organizational support, on a temporary employee's intent to leave his or her assignment prematurely. The purpose of this study was also to examine whether perceived organizational

support and procedural justice also lead to organizational commitment and organizational trust, which in turn lead to a decrease in intent to leave among temporary employees.

Theoretical Underpinning

This study is underpinned by social exchange theory given that "Social exchange theory suggests that organizations are forums for transactions" (Camerman, Cropanzano, & Vandenberghe, 2007, p. 179). Social exchange theory is based on the notion of reciprocity. The theory, which is based on the works of Thibaut and Kelley (1959) and Blau (1964), can be defined as "actions that are contingent, and mutually rewarding reactions of others" (p. 6). As Emerson (1976) stated in regard to this theory "Implied is a two-sided, mutually contingent, and mutually rewarding process involving 'transactions' or simply 'exchange' (p. 36). On the basis of social exchange theory, it can be posited that an informal relationship develops between employees and their employers that requires valued actions of one party to be returned by the other (Slattery et al., 2008).

Social exchange theory is also a valid choice for underpinning research regarding temporary employees because it takes into account the different psychological contracts that can occur specifically between a temporary employee and the client organization. Because of the unique nature of the working agreement, a psychological contract may differ when the employee is temporary rather than permanent (Chambel & Castanheira, 2006). However, despite the speculated differences, social exchange theory rationalizes the idea that even though temporary employees may receive fewer inducements from the client organization, they can still exhibit positive behaviors when they feel the organization is committed to their success (Slattery et al., 2008).

Furthermore, because it is generally accepted that a positive action on the part of the organization elicits a positive reaction from the temporary employee, social exchange theory serves to underpin this study. Additionally, the literature surrounding both temporary employment and POS is often based on social exchange theory, thus strengthening the rationale for using this theory in the current study (Davis-Blake, Broschak, & George 2003; Lapalme, Simard, & Tremblay, 2011; Liden et al., 2003). Camerman et al. (2007) spoke to the importance of social exchange in an organizational context when they stated "Social exchange theory suggests that individuals can form relationships with a variety of different social entities with whom they happen to be interacting. In other words, social exchange relationships need not be limited to individuals. Workers can establish close ties of mutual obligation with their employers" (p. 181).

According to DeConinch (2010), "Social exchange theory is one of the most important paradigms for comprehending employees' attitudes" (p. 1349), and it is the basis for several other theories including organizational justice (DeConinck, 2010). Likewise social exchange theory has underpinned studies focused on organizational trust, as "trust is gained through the reciprocal interactions of the parties' involved in the relationship" (Deconinck, 2010, p. 1350). Additionally, trust is an important part of social exchange theory because if one person provides a benefit to another, he or she must trust that it is reciprocated in kind (DeConinck, 2010). Last, "employee retention is a possible outcome of social exchange process between employer and employee" (Kroon & Freese, 2013, p. 901).

Research Model

The research model to be tested in this study is shown in Figure 1.
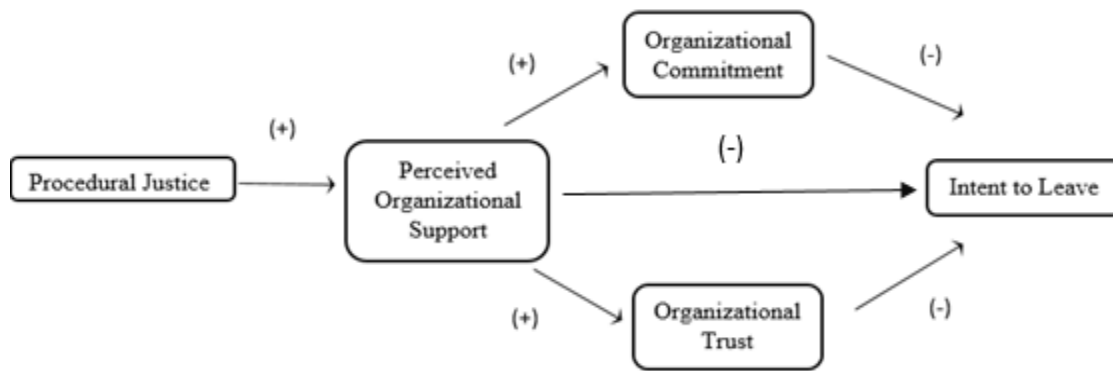
Figure 1. Research Model

Research Hypotheses

This study consisted of eight hypotheses that are based in current literature. These hypotheses have been developed to address the lack of literature surrounding these constructs in regard to temporary employment. Procedural justice, which stems from organizational justice, is often related to organizational outcomes versus specific individual outcomes (Camerman et al., 2007). One of the most noted outcomes from procedural justice is POS as procedural justice is often cited as an antecedent to POS (Campbell, Perry, Maertz, Allen, & Griffeth, 2013; Lind & Earley, 1992; Moorman et al., 1998). Given that procedural justice is concerned with the fairness of policies and procedures, and organizations have discretion over such items, it is speculated that the fairness of these policies increases POS (Shore & Shore, 1995). Such fairness over time increases the perceived quality of the working relationship (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000).

Procedural justice has also been studied in the context of temporary employment, with results indicating that procedural justice has the same impact for temporary employees as for permanent employees (De Gilder, 2003). The relationship between procedural justice and POS has also been indicated to hold true under temporary employee contracts (Baran, Shanock, &

Miller, 2012; Camerman, et al., 2007). Previous results also suggest that temporary employees may be more sensitive to issue of unfairness and in turn procedural justice (De Cuyper et al., 2008). Based on previous research the following hypothesis was developed:

- *H$_1$: Procedural justice is a positive predictor of perceived organizational support for temporary employees.*

Further research speaks to the existing relationship between POS and organizational commitment (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Furthermore, POS has been shown to be related to all constructs of organizational commitment-affective, normative, and continuance (Aggarwal-Gupta, Vohra, & Bhatnagar, 2010; Luxmi & Yadav, 2011). It is argued that this relationship exists on the basis of social exchange theory in that by feeling valued and supportive by their organization (POS), employees feel obligated to react in a positive manner, through being committed to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

Despite the contractual nature of temporary work, temporary employees can be committed to their client organizations. This commitment is often fostered through POS from the client organization specifically, regardless of the contract type (either being temporary or with the chance of permanent employment) (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004; Giunchi, Chambel, & Ghislieri, 2015; Liden et al., 2013). Therefore the second hypothesis was:

- *H$_2$: Perceived organizational support is a positive predictor of organizational commitment.*

Similar to procedural justice, organizational trust is related to POS on an organizational level (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Tan & Tan, 2000). However, POS is often viewed as an antecedent to organizational trust rather than an outcome (Wong, Wong, & Ngo, 2012). Trust

relationships are built over time and on the basis of social exchange rather than purely economic exchanges. As Deconnick (2010) stated "social exchanges differ from economic exchanges in that social exchanges involve high levels of trust and obligation and go beyond the employment contract" (p. 1350). POS is thought to lead to increased trust due to the suggestion that supportive organizations are often seen as being fair and are thought to fulfill their promises (Deconnick, 2010).

Again, research suggests that work attitudes such as organizational trust are not dependent on employment contract type (De Gilder, 2003; Haden et al., 2011). Research suggests that a breach of psychological contract on behalf of either the temporary agency or the client organization can decrease levels of organizational trust toward the respective parties (Lapalme et al., 2011; Robinson, 1996). Given that both temporary and permanent employees are similar in how they respond to POS, a third hypotheses was developed:

- *H_3: Perceived organizational support is a positive predictor of organizational trust for temporary employees.*

Employees with high levels of affective commitment to an organization remain with an organization because they want to continue to be a part of the organization (Simons & Robertson, 2003). A strong link exists between organizational commitment and turnover as "employees who are strongly committed are those who are least likely to leave the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1). Although the temporary agency is the technical employer of the temporary employee, it is the client organization that controls the work environment in which organizational commitment can be created. It should be noted that organizational commitment among temporary employees may be translated into a temporary employee completing his or her assignment (Gallagher & Parks, 2001). Conversely, managerial avoidance of commitment

building strategies in a temporary to permanent environment could conceivably result in the organization's loss (turnover) of the very workers that it had hoped to retain for permanent employment (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). Based on past research the fourth hypothesis was as follows:

- *H4: Organizational commitment is a negative predictor of intent to leave for temporary employees.*

While supervisory trust is built on attributes such as ability, benevolence, and integrity, organizational trust is related to global variables such as POS, justice and turnover intentions (Tan & Tan, 2000). Likewise, Bobbio and Manganelli (2015) linked trust to decreased levels of intent to leave, and Mushonga et al. (2014) discovered a positive relationship between supervisory procedural justice and trust.

Haden et al. (2001) discovered that those who trusted the organization's policies showed less intent to leave and more OCBs and loyalty to the organization; however, OCBs are more contingent on commitment than on trust for this employee group. De Gilder (2003) supported perceptions and levels of trust are the same among contingent and standard employees. For both permanent and temporary employees, "trust is instrumental in the development of these relationships" (Mushonga et al., 2014, p. 17). Therefore the fifth hypothesis was:

- *H5: Organizational trust is a negative predictor of intent to leave for temporary employees.*

POS has been found to be negatively related to intent to leave on the basis that "perceptions of support would encourage the adoption of organizational membership as an important part of an employee's self-identity. Thus individuals perceiving greater support would be less likely to seek alternative employment or to leave the organization" (Allen, Shore, &

Griffeth, 2003, p. 103). Different organizational practices also have been found to lead to increased POS and in return decreased intent to leave (Paré & Tremblay, 2007). Even in times of stress and change, POS can lessen the negative effects of such circumstances and increase intent to stay among employees (Kim & Mor Barak, 2015).

Likewise, activities that lead to increased POS, such as new employee development activities, have been linked to decreasing intent to leave among temporary employees (Slattery et al., 2008). On the other hand, lack of perceived support through mistreatment leads to an increase of intent to leave among temporary employees (Boswell et al., 2012). Therefore, a sixth hypothesis was formed:

- *H_6: Perceived organizational support is a negative predictor of intent to leave for temporary employees.*

Both organizational commitment and organizational trust have been linked to decreasing an employee's intent to leave an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bobbio & Manganelli, 2015; Haden et al., 2001; Mushonga et al., 2014). Additionally, the relationship between these two constructs is often seen as a mediating relationship (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009; Chao-Chan & Na-Ting, 2014; Filipova, 2011). Even under a temporary employment contract, these relationships hold true. While much of the literature speculates a spillover effect between commitment for the temporary agency and the client organization, other research suggests that a temporary employee is more influenced by the commitment felt toward the client organization rather than the temporary agency (Boswell et al., 2012; Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005). Organizational commitment often acts as a mediating agent between constructs and intent to leave among temporary employees (Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005; Slattery et al., 2008). Therefore two remaining hypotheses were developed:

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- *H_7: The negative relationship between perceived organizational support and intent to leave is partially mediated by organizational commitment for temporary employees.*

- *H_8: The negative relationship between perceived organizational support and intent to leave is partially mediated by organizational trust for temporary employees.*

Overview of the Study Design

In order to test the above hypotheses, a mediating model was developed depicting the relationship between procedural justice, POS, organizational trust, organizational commitment, and intent to leave. The mentioned constructs have been tested in literature; however, a model of this kind adds new information to the literature base surrounding temporary employees, as the literature surrounding antecedents of turnover among the temporary workforce group is lacking.

This quantitative study is designed to be cross-sectional in nature, which allows for data to be collected from multiple respondents at the same time. A quantitative design is appropriate for this study given that it is being questioned whether a relationship between two constructs exists and how these relationships interact with one another (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

A convenience sample was used, targeting temporary workers of staffing agencies in North Texas. Temporary agencies were contacted in order to build relationships and involve them in the process of gathering data. Email messages were sent to each staffing agency in order to fully explain the purpose of the study, how data would be collected, the participation needed from each agency, as well as what was needed from each respondent. In exchange for their participation, temporary agencies were offered the chance to review the results upon completion of the study.

Four staffing agencies that offer staffing services for a variety of industries were targeted in an effort to increase the generalizability of results. The targeted number of responses from

temporary employees was 350 complete responses, so as to ensure a 10:1 ratio of responses to survey questions. This target also ensured that the number of responses would be high enough to run the appropriate statistical analyses. To increase the amount of usable data, respondents were required to answer each survey question before being able to proceed through the survey. However, respondents had the opportunity to exit the survey at any point if they did not wish to complete the survey.

The designed survey included scales to measure procedural justice, POS, organizational commitment, trust, and intent to leave. Procedural justice was measured using Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) scale. Perceived organizational support was measured using the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support, which was created by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa (1986). Organizational commitment was measured using Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) scale, and Organizational Trust was measured using the Robinson and Rousseau (1994) scale. Last, intent to leave was measured using Rosin and Korabik's (1991) four-item scale. Additional information to be collected included the respondents' level of education, tenure at the organization, age, and gender. These factors were collected to determine if demographic differences impacted survey responses.

Surveys were administered via e-mail. After respondents had three days to complete the survey, follow up communication was sent to all of the temporary agencies asking them to resend the survey information and encourage immediate responses from those who had yet to participate. To ensure that response rates could be calculated, the temporary agencies were asked to report the specific dates that the survey was sent and how many individuals received the invitation to complete the survey.

One email reminder was sent after approximately the third day encouraging respondents to complete the questionnaire. The survey remained open for three weeks given the various temporary agencies sent out the survey at different times. Once the data were collected, structural equation modeling was used to test the relationships within the model. Structural equation modeling is fitting for this study because it allows for a model with several dependent variables to be tested and shows different weights between each path, while accounting for measurement error within the model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

Once the data collection period ended, the survey responses were downloaded into an editable file using IBM® SPSS® software. To ensure accurate results, the data set was reviewed for missing data and outliers as both can cause results to be skewed. SPSS ® software was used to run descriptive analyses of the survey responses, and demographic data was extracted from the dataset. This demographic data consisted of information that was also collected as control variables, including age, gender, and time spent on the current temporary assignment. The demographic information is included in the results section of Chapter Four. The Cronbach's alpha was also computed for each scale to ensure reliability.

The research model was then depicted in AMOS to first test a measurement model to determine the best fit. Factor loadings and modification indices were examined to determine if certain factors need to be removed (Harmon, 1976). As a part of this process the Harman's single factor test was also conducted to test for common method variance. The Chi squared, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and confirmatory factor indicator (CFI) of the measurement and single factor model were compared to confirm the best fitting model.

In order to test the mediation models, a theoretical model and an alternative model were tested. The theoretical model was tested first, which tested for complete mediation. The

alternative model, which added a direct path between perceived organizational support and intent to leave, depicting partial mediation, was then tested.

Significance of the Study

This study contributes to both the literature surrounding temporary employment as well as the literature of social exchange theory. Psychological contracts between temporary employees and their client organizations frequently have been viewed as one of purely economic exchanges (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009; Moorman & Harland, 2002). However, this study postulated that temporary employees can exhibit positive behaviors that are consistent with those of workers with full time employment. Furthermore, the study examined specific types of positive behaviors instead of studying the broad organizational citizenship behaviors that are often the focus of existing literature on temporary employment (Davis-Blake et al., 2003; Koene & Riemsdijk, 2005). This study also examined on the direct behaviors of the client organization that impact these positive behaviors.

The mistreatment of temporary employees by their managers, coworkers, and the organization as a whole is often cited in literature (Koene & Riemsdijk, 2005; Lepak & Snell, 1999). As the use of this type of employee continues to increase, it is imperative that organizations know how their behavior and that of their constituents impacts the intent to leave of the temporary employee. For temporary employees who are on short-term assignments, turnover costs can be detrimental to the organization (Griffeth & Horn, 2001).

Results indicated that positive behaviors on the part of the organization can lead to a decrease in intent to leave among this employee type. As such, several practical implications can be discussed. Reducing costs related to turnover and unproductive workers is only one practical implication of this study. Another is to bring awareness to those managing these types of

employees that although the employment contract may differ, the psychological contract and responses to organizational actions may not. Managers of this employee type should be trained accordingly on how their behaviors impact the actions of temporary employees, so they are cognizant of their actions and perhaps change them to be more supportive of temporary employees.

Overall, temporary employees can be of great benefit to an organization. They can offer a means to increase and decrease the workforce as needed while avoiding reduction of the permanent workforce and the negative impacts to employee morale that is often associated with downsizing. Temporary employees are also a great way to find skilled workers to meet exact business needs, while still remaining cost effective. However, the benefits of using temporary employees are negated if their mistreatment leads to negative work behaviors and prematurely ended contracts. This study's contribution is in showing how both the organization and the temporary employee can benefit from the relationship if the temporary employee feels that he or she is supported.

Although temporary employees are on short-term contracts, they can still greatly impact the productivity of an organization. Moorman and Harland (2002) suggested that an employee with an organization for a short time who performs at a certain level is more beneficial to the employer if an employee of lower caliber who is there for a longer amount of time. As a result, organizations should seek ways to keep their temporary workforce committed to avoid unnecessary, costly turnover.

Limitations and Delimitations

Self-reported bias is a potential limitation of this study, although, researchers have contended that such common method variance does not significantly impact a study (Crampton

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& Wagner, 1994; Spector, 2006). Additionally, the fact that the survey captured responses at one point in time from a convenience sample could also be a limitation as outside factors experienced around the time of the survey could influence the answers. Another possible limitation could be that, especially given the presumably insecure nature of a temporary position, respondents may have avoided answering truthfully out of fear of retaliation from the client organization. In order to offset this potential limitation, respondents were assured that their information and responses would not be shared.

Definitions

The following definitions are useful for interpreting this study:

- Contingent Worker: An individual who works in a position that does not have an explicit or implicit contract for long-term employment or a position in which the minimum hours worked can differ on an as-needed basis (Polivka & Nardone, 1989, p. 11).

- Temporary Worker: A type of contingent worker who is hired through a temporary agency on a contingent or fixed contract basis (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004).

- Permanent Employee: An employee who is considered to be a full time employee of the organization and part of its internal work force (Kalleberg, Reynolds, & Marsden, 2003).

- Temporary Agency: Agencies that are hired to outsource a firm's recruiting needs and manage the recruiting process from screening applicants, to hiring and firing and offering payroll services (Kalleberg, 2000).

- Client Organization: The organization that uses the services of the temporary agency and hosts the temporary employee (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004).

- Perceived Organizational Support: An employee's belief that the organization cares about his or her wellbeing (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

- Procedural Justice: Perceived fairness of the processes and procedures used to determine outcomes of a job (Greenber, 1990).

- Organizational Commitment: "The relative strength of an individual's identification and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, p. 226).

- Organizational Trust: The employees' faith in the organization's sincerity, goodwill, and credibility, as well as the belief that the leaders of the organization are reliable and honest in their exchanges (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996).

- Intent to Leave: Actions including "thoughts of quitting, leading to an evaluation of the expected utility of search, intention to search, search, evaluation of alternatives, intention to quit, and finally the withdrawal decision and behavior" (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978, p.408).

Outline of the Dissertation

This dissertation followed a traditional five-chapter approach. The first chapter provides a general overview of the background and the study. Chapter two presents a thorough literature review of procedural justice, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intent to leave. An overview of current temporary literature as it relates to these constructs is also covered. Chapter three and four discuss the study design and the results. The significance of the study along with areas of future research are presented in chapter five.

Conclusion

      This chapter provided a background and statement of the problem. This chapter also outlined the foundational theoretical underpinnings used for the study and presented the hypotheses and the research model. A brief overview of the study was provided, and the significance of the study was also discussed. Last, definitions of key terms were provided.

Chapter Two

Review of the Literature

As previously stated, the purpose of this study was to examine the unique contextual relationship between temporary employees and the client organization. This study investigated the impact of positive behaviors on behalf of the client organization, as measured by procedural justice and perceived organizational support, on a temporary employee's intent to leave his or her assignment prematurely, while also investing the role of organizational commitment and organizational trust. This study sought to offer support for the notion that the treatment of temporary employees by the client organization can have a direct impact on the behavior of the temporary employee.

To provide support for this study, a literature review was conducted to create a foundation for the general study and the specific hypotheses. To develop a basis for the research model, the literature review provides a succinct yet thorough overview of each construct, in the context of permanent employment, as well as the relationships among them An overview of temporary employment literature is presented to provide evidence of the need for this study; followed by literature focused on the named constructs and temporary employees as well as literature outlining the general treatment experienced by this employee group. The overview of the literature indicates that there is a lack of published research focusing on the impact that the treatment of temporary employees has on their intent to leave an assignment prematurely. The literature also suggests that despite the differences in employment type, temporary employees generally react to specific treatment in the same manner as permanent employees.

A variety of mediums were used to gather literature for this study. While books and conference presentations were used, the bulk of the literature was collected via peer-reviewed

journals. The online library of The University of Texas at Tyler was used to gain access to research databases including Business Source Complete, SAGE, and Emerald. Once initial articles were collected, the references were reviewed to find additional articles. Key terms such as "perceived organizational support," "procedural justice," "organizational justice," "perceived fairness," "interpersonal justice," "organizational commitment," "affective commitment," "organizational trust," "organizational citizenship behavior," "intent to leave," and "turnover" were used to gather research concerning the main constructs in this study. Terms such as "temporary worker," "temporary employee," "agency worker," and "contingent worker" were used to locate data concerning temporary workers.

Social Exchange Theory

This study was underpinned by social exchange theory given that "social exchange theory suggests that organizations are forums for transactions" (Camerman, Cropanzano, & Vandenberghe, 2007, p. 179). Social exchange theory is based on the notion of reciprocity and is often seen as a continuation of reinforcement psychology (Emerson, 1976). The theory, which is based on the works of Thibaut and Kelley (1959) and Blau (1964), can be defined as "actions that are contingent, and mutually rewarding reactions of others" (p. 6). As Emerson (1976) stated in regard to this theory, "implied is a two-sided, mutually contingent, and mutually rewarding process involving 'transactions' or simply 'exchange' (p. 336). This theory has been used both in micro (within small groups) and macro (within the organization) levels, as well as in a variety of settings and contexts (Emerson, 1976).

In a broad context, social exchange encompasses how a being will react to its environment (Homans, 1969). Social exchange theory more recently has been expanded and studied in an organizational context. Camerman et al. (2007) spoke to the importance of social

exchange in an organizational context when they stated "Social exchange theory suggests that individuals can form relationships with a variety of different social entities with whom they happen to be interacting. In other words, social exchange relationships need not be limited to individuals. Workers can establish close ties of mutual obligation with their employers" (p. 181). On the basis of social exchange theory, it can be posited that an informal relationship develops between employees and their employers that requires valued actions of one party to be returned by the other (Slattery et al., 2008).

Social exchange theory can be applied to the different psychological contracts that can occur specifically between a temporary employee and the client organization. Because of the unique nature of the working agreement, the psychological contract the organization has with permanent employees may differ from the contract that exists with temporary employees (Chambel & Castanheira, 2006). However, despite the speculated differences, social exchange theory rationalizes the idea that even though temporary employees may receive fewer inducements from the client organization, they can still exhibit positive behaviors when they feel the organization is committed to their success (Slattery et al., 2008). Furthermore, the idea is supported that a positive action on the part of the organization elicits a positive reaction from the temporary employee, showing that social exchange theory extends past employment contract type (Deconinck, 2010)

Additionally, it has been stated that "Social exchange theory is one of the most important paradigms for comprehending employees' attitudes" (Deconinck, 2010, p. 1349). Given this study is focused on employee attitudes held toward an organization and the associated outcomes, it is crucial that the underpinning theory supports this exchange. While social exchange has been the basis for literature surrounding both permanent and temporary employment, it has also

underpinned studies specific to the constructs being examined in this study. For example, POS, in relation to both permanent and temporary employees, is often based on social exchange theory, thus strengthening the rationale for using this theory in the current study (Davis-Blake, Broschak, & George 2003; Lapalme, Simard, & Tremblay, 2011; Liden et al., 2003).

Social exchange theory is also the basis for several other theories, including procedural justice (DeConinck, 2010; Masterson, 2000). Likewise, social exchange theory has underpinned studies focused on organizational trust, since "trust is gained through the reciprocal interactions of the parties' involved in the relationship" (Deconinck, 2010, p. 1350) and that people engage with other individuals or organizations that they can trust (Mushonga et al., 2014). Additionally, trust is an important part of social exchange theory because if one person provides a benefit to another, he or she must trust that it is reciprocated in kind (DeConinck, 2010). As implied through social exchange theory, employees may feel obligated to respond to favorable treatment on part of the organization by becoming more committed to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Finally, decreased intent to leave is also possible through a positive social exchange with the employee and organization (Kroon & Freese, 2013).

Given that social exchange theory accounts for differing work contexts and employee attitudes, this theory seems to best underpin this study. The fact that social exchange theory has been previously used to underpin research surrounding the same constructs used in this study further strengthens the rationale for inclusion.

Overview of Constructs

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) is based on organizational support theory and can be described as an employee's belief that the organization cares about his or her wellbeing

(Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). POS is also seen as the extension of social exchange concept to the organization (Mukherjee, 2010). By assigning an organization human-like characteristics, employees attribute the favorable or unfavorable treatment they receive to how valuable they are to the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Based on the norm of reciprocity, it is believed that a positive action on behalf of the organization elicits a positive response from the employee. It has been found that positive reactions are greater if it is believed that the organization acted positively out of choice rather than out of obligation (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

POS has been heavily studied in literature and is related to several positive job attitudes and work behaviors, such as high attendance, organizational commitment, job involvement, job satisfaction, and increased job performance (Allen et al., 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS also assists employees with adapting in times of change and uncertainty. This is important given that change within an organization is inevitable (Smollan, 2012). POS has been found to mediate the negative relationship between change-related uncertainty and job satisfaction as well as uncertainty and job performance. It is suggested that this occurs because "the extent of change-related uncertainty employees perceive in the work environment sends a signal to employees regarding whether the organization values and supports them" (Cullen, Edwards, Casper, & Gue, 2014, p. 277).

Literature has also tied POS to higher transfer of learning, which refers to the application of learned knowledge to the job (Goldstein & Ford, 2002). Transfer of learning has received increased attention in the literature given that employers want to know there is a return on their investment that benefits both the employees and the organization. Specifically, Zumrah and Boyle (2015) found that when examining the relationship between job satisfaction, POS, and

transfer of learning, a significant positive relationship existed between POS and job satisfaction. Additionally, a positive relationship existed between POS and transfer of learning, with this relationship mediated by job satisfaction. Zumrah and Boyle (2015) explained this relationship by stating, "When employees perceive their organization highly values their contribution and cares about them as individuals, their level of job satisfaction increases. As the level of satisfaction increases, so too does the likelihood of the employee to apply what they have learned in a training program to their job" (p. 247).

A positive work environment inclusive of rewards and job characteristics including job security and training has been found to be predictive of POS (Shore & Shore, 1995). An additional antecedent that has received specific attention is supportive human resource (HR) practices (Allen et al., 2003). Such practices "suggest investment in employees and show recognition of employee contributions" and "signal that the organization is supportive of the employee and is seeking to establish or continue a social exchange relationship with employees" (Allen et al., 2003, p. 100).

Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is related to the perceived fairness of the processes and procedures used to determine outcomes (Greenberg, 1990). Procedural justice was first introduced by Thibaut and Walker (1975) within a legal environment context; however, it was Leventha (1980) who extended this idea to the organizational setting. In order for a process to be perceived as fair, it must meet the following six criteria: (1) be applied consistently across people and across time; (2) be free from bias; (3) ensure that accurate information is collected and used in making decisions; (4) have some mechanism to correct flawed or inaccurate decisions; (5) conform to

personal or prevailing standards of ethics or morality; and (6) ensure that the opinions of various groups affected by the decision have been taken into account (Colquitt et al., 2001, p. 426).

Lind and Tyler (1988) presented a model of procedural justice referred to as the "self-interest" model that suggested procedures are seen as fair if employees believe they are able to influence favorable outcomes. However, a later test of this model showed contradicting results in that "procedures could be seen as fair even if they offered no control over desired outcomes" (Moorman et al., 1993, p. 221). These results led to the development of the group value model of procedural justice (Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990). This model stated that, unlike the self-interest model, procedures were seen as fair if they "linked procedural justice judgements to values within a person's reference group and to the desire to be and be seen to be a full-fledged, full-status member of the group, organization, or society that mandates the decision-making procedure" (Lind & Early, 1991, p. 7). Simply put, even procedures that produce unfavorable results for employees can be seen as fair if employees are able to voice their opinions and their side of the story; "to deny someone voice when decisions are made that affect the person is to imply that he or she has nothing of value to contribute to the decision" (Lind & Early, 1991, p. 9).

Together with distributive and interpersonal justice, procedural justice stems from the larger construct of organizational justice (DeConinck, 2010). However, they are also seen as three distinct constructs measuring independent factors (Colquitt et al., 2001). Further research offered empirical evidence that the different types of organizational justice have different organizational outcomes, with procedural justice operating through a mediation model (Masterson et al., 2000).

Procedural justice is often linked to organizational outcomes, while interpersonal and distributive justice are tied to more specific results, such as determining pay for different employees (Camerman et al., 2007). Procedural justice has been linked to supervisor trust, organizational commitment, intent to leave, cohesiveness within a group, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and pay satisfaction (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Moorman et al., 1993). The link between procedural justice and OCBs is significant, as OCBs may be a better explanation for job performance than are work attitudes because OCBs measure extra-role performance that is more discretionary than in-role performance, which is required by the organization to keep one's job (Moorman et al., 1993).

Additionally, procedural justice has been found to be perhaps the largest contributor to POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Procedural justice has been studied in different contexts, such as mechanistic (characterized by being rigid with formal rules and regulations) and organic (characterized by being more flexible and adaptable) organizations. Studies support that employees in a mechanistic environment are more sensitive to procedural justice than are those in organic organizations (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003).

Because organizations have discretion over their policies and procedures, the perceived fairness of these policies should make a considerable contribution to POS (Shore & Shore, 1995). As Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) stated, "to the extent employees perceive their organization to be unfair because it uses unfair procedures for resource allocations, employees will develop negative attitudes toward the organization" (p. 287). Negative outcomes of perceived unfairness include employees feeling resentment toward their organizations and counterproductive work behaviors such as interpersonal conflict, sabotage, theft, and aggression

(Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). To determine fairness, employees typically compare themselves to other employees in similar roles (Farooq & Farooq, 2014).

Bing, Shanshi, and Dongal (2014) found that procedural justice is also related to desired work outcomes such as increased extra-role behaviors and decreased turnover intentions. They also found that these relationships were fully mediated by organizational identification, meaning "procedural justice can foster organizational identification, which leads to positive reactions such as increased extra role behavior and decreased turnover intention" (Bing, Shanshi, & Dongal, 2014, p. 442).

Just as employees can attribute perceived support from their supervisors to their organizations, research has also revealed that perceived justice on the part of the supervisor can be attributed to the organization. This is referred to as supervisory procedural justice as it encompasses employees' perceptions of fairness pertaining to how their supervisors implement policies and procedures (Yang, Mossholder, & Peng, 2009). As Mushonga, Thiagarajan, and Torrance (2014) pointed out "this definition requires discarding the widely accepted notion that procedural justice originates only from the organization because it fails to recognize that supervisors have the discretion and autonomy to be procedurally fair, independent of the organization" (p. 18).

Masterson et al. (2000) noted that perceptions of procedural fairness can accumulate over time and stem from experiencing singular events such as performance appraisals and merit increases. These repeated instances of procedural justice show that organizations are concerned about the employee's welfare (Mukherjee, 2010). Overall, a practical way for employers to foster procedural justice is that "organizational guidelines for rewards allocation should be developed according to each individual's work-related contributions, with management ensuring

the consistency and impartiality of the decision-making process, providing employees with timely information, and giving employees the chance to voice their opinions" (Bing et al., 2014, p. 443).

Organizational Commitment

Several different definitions have been given for organizational commitment throughout literature. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) defined organizational commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification and involvement in a particular organization" or "a bond or linking of the individual to the organization" and "a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization (i.e. makes turnover less likely)" (p. 226). Organizational commitment has also been described as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 27).

Various models regarding organizational commitment also have been developed. Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed a model that incorporates the different mindsets that might exist in regard to commitment. As a result, their model includes affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to the affective attachment one may have with his or her organization in that "the strongly committed individual identified with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 2). Committed employees remain because they want to continue to be a part of the organization (Simons & Robertson, 2003). Continuance commitment is associated with the cost of leaving the organization, while normative commitment is developed out of the felt obligation to remain with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) also developed a multidimensional model that states organizational commitment can be labeled as compliance, identification, or internalization.

Compliance refers to when attitudes are adopted in order to gain specific rewards, and identification occurs when an individual remains committed to establish or maintain a conducive relationship. On the other hand, internalization occurs when individuals are committed to the organization because the attitudes and behaviors that are exhibited by the organization align with those of the individual (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986)

A strong link exists between organizational commitment and turnover as "employees who are strongly committed are those who are least likely to leave the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1). Committed employees are also seen as being more productive. Predictors of organizational commitment include individual characteristics of the employees, organizational structure, and work experience (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Organizational Trust

Organizational trust is defined as an employee's belief that the organization will act as he or she has anticipated. Organizational trust signifies the employees' faith in the organization's sincerity, goodwill, and credibility, as well as the belief that the leaders of the organization are reliable and honest in their exchanges (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996). The organizational trust literature is often tied to social exchange theory as "the implication of trust in social exchange relationships is profound because individuals tend to engage in relationships with other individuals or entities they trust. As a result, trust is instrumental in the development of these relationships" (Mushonga et al., 2014, p. 17). Just as in personal relationships, trust is critical in an organizational context in order to create an environment that leads to people feeling secure in their jobs (Mishra & Morrissery, 1990). As Erturk (2014) pointed out, "Trust is a key facilitator of integration between the employee's relationship to the organization and to his or her supervisor…" (p. 151).

Three characteristics are often cited as being personal predictors of trust. The first refers to the skills and competencies that give an individual technical credibility with another (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). The second predictor is benevolence or the belief that one individual wants to do right for another. The final predictor, integrity, is the perception that one will fulfill an agreement (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007).

Trust in an organizational context has often been distinguished between trust in the organization and trust in the supervisor, as trust in the supervisor is created through the daily interactions that occur between an employee and supervisor (Schoorman et al., 2007). This type of trust has been found to promote commitment only if this interpersonal trust leads to institutional trust (Baek & Jung, 2014). Trust can also be dependent on the context and culture of the organization, including the perceived risk associated with the employment relationship (Mayer et al., 1995). It is possible for an employee to trust the supervisor without trusting the organization as relationships develop between the two separately (Tan & Tan, 2000).

While supervisory trust is built on attributes such as ability, benevolence, and integrity, organizational trust is related to global variables such as POS, justice, and turnover intentions (Tan & Tan, 2000). Trust in organizations is the "global evaluation of an organization's trustworthiness as perceived by the employee. It is the employee's confidence that the organization will perform an action that is beneficial or at least not detrimental to him or her" (Tan & Tan, 2000, p. 243). From an organizational standpoint, information-sharing practices foster mutual feelings of trust by making individuals feel valued and trusted by the organization (Simons & Roberson, 2003).

Intent to Leave

Turnover can be costly to organizations both after separation and "starting prior to separation, through lower productivity of the employee intending to leave and continuing difficulties after actual separation" (Hsu, Jiang, Klein, & Tang, 2003, p. 361). With hiring and training costs of a new employee estimated to be 200% of his or her annual salary, turnover is an important construct for managers (Griffeth & Horn, 2001).

In attempts to deter turnover, organizations can measure an employee's intent to leave, as intent to leave has been found to be an immediate precursor to turnover (Martin, 1980). Intent to leave includes "thoughts of quitting, leading to an evaluation of the expected utility of search, intention to search, search, evaluation of alternatives, intention to quit, and finally the withdrawal decision and behavior" (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth, 1978, p. 408).

Factors of an individual's intent to leave can be broken down into push and pull factors (Kim, Wolf-Wendel, & Twombly, 2013). Push factors relate to personal demographic variables, such as family situations, dissatisfaction with a current job, and job location, to name a few. Pull factors are those factors of another job that make it desirable to leave, such as a higher salary and better benefits (Matier, 1990).

Relationships Among Constructs

The following section will review the existing tested relationships between the previously discussed constructs as related to permanent employees. This section will also provide foundational support for each of the directional relationships in the research model. This section will provide a basis for the study within the confines of temporary employment.

Procedural Justice and Perceived Organizational Support

Procedural justice and POS have been linked in research on the basis that employees feel as though they are valued by the organization if procedures are fair (Lind & Earley, 1992). Campbell et al. (2013) suggested this link may exist given individuals are more likely to perceive that organizations are the ones in charge of processes and procedures. Support for the positive relationship between procedural justice and POS has been found throughout literature (Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998). Campbell et al. (2013) found specifically that, while distributive justice was not related to perceived organizational support, procedural justice was strongly related to POS. Additionally, the authors found that procedural justice had a stronger relationship between POS than perceived supervisory support.

The relationship between the two constructs is often posed as a mediating relationship between procedural justice, perceived organizational support, and other organizational attitudes. Masterson and colleagues (2000) argued that the relationship between POS, procedural justice, and other positive behaviors exists because "employees perceive acts of fairness to be contributions that enhance the quality and desirability of their ongoing relationship. These contributions in turn obligate the employee to reciprocate in ways that preserve the social exchange relationships, through voluntary behaviors or attitudes that benefit the parties who treated them fairly" (p. 740). Based on this argument, the authors also showed that the relationship between procedural justice and intent to leave was fully mediated by perceived organizational support.

Support was also found for POS fully mediating the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviors. Specifically, perceived organizational support

was found to mediate the relationship between procedural justice and interpersonal helping, personal industry, and loyal boosterism (Moorman et al., 1998).

Procedural Justice and Organizational Commitment

Masterson et al. (2000) concluded that procedural justice is an antecedent of organizational commitment. Additionally, a direct relationship between procedural justice and commitment also has been cited in other literature (Colquitt et al., 2014; Moorman et al., 1993). Sweeney and McFarlin (1993) found that procedural justice is a better predictor of organizational commitment than distributive justice. According to the authors, fair procedures lead employees to "feel they will 'get a fair shake' from the company and its representatives should they perform well in the future, even if the current rewards were unfair" (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993, p. 104).

It is important to note that "commitment is determined not only by individual justice perceptions, but also by the collective justice climate present within the organization" (Ohana, 2014, p. 664). In regard to the relationship between procedural justice and affective commitment, surprisingly, the interactions between size of an organization and procedural justice had no impact on affective commitment. However, it was found that longer tenure in an organization did lead to increased sensitivity to a justice climate (Ohana, 2014).

The relationship between procedural justice and organizational commitment is often a mediating one. Loi (2006) found that the positive relationship between procedural justice and organizational commitment was fully mediated by perceived organizational support. Likewise, Mukherjee (2010) found that perceived organizational support partially mediated the relationship between procedural justice and affective organizational commitment.

Procedural Justice and Trust

Employees expect to be treated fairly by their employers. If mistreatment occurs, employees may feel as though their psychological contracts have been breached. This breach of contract can create issues of mistrust (Farooq & Farooq, 2014). Furthermore, Colquitte and Rodell (2011) found that procedural justice is positively related to trust even when prior levels of trust and trustworthiness are controlled for. Likewise, Ambrose and Schminke (2003) found that this relationship is stronger among mechanistic organizations that value strict guidelines and procedures. However, it has been pointed out that inconsistencies exist in the measures used to draw conclusions between procedural justice and trust constructs (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003). While both procedural and distributive justice have been related to organizational trust, the relationship between distributive justice and trust did not hold true when controlling for procedural justice (Tan & Tan, 2000).

Social exchange theory often is the basis for these studies as when employees are given a voice through procedural justice, a level of trust develops. However, DeConinck (2010) pointed out that "Although trust is an integral part of social exchange theory and is linked to organizational justice, most research has examined only trust in the supervisor and not organizational trust" and that "much of this theory used to explain interaction and organizational justice, perceived support, and trust derived from social exchange theory" (p. 1350).

Perceived Organizational Support and Organizational Commitment

The link between POS and commitment is also prevalent in literature (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Meyer et al., 2002; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001; Shore & Tetrick, 1991). In line with social exchange theory, Eisenberger et al. (2001) found that POS leads to an increased level of felt obligation to an organization, which mediates the relationship between POS and affective

commitment. This felt obligation can be created through activities such as employee

development (Tansky & Cohen, 2001).

A study of customer service representatives showed that the positive relationship between POS and organizational citizenship behaviors was also mediated by organizational commitment (Chao-Chan & Na-Ting, 2014). The authors suggested the relationship exists on the basis "that employees who perceive that their organization values and cares about them may feel that they ought to be committed to their organization, and in turn reciprocate by exhibiting behaviors that are beneficial to their organization" (Chao-Chan & Na-Ting, 2014, p. 69). Aggarwal-Gupta, Vohra, and Bhatnagar (2010) broke down organizational commitment into normative and affective, and tested to determine whether the relationship with POS held true. They found that POS had a positive impact on an individual's psychological well-being, and that it also is related to both forms of organizational commitment.

Perceived Organizational Support and Organizational Trust

Literature suggests that "perceived organizational support is a predictor rather than an outcome of trust in organizations" (Wong, Wong, & Ngo, 2012, p. 289). Moreover, this positive relationship and correlation are often cited in literature (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Muneer et al.'s (2014) study supports this positive relationship, and the authors point out that "employees having perceived organizational support develop long-term relationships and trust with the organization" (p. 47). Whitener (2001) also found support for the relationship between POS and organizational trust, and that this trust further mediates the relationship between POS and organizational commitment.

Furthermore, Deconnick (2010) found that the relationship between procedural justice and organizational trust is mediated by POS. It is postulated that this relationship exists because

POS leads individuals to believe that the organization is both fair in its processes and procedures and that it will fulfill the promises made to its employees (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

Constructs and Intent to Leave

The constructs of POS, procedural justice, organizational commitment, and organizational trust have all been previously linked to turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2003; Paré & Tremblay, 2007). For example, procedural justice has been found to decrease the intent to leave (Farooq & Farooq, 2014). Along with policies and procedures, Ko and Hur (2014) explored the relationship between procedural justice, job satisfaction, and intent to leave as it related to the level of satisfaction employees had with their health benefits. Their hypotheses were supported in that employees who were unsatisfied with their health benefits perceived high levels of procedural justice, also believed that they were valued by their organizations and, in turn, had similar levels of job satisfaction and decreased intent to leave as those employees who were satisfied with their benefits. (Ko & Hur, 2014).

Likewise, Bobbio and Manganelli (2015) linked trust to decreased levels of intent to leave. Mushonga et al. (2014) discovered a positive relationship between supervisory procedural justice and trust, and that trust mediates the relationship between procedural justice and intent to leave. The relationships between the constructs and intent to leave are often a mediated relationship (Allen et al., 2003; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009; Hopkins & Weathington, 2006; Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Rhoades et al., 2001).

Although POS has a negative relationship with intent to leave, more research is needed on the relationship between the antecedents of POS and the impact they have on an employee's intent to leave (Allen et al., 2003). POS is negatively related to intent to leave on the basis that "perceptions of support would encourage the adoption of organizational membership as an

important part of an employee's self-identity. Thus individuals perceiving greater support would be less likely to seek alternative employment or to leave the organization" (Allen et al., 2003, p. 103). Organizational commitment and organizational trust often act as mediators between POS and intent to leave (Filipova, 2011).

POS also mediates the relationship between role stressors and intent to leave. Kim and Mor Barak (2015) stated, "The argument can be made that when workers perceive role stress, they blame their organization and supervisors for failing to control the role stress" (p. 136). Supportive HR practices could also lead to increased POS and decreased intent to leave. Specific HR practices found to be negatively and directly related to turnover intentions include nonmonetary recognition, fair rewards, competency development, and information-sharing practices (Paré & Tremblay, 2007).

Overview of Temporary Employee Literature

Despite the recent increase in the use of temporary employees, this type of work arrangement is nothing new. The use of non-permanent workers has been in existence since the 1920s and started to expand exponentially in the mid-1970s when economic changes increased both competition and the need for more flexibility in employment relationships (Kalleberg, 2000). This trend has continued both in the United States and in Europe (Chambel & Castanheira, 2006; Guest, 2004; Kuvaas, Buch, & Dysvik, 2013). What has changed is that temporary employees have now "become an integral feature of firms' personnel strategy that enables them to respond to the business cycle and makes their workforce problems more manageable and less costly" (Kalleberg, 2000, p. 347).

With the increase of flexible staffing arrangements, such as temporary contract and part-time work, research began to focus on why organizations are turning to this type of employment

versus increasing their internal workforce, which was once the prevalent practice (Kalleberg, Reynolds, & Marsden, 2003). Additional research indicates that the transition from internalization to externalization of the labor force has raised several questions for researchers, including what type of organizations are using temporary employees (Davis-Blake & Uzzi, 1993). Internalization of the workforce may be more commonly known as the use of permanent or standard employees. They are considered to be sheltered from outside competition and the first to be considered for advancement opportunities. Internalization is "used to control and stabilize the workforce, and employers sought to create loyalty and attachment on the part of their employees by training them in form-specific skills and offering them continued, regular full-time employment" (Kalleberg et al., 2003, p. 526).

Externalization, on the other hand, is focused on increasing an organization's flexibility rather than stability as it moves employment opportunities and contracts outside of the organization. This make versus buy decision has raised several questions for researchers and managers alike, such as how to manage performance and issues of inequity between employee groups (Kalleberg et al., 2003). Studies have grouped employees in various ways for purposes of research. Some studies have grouped all nonstandard workers together, while others have combined different flexible staffing groups together, such as part-time and seasonal employees. Kalleberg et al. (2003) pointed out that comparing these studies is often difficult because of the vast differences in population choices and lack of a dominant externalization theory. The authors recommended that in order to compare various studies, an understanding of why organizations employ these flexible staffing arrangements would be necessary.

Research has indicated that organizations use flexible staffing for a variety of reasons. According to Hippel et al. (1997), the most widely cited reason for the use of temporary

employees is to reduce costs. This reduction in costs often refers to the lower wages and reduction in benefit costs associated with hiring a temporary employee versus a permanent employee. Kalleberg et al. (2003) found moderate support for their hypothesis that flexible staffing arrangements may be used to reduce costs. Likewise, it is suggested that agency workers are used more often in organizations that pay above market rates and want to circumvent collective agreements and issues of inequality in pay, as well as in organizations that want to provide different levels of benefits to certain types of workers (Davis-Blake, Broschak, & George, 2003; Houseman, 2001; Houseman, Kalleberg, & Erickcek, 2003). These views seem to hold true given that temporary workers often earn less in most industries other than nursing; it should be noted, however, that this wage difference is often offset by margins paid to staffing agencies (Kilcoyne, 2005; Peck & Theodore, 2007; Peck, Theodore, & Ward, 2005). In addition to wage and benefit cost reductions, the use of flexible staffing agencies may also reduce administrative and training costs, as well as costs of recruiting and screening potential employees (Wheeler & Buckley, 2004).

Cappelli and Keller (2013) reported contradictory results when they found no support for the idea that employers who pay higher wages and offer greater employee benefits are more likely to use flexible staffing arrangements. They further state, "Perhaps surprisingly, the more benefits an establishment offered, the less they made use of nonstandard work" (p. 896). However, the authors did find that organizations were more likely to use alternative arrangements if their recruiting and hiring costs were high, except among those using temporary staffing agencies. Likewise, while Houseman (2001) found that there was a discrepancy between the wages of permanent and temporary workers in flexible working arrangements, few employers actually cited this as being a key reason for using this type of employment contract.

Contradictory to economical based theories, sociological theories imply that organizations use flexible staffing arrangements to decrease rigidity and increase their legitimacy during times of organizational and economic uncertainty. These flexible types of staffing arrangements allow organizations to react quickly to a changing environment by changing the size of their workforce at a moment's notice (Kalleberg et al., 2003). Through this type of employment contract, organizations are also able to avoid having to hire permanent employees for their peak seasons (Abraham, 1990; Christensen, 1995).

Cabelli and Keller (2013) also found that organizations who experience more seasonality are more likely to use flexible working arrangements. As a result, by being able to meet the needed fluctuations in demand by reducing their workforce quickly, organizations are becoming leaner through cutting labor costs (Houseman, 2001). The use of temporary employees also allows employers to meet needs within their organization as current temporary labor can be moved to different areas within the organization as necessary. This could not be done with the permanent workforce as issues could result from informally changing an employee's job description (Hippel et al., 1997).

Flexible staffing arrangements can also be used to gain access to specific skills and experiences, as well as offer flexibility in operational efficiency through additional services, such as extended business hours at a lower cost (Houseman, 2001; Hippel et al., 1997). This employment strategy could be employed by companies that want to avoid layoffs. As Kalleberg et al. (2003) pointed out, "The use of flexible staffing to adjust to variable demand may serve to protect the security of an organization's regular, permanent employees during downturns in demand" (p. 532).

Another use of flexible staffing arrangements is to screen applicants for permanent employment. This allows an organization to make an employment decision after observing the individual's job performance (Kalleberg et al., 2003). By being able to view job performance prior to hiring for a permanent position, employers are able to hire top performers while dismissing under performers without facing legal implications.

Houseman (2001) found that 21% of organizations, particularly in manufacturing, employed flexible staffing to supplement their permanent workforce; Abraham (1990) found similar results. Christensen (1995) found that this was the case in over half of the organizations involved in her study. Houseman (2001) does point out that, while studies support that hiring temporary employees is often used as a means to staff the permanent workforce, screening for permanent employees is not always the original motivation for using flexible staffing arrangements. Overall, the thought that often accompanies temporary employees is that "using temps as a human resources strategy allows the managers to reduce overhead costs and increase flexibility without compromising productivity" (Wheeler & Buckley, 2004, p. 341).

Along with understanding why flexible staffing arrangements are used, it is important to understand the differences in flexible employment arrangements, as several different types exist. In general, flexible staffing arrangements encompass part-time workers, direct hires, contract workers, and temporary workers (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004; Kalleberg et al., 2003). One important distinction to be made is between the terms *contract workers* and *temporary workers*. In both cases, an intermediary agency exists, such as a temporary staffing agency. With temporary workers, the agencies relinquish control of the employee while he or she is with the client organization; however, with contract workers, the agency still retains management control, even while the temporary employee is working at the client organization (Kalleberg et al., 2003).

Another term commonly used for flexible staffing employees is that of *contingent worker*. Temporary employment is categorized under contingent employment, which has been defined as "any job in which an individual does not have an explicit or implicit contract for long-term employment or one in which the minimum hours worked can vary in a nonsystematic manner" (Polivka & Nardone, 1989, p. 11). It is important at this point to distinguish between the four different types of contingent work arrangements, which are independent contractor, direct hire, seasonal employees, and temporary employees.

The first type of contingent worker is one who works as an independent contractor. Independent contractors are considered to be self-employed individuals who offer their services to an organization for a contracted amount of time or on a project basis. A second type of contingent worker is a "direct hire," or one who is hired through an in-house agency on a temporary assignment basis (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). Seasonal employees are also considered to be contingent employees as they are often employed for a short-term duration during times of peak business demand (Aronsson, Gustafsson, & Dallner, 2002).

The last type of contingent work is that of temporary employees who are hired through a temporary agency, which is what distinguishes them from other types of contingent workers. Temporary employees are a form of contingent worker following the premise that they are hired on a contingent or fixed contract basis (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). Agencies are used as a way to outsource a firm's recruiting needs as they manage the recruiting process from screening applicants to hiring and firing as well as offering payroll services (Kalleberg, 2000). This study will focus on this type of temporary worker who is employed through an agency.

Further distinctions between two different types of temporary workers, direct-hire temporary workers and temporary firm workers, can be made (McLean, Kidder, & Gallagher,

1998). According to Chambel and Castanheira (2006), the difference between these two types of contracts depends on the duration of the contract as direct-hires usually have contracts that have a minimum and maximum duration of six months to three years, and temporary firm workers have an indefinite contract.

The unique differences that exist in the temporary employment relationship warrant additional research specific to temporary workers. According to Cappelli and Peter (2013), the majority of temporary employees are used in production jobs (44%), followed by office jobs (41%). The authors indicated that these percentages suggest that agency workers are doing the core jobs in their organizations. Some studies have reported that temporary workers are often employed in jobs that include simplistic or hazardous tasks (Kocahn, Smith, Wells, & Rebitizer, 1994; Kalleberg et al., 2003).

The temporary workforce, however, is becoming more diversified. As Feldman et al. (1994) stated, "where the temporary workforce was once largely dominated by clerical help, today it includes large numbers of technical workers, nurses, and medical personnel, hotel and restaurant workers, industrial laborers, and business executives and consultants as well" (p. 49). Temporary employees can also be found in professional jobs such as law, teaching, and technical roles (Boyce et al., 2007). Wheeler and Buckley (2004) highlighted that 25% of temporary job openings are now for technical and professional roles.

Typically, temporary employees are young females of African American or Hispanic heritage (Boyce et al., 2007). However, Wheeler and Buckley (2004) reported that 41% of temporary employees have at least a two-year degree, and 21% of temporary employees recently finished high school or college and are using temporary employment as a way to enter the

workforce. While temporary work in the past was more of a choice, today's temporary workforce is often comprised of individuals preferring to be employed in a permanent position.

Because temporary employees are hired through a temporary agency, they experience a dualistic relationship that is not common with other types of contingent or standard employees. One substantial difference outlined in literature is that of the psychological contract. The psychological contract literature speaks to the importance of an employee's perception of both the obligations he or she owes to the organization and those that are owed to him or her (Rousseau, 1995). Psychological contracts refer to the existence of a perceived reciprocal exchange that should exist between the employer and the employee (Rousseau, 1995). In other words, "according to psychological contract theory, employees hold a set of implicit expectations (the psychological contract) about what they feel committed or obligated to provide to the employer (e.g. productivity), and what their employer is obligated to provide them (e.g., salary or career opportunities)" (Morf, Arnold, & Staffelbach, 2014, p. 709).

Literature suggests that temporary employees form separate psychological contracts with both the temporary agency and the client agency, and that these contracts can be fulfilled independent of one another (Claes, 2005). Cullinane & Dundon (2006) reported that a spillover effect exists between the two psychological contracts, meaning that fulfillment of one contract can influence the perception of the other. However, empirical results on this situation have been mixed. For example, Morf et al. (2014) found that psychological fulfillment on behalf of the client had a positive spillover effect for the temporary agency; however, positive fulfillment on behalf of the agency did not impact job attitudes held toward the client organization. This implies that attitudes toward the client are not dependent on psychological contract fulfillment from the agency.

Furthermore, Chambel and Castanheira (2006) compared permanent employees with temporary employees (both temporary and direct hire temporary contracts). The authors hypothesized that those employees who could succeed by extending their temporary contract to a more permanent one adopted a psychological contract similar to that of the permanent workers while temporary employees do not. Their hypotheses were supported, which show that direct temporary workers had psychological contracts similar to that of permanent employees. However, a difference did exist for those who did not have the option to work long term, which indicates that a difference in psychological contract can result from expectations for possible continued employment.

Chambel and Castanheira (2006) argued that despite initial implications, formal contracts do not necessarily determine the psychological contract of temporary employees. While temporary employment contracts are thought to be purely based on economic exchanges, research is often inconclusive in regard to this matter. The authors hypothesized that temporary employees who received fewer socio-emotional benefits, such as growth opportunities, loyalty, and identification with the organization, would respond by showing fewer organizational citizenship behaviors. However, the authors found that temporary contracts did not necessarily have a negative impact on their psychological contract. Furthermore, they found that temporary employees can develop psychological contracts similar to those of permanent employees.

As an extension of the psychological contract literature, temporary employees are often compared to permanent employees in terms of performance, contributions, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Kidder, 1998; Stamper & Van Dyne, 2001; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998). Because of the nature of the temporary employment contract, temporary employees often receive fewer incentives for high performance from the client organization, and in return are thought to

make lower contributions to the organization (Houseman, 2001). Likewise, current literature suggests that when a positive and more relational psychological contract exists, temporary employees are more likely to exhibit high levels of organizational citizenship behaviors (Kidder, 1998; Moorman & Harland, 2002).

Differences in levels of satisfaction have been found between temporary employment groups depending on their motivation for taking the temporary job. Ellingson, Gruys, and Sackett (1998) found lower levels of job satisfaction among involuntary temporary employees. Jong and Schalk (2010) also found that temporary workers who took a temporary position involuntarily were more likely to react stronger to issues of unfairness and have a higher intention to quit than those workers who voluntarily accepted a temporary position.

Hippel et al. (1997) found that "When individuals hoped to gain a permanent job, they were more committed to the client-employer" (p. 100). Additionally, if temporary employees were more satisfied with their supervisors, they were also more committed to the client organizations. However, neither led to more commitment toward the temporary agency. If more voluntary in nature with intentions of gaining permanent employment, fairness was less related to attitudes and behavioral intentions, including commitment, job satisfaction, and intent to quit (Jong & Schalk, 2010).

Haden, Caruth, and Oyler (2011) speculated that there were significant differences in work attitudes between permanent and temporary employees, specifically focusing on workplace deviance, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and fairness. However, their study showed that there was no statistically significant difference between temporary and permanent employees in regard to the mentioned constructs, suggesting that work attitudes are more dependent on individual characteristics rather than contract type. Ellingson, Gruys, and Sackett

(1998) also investigated whether the reason for choosing temporary employment impacted temporary employees' levels of job satisfaction and job performance. The authors found that those who are involuntarily pursuing temporary work may be less satisfied with their job. However, the reason for choosing temporary employment, whether voluntary or involuntary, was unrelated to job performance.

Feldman et al. (1995) conducted a study to determine whether individual characteristics of temporary employees impacted their reaction to their assignment. The authors found that those individuals who pursued temporary work voluntarily or whose assignment aligned with their previous work experience or education level generally had a more positive attitude toward their temporary position. Additionally, if individuals were using temporary employment as a means to gain access to a permanent position, they also had a more positive attitude about their temporary work than those who did not have the opportunity for conversion and were seeking full-time employment. Wheeler and Buckley (2004) later found that an individual's reason for temping influenced how much information he or she both provided and requested from the client organization, particularly for employees who were seeking permanent employment.

Both temporary employees and organizations can benefit from a positive working employment relationship. For temporary employees, it is a way to gain access to the workforce, especially for new graduates and working mothers potentially re-entering the workforce (Wheeler & Buckley, 2004). Temporary employment provides both young and retired workers a way to gain additional employment that works with their schedules. It also provides individuals who are recently laid off or switching industries (the largest demographic of temporary workers) a way to re-enter the workforce (Feldman et al., 1994; Wheeler & Buckley, 2004).

The temporary work arrangement also allows workers to have opportunities for flexible scheduling, to explore their different work options, and to gain entry to permanent work. Temporary workers may provide client organizations with valuable insights on how to create more efficient procedures because they have been exposed to different methods. They may also allow the client organization to have access to how other corporations, including competitors, run their businesses (Wheeler & Buckley, 2004). Hipple et al. (1997) found that managers felt "the average temporary employee is superior to the average job applicant. They have typically had multiple assignments, come with basic skills, and have good work habits" (p. 97).

Some workers find temporary employment to be rewarding, even though they may prefer the work to be permanent; temping allows them to work in several different environments and gain valuable experience (Redpath, Hurst, & Devine, 2007). One noted negative of the temporary arrangement from the worker's perspective is that scheduling can become an issue because moving from one job to the next leaves little time for training or time off. Other research indicates that the age of temporary employees influenced their perception of their current position, and that older temporary employees viewed temporary employment as a more positive experience than did younger temporary employees (Feldman, Doerpinghaus, & Turnley, 1995).

Despite the benefits to employers, the use of temporary employees may contradict strategic business ideas due to the negative impact the use of these employees on standard employees (Kuvaas, Buch, & Dysvik, 2013). If the use of temporary workers is perceived as taking away standard employees' job opportunities, standard employees may respond negatively, which could result in a higher turnover rate among these employees (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004; Davis et al., 2003).

By definition, the temporary employment contract is often seen as dispensable in the minds of employers, and temporary workers are typically used as a strategic way to lower labor costs. As a result, temporary workers are frequently hired for low-wage, low-impact positions and are not offered training or opportunities to prove they are able to do more than their current job (Kuvaas et al., 2013). In organizations that use a large number of temporary employees, treating them as expendable can lead to less customer satisfaction, fewer OCBs, and increase the possibility of negatively affecting a company's performance (Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005).

Literature suggests that attitudes and behaviors of temporary workers could be improved by higher levels of investment in both them and standard employees (Kuvaas et al., 2013). Although it is uncertain whether investing heavily in temporary employee development leads to greater organizational benefits, Slattery et al. (2008) suggested that offering some form of new employee development to temporary workers could produce positive results. Specifically, the authors found that new employee development practices led to decreased role ambiguity and role conflict, which were found to be positively related to intent to leave and negatively related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Little attention has been given to how to effectively manage temporary employees. Feldman et al. (1994) stated "While some of the management literature has covered how temporary agencies can best recruit both employees and customers, very little has been written about how the employing organization should manage temporary workers themselves" (p. 51). Zhang, Bartram, McNeil, and Dowling (2014) argued that it is the responsibility of both the agency and the client organization to ensure the fair treatment of the temporary workers. The authors suggested some ways that both of these groups could enrich employment opportunities for temporary workers.

One way to provide enrichment for temporary staff is to focus on the employability of the temporary workers themselves by offering them opportunities to grow and enhance their knowledge. This can be done through both training and coaching from the agency and the client organization alike. Temporary employee friendly HR practices should be used to assure fair treatment of this employee group, such as (when possible) offering a lengthy notice period for termination to allow the temporary employees to look for new jobs or receive training elsewhere. Another friendly practice would be giving temporary employees priority to internal job rotation as the need arises, thus allowing the temporary employees to remain employed with the organization and gain more knowledge. Last, organizations could create financial security for the temporary employees by providing them with benefits (Zhang et al., 2014).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Research on temporary employees is often focused on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). In general, it has been found that temporary employees exhibit fewer OCBs than standard employees (Moorman & Harland, 2002). However, some research suggests that given the right conditions, temporary employees can exhibit the same or higher levels of OCBs than regular employees (Kidder, 1998; Van Dyne & Ang, 1998). Van Dyne and Ang (1998) commented that "when organizations treat contingent workers with respect and do not view them as peripheral, some contingent workers will have high commitment to the organization, positive views of their psychological contracts, and will engage in organizational citizenship—just like regular employees" (p. 700–701). The authors further stated that it is perhaps more important to focus on the work environment than on job status.

Some argue that the relationship between the temporary employee and the organization is one built on a purely economic exchange. However, Moorman and Harland (2002) found that

"even temporary employees who work in an assignment for a short time are affected by client organization practices that may prompt impressions of commitment, obligation, and satisfaction. If someone can develop attitudes about something as quick as a fast-food meal, then someone can certainly develop attitudes about a temporary job" (p. 175). Moorman and Harland's (2002) hypothesis that job attitudes held toward the client organization may significantly increase OCBs toward the client organization was supported. However, only partial support was found for the hypothesis that job attitudes held toward the temporary agency influence OCBs toward the client organization. This implies that if client organizations want to have a more committed workforce that exhibits OCBs they need to focus on their own actions.

Relationships Among Constructs in Relation to Temporary Employees

The relationships among the constructs of this study as they pertain to temporary employment relationships will now be discussed.

Perceived Organizational Support and Temporary Employees

Lack of support from both organizations and coworkers is often experienced by temporary employees and can result in negative psychological outcomes for these workers (Byoung-Hoo & Frenkel, 2004; De Cuyper et al., 2008; McLean et al., 1998). On the contrary, Galup, Klein, and Jiang (2008) found that management support was positively related to job satisfaction among both permanent and temporary employees.

Even though POS in relation to temporary employees has received marginal attention, the research that does exist speaks to the importance of the construct leading to increased commitment among this type of employee (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). Research suggests that perceived socio-economical support is positively related to organizational commitment. While again a dual relationship (between the temporary employee, temporary agency, and client

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organization) must be taken into account, Liden et al. (2003) and McClurg (1999) found that

POS from the temporary agency was positively related to commitment to the temporary agency,

while POS from the client organization was found to be separately yet positively related to

commitment to the client organization. Furthermore, a spillover effect has been found to exist in

the sense that POS on behalf of the client organization is positively related to commitment to the

temporary agency (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004).

Giunchi et al. (2015) found similar results that POS was positively related to affective

commitment. The authors extended their study to include the impact of different contract types

on this relationship. The authors found that this relationship was stronger among temporary

employees with permanent contracts than those with temporary ones. However, this situation

only held true in relation to the agency relationship; the relationship with the client organization

was not impacted by the type of contract relationship with the temporary agency. These results

also suggest that temporary employees are able to distinguish between the dual contracts that

accompany their employment.

Although they are often treated as different, Slattery et al. (2008) noted that "temporary

and permanent employees are similar in the sense that when organizations provide the necessary

social support to assist them in making adjustments to the organization and help them feel as

though they are a part of the organization, they become more satisfied and committed and are

less likely to quit the organization" (p. 229). Galup et al. (2008) conducted a mixed methods

study to compare work environments of both temporary and permanent employees within the

information systems sector to investigate how these environments impacted work attitudes. The

authors used focus groups of temporary and permanent employees to understand differences in

job characteristics that impacted job satisfaction. One of the job characteristics identified through

the focus groups was management support, which the authors referred to as "the extent to which supervisors provide an environment to subordinates that is fair and conducive to their successful performance" (Galup et al., 2008, p. 60). The authors found that the type of employment contract did not impact the finding that management support was related to job satisfaction.

Procedural Justice and Temporary Employees

De Gilder (2003) found that procedural justice perceptions among temporary employees were equal to that of standard employees. In their European sample, Camerman et al. (2007) found that temporary employees were able to distinguish between the different types of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice). Furthermore, they found that procedural justice was positively related to affective commitment, and that this relationship was mediated by POS, just as it was with standard employees. Likewise, it was found by Baran and colleagues (2012) that temporary employees were able to distinguish between relationships with the staffing agency and with the client organization. "The client organization provides the supervisor, resources, and information needed to do one's job, and the schedule and job assignments, thus procedural justice would be based on the fairness of such practices" and that temporary agencies show procedural justice through the fairness of "pay procedures and the procedures for assigning employees to organizations" (Baran et al., 2012, p. 132).

Jong and Schalk (2010) found that an individual's motive for accepting a temporary assignment had a significant impact on perceived issues of fairness on work-related attitudes and behaviors. If an individual was using the temporary assignment as a stepping stone to permanent employment, issues of fairness were not strongly related to behaviors such as commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to quit. However, for temporary assignments that were accepted

voluntarily, low levels of fairness were related to lower job performance. Additionally, involuntary temporary employees responded to levels of fairness more so than those who accepted temporary work out of choice and had a higher intention to quit (Jong & Schalk, 2010). Given the rise in involuntary temporary employees, the importance of procedural justice is increased.

De Cuyper et al. (2008) stated that "temporary workers are more vulnerable than permanent workers when it comes to work and employment strain, and perceptions of unfairness" (p. 30). It can be speculated that regardless of the type of relationship, the presence of procedural justice can lead to increased organizational citizenship behaviors among employees. Connelly and colleagues (2011) investigated whether a spillover effect occurred with perceived interpersonal justices in one context (such as the temporary agency) impacting work behaviors in another (such as the client organization). The authors found that this effect did occur and that, contrary to other findings, OCBs toward the client organization were predicted more by the treatment received from the agency rather than the treatment received from the client organization. It should be noted, however, that temporary agencies need to consider whether the client organization treats their temporary employees fairly. "Temporary agency workers who perceive unfair treatment by their client organizations may retaliate against their agencies as wells as their client organizations; it is insufficient for the temporary agency alone to treat its workers fairly" (Connelly, Gallagher, & Webster, 2011, p. 190).

Organizational Commitment and Temporary Employees

The use of temporary employees may provide organizations with the flexibility they need to respond to the ever changing work environment. However, in order to remain competitive in this type of environment, organizations need to do more than simply control the costs of their

labor. The move toward management practices that create a more committed workforce can be found throughout literature. Committed human resource management strives to "encourage desirable employee attitudes and behaviors by building psychological linkages between organizational and employee goals" (Connelly et al., 2011, p. 149). As Pfeffer and Veiga (1999) noted, "Simply put, people work harder because of the increased involvement and commitment that comes from having more control and say in their work; people work smarter because they are encouraged to build skills and competence; and people work more responsibly because more responsibility is placed in the hands of employees farther down the organization" (p. 40).

Despite efforts to increase organizational commitment, the use of temporary workers often creates a less committed workforce. Based on the short-term contractual nature of temporary work, temporary employees are thought to be less likely to exhibit OCBs such as organizational commitment (Moorman & Harland, 2002). However, the research surrounding organizational commitment among temporary employees is inconclusive. Some literature suggests that temporary employees have substantially lower levels of organizational commitment when compared to their permanent counterparts (Biggs & Swailes, 2006; Van Dye & Ang, 1998). On the other hand, other studies have found that temporary employees are more committed than their counterparts, while some have found them to be equal (McDonald & Makin, 2000; Pearce, 1993). When considering commitment levels of temporary employees, one must take into account the dual commitment that can exist between the temporary employee and the temporary agency and the temporary employee and the client organization.

Even within one study, De Witte and Naswall (2003) found that the relationship between temporary employees and organizational commitment varied based on the country in which the study was conducted. Coyle-Shapiro and Morrow's (2006) results suggested that commitment

toward the temporary agency accounts for the commitment felt between the temporary employee and client organization.

Commitment-building strategies include efforts to effectively orient temporary workers to their work environment, a careful articulation of all duties and performance expectations, just and fair treatment, and an effort to explain to temporary employees where they fit into the overall mission of the organization (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). Conversely, managerial avoidance of commitment building strategies in a temporary to permanent environment could conceivably result in the organization's loss (turnover) of the very workers that it had hoped to retain for permanent employment (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004).

Although the temporary agency is the technical employer of the temporary employee, it is the client organization that controls the work environment in which organizational commitment can be created. It should be noted that organizational commitment among temporary employees may be translated into a temporary employee completing his or her assignment and that this commitment can be built through training (Gallagher & Parks, 2001). Training of temporary employees should be encouraged because employees assigned to an organization for a fixed amount of time still need to know how to do their jobs correctly (Gallagher & Parks, 2001).

A breach of psychological contract has also been found to be negatively associated with temporary employees' affective commitment. The influence of a contract breach on behalf of the client organization leads to a decrease of affective commitment toward the client organization. Likewise, a breach of contract on behalf of the temporary agency leads to a decrease of affective commitment toward the temporary organization. This breach of contract also leads to a decrease in organizational trust (Lapalme et al., 2011).

The impact of organizational commitment is also thought to have an impact on the individual temporary employee's well-being upon reassignment. It has been suggested that organizational commitment to the temporary agency may reduce stress in regard to a reassignment, and that organizational commitment to the client organization leads to daily feelings of belonging and higher personal well-being while on assignment (Galais & Moser, 2009).

Temporary Employees and Trust

Trust between temporary employees and their client organization is of utmost importance as "trust between individuals and groups is a highly important ingredient in the long-term stability of the organization and the well-being of its members" and "there is no single variable which so thoroughly influences interpersonal and group behavior as does trust" (Tan & Tan, 2000, p. 241). Perhaps not surprisingly, De Gilder (2003) supported that perceptions and levels of trust are the same among contingent and standard employees. Haden et al. (2001) discovered that those who trusted the organization's policies showed less intent to leave and more OCBs and loyalty to the organization; however, OCBs are more contingent on commitment than on trust for this employee group.

A breach of psychological contract can also result in diminished trust in one's employer. Given that temporary employees have to balance between a dual psychological contract with both the client and the temporary agency, a breach of contract on the part of either party can lead to mistrust (Robinson, 1996). Lapalme et al. (2011) investigated the mediating impact of trust on the relationship between psychological contract and affective commitment between each party. The authors found that the mediating relationship held true respective to both parties with which they are involved. Their findings imply "that, like permanent employees, temporary workers can

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develop an exchange relationship based on trust with both the agency and the client, and thus, temporary workers who feel either the agency or the client has failed to fulfill its part of the psychological contract tend to have limited trust in the organization in question and a lower level of commitment to it" (Lapalme et al., 2011, p. 319).

Similarly, Haden et al. (2001), in their study of temporary employees, found that organizational commitment, fairness, and trust were all positively correlated. The authors stated,

> "The results of the present study can be viewed as positive news for organizations and their managers, especially since the need for and use of temporary employees in the workforce is continually rising. It is logical to predict that temporary workers, who rarely spend more than a year in one organization, do not care as much as the permanent workers and may therefore be more likely to engage in deviant behavior. However, the results from this study do not support this rationale" (p. 154).

Temporary Employees and Intent to Leave

Just as with permanent employee turnover, turnover of temporary employees can result in high replacement costs (Horn & Griffeth, 1995). The loss of temporary employees can also interrupt work schedules and cost the organization money in having to re-socialize a new temporary employee to the organization. Likewise, high turnover of temporary employees can negatively impact the reputation of the temporary agency (Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005). Therefore, both client organizations and temporary agencies can benefit from research surrounding temporary employees' intent to leave. It has been stated that "Temporaries turn over very fast; turnover rates of several hundred percent at staffing agencies are usual" (Nollen, 1996, p. 574).

Slattery et al. (2008) surveyed temporary employees across the United States to determine whether new employee development practices impacted work behaviors of temporary employees. The authors specifically viewed these practices as related to role conflict, role ambiguity, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit. Results showed that the more new employee development practices (NED) were used, such as initial training on policies and procedures, and clear communication of goals and objectives, the less role conflict and role ambiguity was experienced. Additionally, the lower levels of role conflict and ambiguity led to higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and ultimately lower levels of turnover anxiety and uncertainty, and that "NED practices provide an important mechanism for adjustment and creating positive first impressions among newcomers. These results speak to the importance of properly introducing new temporary employees into the organization. These results speak to the importance of properly introducing new temporary employees into the organization. The entrance of temporary employees may be even more important to building commitment because of their temporary status with the organization" (Slattery et al., 2008, p. 2289).

Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) also examined how job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention were related to each other. The study was extended to take into account the dualistic relationship experienced by the temporary employee and considered both the client and agency organization as well as the crossover effect between the two. The authors hypothesized that a crossover effect existed between the client organization and the agency organization, meaning that organizational commitment toward the temporary agency led to decreased intent to leave toward the client organization. Their survey of temporary employees over several varying franchises suggested organizational commitment toward the temporary

agency mediated the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention for the temporary agency.

In the Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) study, a partial mediated relationship existed in regard to the client organization. Support for a crossover effect of job satisfaction toward the temporary agency leading to organizational commitment toward the client organization was not found. However, weak support for a crossover effect for job satisfaction toward the client organization and increased organizational commitment toward the temporary agency was found Additionally, while the authors found that organizational commitment toward the temporary agency decreased the intent to leave the client organization, they also found that the turnover intention toward the client organization was more influenced by the commitment felt toward the client organization rather than the temporary agency. The authors went on to say "a temporary employee who is trying to quit a client is more likely to quit because the employee is dissatisfied with the aspects associated with the client" and that "Organizations that routinely employ temporary workers need to focus on improving working conditions for temporary employees to increase employee organizational commitment and reduce turnover" (Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005, p. 65).

Slattery and Selvarajan (2005) tested another spillover effect to determine the relationship between commitment to the client organization and decreased intent to leave in relation to the temporary agency. Support was not found for this crossover effect. The implication is that an employee leaves the client organization due to factors specific to the client organization, such as lack of support. Perceived status among temporary employees in relation to regular employees has also been found to influence affective commitment and, in turn, intent to leave the client organization (Boswell et al., 2012).

Previous research suggests that "organizations should pay attention to how contract workers are treated and perceived within the workplace, as affective attachment for these individuals is critical to their intentions to not quit the job. Retention of these workers, though not formally employees of the client, may be critical for the preservation of specialized and unique knowledge and skill sets and ultimately on-time project completion" (Boswell et al., 2012, p. 461).

Treatment of Temporary Employees

Managing temporary employees can be a difficult job given that a new blended workforce is created once temporary employees are added to an organization. This blended workforce can have negative consequences for both permanent and temporary employees. The permanent workforce is often noted as having mixed reactions to their temporary counterparts. Some may view the use of temporary employment as a negative because it indicates management's intentions to outsource or change the internal structure (Davis-Blake et al., 2003). However, others may view temporary employment as a way for their organization to find future permanent employees, and thus see them as a threat to future job opportunities (Kraimer et al., 2005).

Positive reactions to temporary employees could occur if the permanent workers see the use of temporary employees as a way for the organization to remain flexible, thus avoiding layoffs (Kraimer et al., 2005). An organization should always take into account the potential negative impact on attitudes that using temporary employees may have on its permanent workforce (Feldman et al., 1994). Wheeler and Buckley (2004) explored attitudes of permanent employees toward temporary works and the impact of different demographic variables, such as level of education, age, number of individuals in household, gender, and current job position.

Their results indicated that permanent employees who were older, less-educated, and had a larger

household viewed their temporary employee counterparts more favorably than did those who

were younger, more educated, and who lived in a smaller household. The authors suggested that

this difference in attitudes might have resulted because the older permanent employees with

larger households better understood the utility of temporary employees.

Permanent employees who work with temporary workers may exhibit lower levels of

loyalty, trust, and intentions to stay with an organization than do those who do not work with

temporary employees (Davis-Blake et al., 2003; Pearce, 1993). Kraimer et al. (2005) suggested

this difference may be due to the perception that the use of temporary employees may elicit signs

of job insecurity in permanent employees. The authors investigated the relationship between

permanent employees' perceived job security and their reaction to temporary employment and

how it further impacted their job performance. The authors posited that perceived job security

can be an antecedent of both benefit and threat perceptions of temporary employment and that

job security moderates the relationship between the perceived benefit or threat and the job

performance of the permanent employee. Results indicated that higher levels of job security were

negatively related to perceived threats of using temporary employees. While the moderation

hypothesis was supported, job security had less of an influence on the perceived benefits of using

temporary employees than expected (Kraimer et al., 2005).

While temporary employment is often characterized by job insecurity, De Cuyper and De

Witte (2007) proposed that the job insecurity caused by temporary employment is actually more

harmful for permanent employees than for temporary employees. They base this thought on the

difference in expectations between the two employee groups. Their Belgian study showed that a

difference did exist between the two groups in regard to job satisfaction and organizational

commitment in that these factors were sensitive to the impact of job security among permanent employees.

Along with causing job insecurity, the mistreatment of temporary employees could exist because of a stigmatization that can occur (Boyce et al., 2007). Possible mistreatment could include derogatory comments, social isolation, avoidance, and withholding resources such as information. Research suggests that temporary employees are victims of both overt and covert types of stigmatizing treatment depending on the organizational climate (Boyce et al., 2007). McAllister (1998) provided an example of stigmatizing behavior as follows:

"The non-temporary employees usually ignore her, but it is almost as common for them to actively create barriers of silence, space or regulations to prevent her from interacting with them. Supervisors make no contact with her beyond their initial cursory instruction, talking in low voices to permanent workers on either side of her, holding meetings from which she is excluded, and posting notices in areas where she, as a temp, is not allowed to go" (p. 227).

Such stigmatizing treatment may have a negative impact on an individual's well-being, and can impact affective outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, as well as behavioral outcomes such as task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors (Boyce et al., 2007).

Connelly et al. (2011) stated that "temporary workers may be especially prone to poor treatment because of their indeterminate status, and may be treated rudely or excluded from social interactions with their permanent counterparts within the same organization." (p. 182). Koene and Riemsdijk (2005) suggested that this view leads to "underestimation of the importance of specific HRM practices in relation to temporary employees" (p. 2). As a result,

temporary employees are often viewed as "human capital that is generic and of limited strategic value. [It] can be purchased easily on the open labour market and, therefore, can be treated essentially as a commodity" (Lepak & Snell, 1999, p. 39).

According to Koene and Riemsdijk (2005), organizations have three options when responding to how they treat temporary employees: (1) make a clear distinction between their temporary and permanent workforces, treating their temporary employees as expendable; (2) make no distinction in how to manage these two workforces; or (3) make a special attempt to focus on the specific needs of the temporary workforce. The authors used two case studies to compare these different management options.

In the first case study, the organization differentiated between permanent workers, temporary workers from an agency, and temporary workers from an in-house staffing agency. Within this organization, temporary employees were seen as a problem group that disrupted the production process and hindered performance. These workers were also not paid for their first day of training, were often treated poorly by management and their coworkers, and were seen as the agency's responsibility (Koene & Riemsdijk, 2005).

In the second case study, the organization separated their workforce into permanent and temporary, and no negative comments were made in regard to the temporary workers. Management expressed concern that their temporary employees were not treated similarly to their permanent counterparts. At the point of hire, the temporary employees were oriented into the organization and introduced to their trainers. Informal and formal appraisals were coordinated with the agency, the leader, and the temporary employee throughout the training period (Koene & Riemsdijk, 2005).

When compared, the first organization experienced more behavioral problems than the second. The first organization experienced an illness rate of 12% and an extremely high turnover rate. The average duration of employment at this organization for temporary workers was only six weeks. Of 1500 temporary employees recruited annually, 40% left within two days and 75% left within the first three weeks. Since the organization reported that at least four weeks were required for an employee to get up to performance standards, a very real performance issue existed (Koene & Riemsdijk, 2005).

In their qualitative research, Feldman et al. (1994) found six key concerns that were prevalent among their respondents, who were currently engaged in temporary work: (1) discouragement resulting from the dehumanizing and impersonal way they were treated on the job; (2) insecurity about their employment and pessimism about the future; (3) worry about their lack of insurance and pension benefits; (4) failure on the part of the employer to provide an accurate picture of their job assignment; (5) feelings of being underemployed; and (6) a generalized anger toward corporate America and its values. The perceived mistreatment is illustrated by the following temporary worker comments: "In the company [I am assigned to], they make me feel so much like an outsider, a nobody. Whenever the whole office does something together, I am not included. It is as if I do not exist" and "Sometimes [being a temp] is demeaning. I cannot remember how many times I have been referred to as 'just a temp,' and that has a permanent effect on your ego" (Feldman et al., 1994, p. 54).

While previous U.S. Senate hearings have brought attention to the mistreatment of the temporary workforce, few client organizations have policies in place to protect these employees. As a result, temporary employees often say that they fall through the cracks in regard to policy issues such as sexual harassment claims (Feldman et al., 1994). In such cases, employing

organizations may fail to address the issues because the temporary employee is not a legal employee of the organization, and the temporary agency may not take action because the accused employee is not a member of the temporary agency. Feldman et al. (1994) pointed out that client organizations need to "vigorously promote respectful and thoughtful treatment of their not-so temporary visitors" (p. 60) by creating policies and procedures that are respectful of this workforce.

Providing more extensive trainings and orientations is another way to create a more respectful work environment for the temporary worker. This is especially important given that "temporary employees are often detached from their client organization on the basis of training, career development and organizational identification" (Burgess & Connell, 2006, p. 136). Feldman et al. (1994) noted that training can be done in two ways. The first way is to work directly with the temporary agency to provide the new worker with the training and information he or she needs before beginning work. The second way is to offer on-site orientations and training. Either method could lead to more productivity.

Camerman et al. (2007) concluded "As this form of contract has become more frequent, temporary workers have begun to occupy an increasingly important place in human resources management…" (p. 178). While the temporary workforce continues to grow, little attention has been given to management techniques of this particular employment type (Zhang et al., 2014). Additional information is needed to investigate how the treatment of these particular employees influences their intent to leave as it impacts constructs already established in literature.

Conclusion

The literature surrounding temporary employees often mimics that of both permanent and part-time employees. Throughout the literature certain behavioral relationships have been tested

to determine whether they exist within the confines of a temporary contract. Among the relationships that have been tested are perceived organizational support (POS), procedural justice, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intent to leave. However, the relationships among these constructs in the context of temporary employees often yield mixed results.

Although the constructs of procedural justice, organizational commitment, organizational trust, POS, and intent to leave have been studied in both permanent and temporary work contexts, it appears that a more complex model has yet to be tested in the temporary employment context. This study adds to the literature by investigating the direct impact of the relationships between constructs that could impact a temporary employee's intent to leave by looking solely at the actions of the client organization versus a spillover effect between the client and temporary agency.

This chapter reviewed the current literature surrounding POS, procedural justice, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intent to leave in regard to both standard and temporary employment contracts. A general overview of the temporary employee literature was also given. This literature review reveals that while official employment contracts may differ, the behavioral outcomes among standard and temporary groups do not. This similarity suggests that the negative connotation that is often assigned to temporary employment could be detrimental to an organization. However, research focusing on the managerial practices particularly applied to temporary employees is lacking as is research on the outcomes of these practices. This study will add to the literature by providing evidence that managerial practices impact both temporary employees and permanent employees in similar ways.

Additionally, through this literature review, it can be inferred that because the named relationships between procedural justice, POS, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intent to leave have been found in regard to standard employees, the same results will be found while studying temporary employees. The literature surrounding temporary employment is often conflicting and lacking in depth. Furthermore, additional information is needed to specifically investigate how the treatment of temporary employees impacts their intent to leave, as this relationship is currently underdeveloped in the literature.

Chapter Three

Methodology

This chapter outlines the methodology for this study. It provides a more detail account of the research model and hypotheses as well as data collection procedures. The previously validated scales to be used in this study are presented, as well as an account of how the data will be analyzed. Last, issues of reliability and validity as well as limitations are discussed.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the unique contextual relationship between temporary employees and the client organization. This study investigated the impact of positive behaviors on behalf of the client organization, as measured by procedural justice and perceived organizational support, on a temporary employee's intent to leave his or her assignment prematurely. The purpose of this study was also to examine whether perceived organizational support and procedural justice leads to organizational commitment and organizational trust, which in turn leads to a decrease in intent to leave among temporary employees.

Research Hypotheses

This study included eight hypotheses that are substantiated in current literature. Procedural justice, which stems from organizational justice, is often related to organizational outcomes versus specific individual outcomes (Camerman et al., 2007). One of the most noted outcomes of procedural justice is perceived organizational support (POS), as procedural justice is often cited as an antecedent to POS (Campbell et al., 2013; Lind & Earley, 1992; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998). Since procedural justice is concerned with the fairness of policies and procedures, and organizations have discretion over such items, it is suggested that fairness increases POS (Shore & Shore, 1995). Such fairness over time increases the perceived quality of the working relationship (Masterson et al., 2000).

Procedural justice has also been studied in the context of temporary employment and has been found to have the same impact on temporary employees as it has on permanent employees (De Gilder, 2003). Additionally, because temporary employees are able to distinguish between the different types of organizational justice, it is thought that the relationship between procedural justice and POS still holds true for those under this employee contract (Baran et al., 2012; Camerman et al., 2007). Previous results also suggest temporary employees may be more sensitive to issue of unfairness than permanent employees and, in turn, procedural justice (De Cuyper et al., 2008). Based on previous research the following hypothesis was developed:

- *H_1: Procedural justice is a positive predictor of perceived organizational support for temporary employees.*

Further research speaks to the existing relationship between POS and organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 2001; Meyer et al., 2002; Rhoades et al., 2001; Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Furthermore, POS has been shown to be related to all constructs of organizational commitment-affective, normative, and continuance (Aggarwal-Gupta, Somaiya, Vohra, & Bhatnagar, 2010; Luxmi & Yadav, 2011). It is argued that this relationship exists on the basis of social exchange theory in that by feeling valued and supported by their organization (POS), employees feel obligated to react in a positive manner, through being committed to the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

Despite the contractual nature of temporary work, temporary employees can be committed to their client organizations. This commitment is often fostered through POS from the client organization specifically, regardless of the contract type (either being temporary or with the chance of permanent employment) (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004; Giunchi et al., 2015; Liden et al., 2013). Therefore the second hypothesis is as follows:

- *H$_2$: Perceived organizational support is a positive predictor of organizational commitment for temporary employees.*

Similar to procedural justice, organizational trust is related to POS on an organizational level (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Tan & Tan, 2000). However, POS is often viewed as an antecedent to organizational trust rather than an outcome (Wong et al., 2012). Trust relationships are built over time and on the basis of social exchange rather than purely economic exchanges. As Deconnick (2010) stated "social exchanges differ from economic exchanges in that social exchanges involve high levels of trust and obligation and go beyond the employment contract" (p. 1350). POS is thought to lead to increased trust due to the finding that supportive organizations are often seen as being fair and are thought to fulfill their promises (Deconnick, 2010).

Again, research suggests that work attitudes such as organizational trust are not dependent on employment contract type (De Gilder, 2003; Haden et al., 2011). As much of the temporary employment literature points to the significance of the psychological contract, research suggests that a breach of psychological contract on behalf of either the temporary agency or the client organization can decrease levels of organizational trust toward the respective parties (Lapalme et al., 2011; Robinson, 1996). Given that both temporary and permanent employees are similar in how they respond to POS, the third hypothesis is as follows:

- *H$_3$: Perceived organizational support is a positive predictor of organizational trust for temporary employees.*

Employees with high levels of affective commitment to an organization remain in employment because they want to continue to be a part of the organization (Simons & Robertson, 2003). A strong link exists between organizational commitment and turnover, as

"employees who are strongly committed are those who are least likely to leave the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1). Although the temporary agency is the technical employer of the temporary employee, it is the client organization that controls the work environment in which organizational commitment can be created. It should be noted that organizational commitment among temporary employees may be translated into a temporary employee completing his or her assignment (Gallagher & Parks, 2001). Conversely, managerial avoidance of commitment building strategies in a temporary to permanent environment could conceivably result in the organization's loss (turnover) of the very workers that it had hoped to retain for permanent employment (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). Based on past research the fourth hypothesis is as follows:

- *H_4: Organizational commitment is a negative predictor of intent to leave for temporary employees.*

While supervisory trust is built on attributes such as ability, benevolence, and integrity, organizational trust is related to global variables such as POS, justice, and turnover intentions (Tan & Tan, 2000). Likewise, Bobbio and Manganelli (2015) linked trust to decreased levels of intent to leave, and Mushonga et al. (2014) discovered a positive relationship between supervisory procedural justice and trust. Haden et al. (2001) suggested that those who trusted the organization's policies showed less intent to leave, more OCBs, and greater loyalty to the organization; however, OCBs are more contingent on commitment than on trust for this employee group. De Gilder (2003) found that perceptions and levels of trust are the same among contingent and standard employees. For both permanent and temporary employees, "trust is instrumental in the development of these relationships" (Mushonga et al., 2014, p. 17). Therefore the fifth hypothesis is as follows:

- *H$_5$: Organizational trust is a negative predictor of intent to leave for temporary employees.*

POS has been found to be negatively related to intent to leave on the basis that "perceptions of support would encourage the adoption of organizational membership as an important part of an employee's self-identity. Thus individuals perceiving greater support would be less likely to seek alternative employment or to leave the organization" (Allen et al., 2003, p. 103). It has also been found that different organizational practices have led to increased POS, and in return, decreased intent to leave (Paré & Tremblay, 2007). Even in times of stress and change, POS can counter the negative effects of such circumstances and increase intent to stay among employees (Kim & Mor Barak, 2015).

Likewise, activities that lead to increased POS, such as new employee development activities, have been linked to a decrease in the intent to leave among temporary employees (Slattery et al., 2008). On the other hand, lack of perceived support through mistreatment leads to an increase in intent to leave among temporary employees (Boswell et al., 2012). Therefore the sixth hypothesis is as follows:

- *H$_6$: Perceived organizational support is a negative predictor of intent to leave for temporary employees.*

Both organizational commitment and organizational trust have been linked to decreasing an employee's intent to leave an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bobbio & Manganelli, 2015; Haden et al., 2001; Mushonga et al., 2014). Additionally, the relationship between these two constructs is often seen as a mediating relationship (Allen et al., 2003; DeConinck & Johnson, 2009; Chao-Chan & Na-Ting, 2014; Filipova, 2011). These relationships appear to hold true, even under a temporary employment contract. While much of the literature speculates a

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spillover effect between commitment for the temporary agency and the client organization, other

research suggests that temporary employees are more influenced by the commitment felt toward

the client organization rather than the temporary agency (Boswell et al., 2012; Slattery &

Selvarajan, 2005). Organizational commitment often acts as a mediating agent between varying

constructs and a temporary employee's intent to leave (Slattery & Selvarajan, 2005; Slattery et

al., 2008). Therefore the remaining hypotheses are as follows:

- *H7: The negative relationship between perceived organizational support and intent to leave is partially mediated by organizational commitment for temporary employees.*
- *H8: The negative relationship between perceived organizational support and intent to leave is partially mediated by organizational trust for temporary employees.*

Research Model

The research model to be tested in this study is shown in Figure 2.
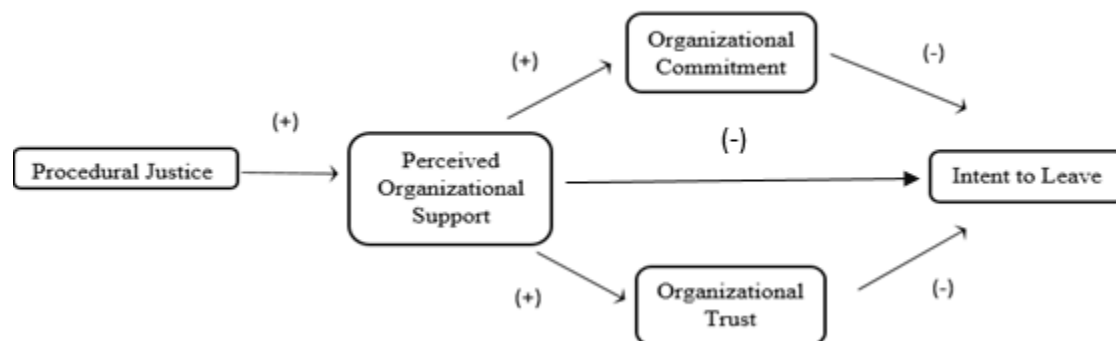

Figure 2. Research Model

Overview of the Study Design

A quantitative design that examines whether a relationship exists between two constructs

and how these relationships interact with one another was appropriate for this study (Bryman &

Bell, 2011). Given the deductive nature of the study in that the hypotheses were derived from existing literature, a quantitative approach was determined to be best suited to measure and test the stated hypotheses. This study was cross-sectional in design as it collected data across multiple subjects at one point in time (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

Given the complex nature of the model, structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to analyze the multiple relationships within the model as "SEM permits complicated variable relationships to be expressed through hierarchical or non-hierarchical, recursive or non-recursive structural equations, to present a more complete picture of the entire model" (Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000, p.4). Additionally, structural equation modeling allows for a model with several dependent variables to be tested, shows different weights between each path, and accounts for measurement error within the model (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). SEM allowed for a more in-depth analysis of both the direction and power of each relationship, and allowed for testing of factor loadings and hypotheses at the same time (Gefen et al., 2000).

Study Population and Sample

The sample population for this study included temporary workers who were either currently employed in a temporary contract or had held a temporary contract within the past 12 months. Access to these temporary employees was gained through the temporary agencies themselves. Four different staffing agencies offering staffing services for a variety of industries were contacted to increase the generalizability of results. The target number of responses from temporary employees was 350 complete responses, to ensure a 10:1 ratio of responses to survey questions. This target also ensured that the number of responses was high enough to run the appropriate statistical analyses. To increase the number of usable surveys, respondents were

required to answer each question before being able to proceed through the survey, which they could exit at any time.

Data Collection Procedures

In order to gain access to a large population of temporary workers, regional temporary staffing agencies in North Texas were contacted using a convenience sample. These temporary agencies were contacted prior to data being collected to ensure that full participation had been granted, and relationships were developed with a contact from each of the temporary agencies. Emails were sent to the staffing agencies in order to fully explain the purpose of the study, how data would be collected, the participation needed from each agency, and what would be needed from each respondent (see Appendix A). If requested, a paper copy of the survey was sent to the temporary agency for their review prior to distribution. In exchange for their participation, temporary agencies were offered the chance to review the results upon completion of the study.

The survey itself was created using the Qualtrics system and included previously established scales to measure each construct being studied. At the beginning of the survey, instructions stated the individual had been chosen to complete the survey based his or her experience as a temporary employee. The instructions also stated that the temporary employee should consider his or her current or most recent temporary assignment when completing the survey. Clarifying statements were also included that stated the "manager" named in the survey referred to the manager at the client organization and the "organization" referred to the client organization in which the temporary employee was completing (or had completed) his or her assignment. Demographic questions were included in the survey, along with the questions from the scales. These questions included respondents' level of education, tenure at the agency, age,

and gender. These factors were used as control variables based on previous studies referenced in the temporary employment literature (Slattery & Selvarajan, 2008; Wheeler & Buckley, 2004).

Once the survey had been created and after Institutional Review Board approval was granted, the survey link was sent to each contact at the various temporary agencies. Along with the survey, each agency was provided with instructions and an email message to be forwarded. The instructions included the purpose of the study, including that it was used for academic purposes in completing a degree program, and that IRB approval had been received (see Appendix B). The email also stated it should take approximately 15 minutes to complete the study, and asked respondents to complete the survey in its entirety. Additionally, participants were made aware that their participation in the survey was completely voluntary through the informed consent portion of the survey, and that their responses would remain anonymous in that neither their managers nor their temporary agencies would be made aware of their specific responses.

After respondents had three days to complete the survey, follow up communication was sent to all of the temporary agencies asking them to resend the survey information and encourage immediate responses from those who had yet to participate. To calculate a response rate, the temporary agencies were asked to report the specific dates that the survey was sent and how many individuals received the invitation.

Scales

The designed survey included previously validated scales to measure procedural justice, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intent to leave.

Procedural Justice. Procedural justice was measured using Niehoff and Moorman's (1993) scale, although the term "manager" was used in place of "general manager." This scale consisted of six items measured on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 being "strongly disagree" to 5 being "strongly agree." This scale has a reported reliability of above .90 and consisted of the following questions:

- Job decisions are made by my manager in an unbiased manner.

- My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.

- To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.

- My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.

- All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.

- Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the manager.

Perceived Organizational Support. Perceived organizational support was measured using an adapted version of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support, which was created by Eisenberger et al. (1986). This adapted scale reduced the original 36 item scale to 8. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) justify the use of this scale in stating "Because the original scale is unidimensional and has high internal reliability, the use of shorter versions does not appear problematic. Prudence nevertheless dictates that both facets of the definition of POS (valuation of employees' contribution and care about employees' well-being) be represented in short versions of the questionnaire" (p. 699). This scale asked individuals to rate themselves on the following questions on a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 7 being "strongly

agree." Those questions marked with (R) were reverse coded in the survey. The following questions were included in the reduced item scale:

- The organization values my contribution to its well-being.

- The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)

- The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)

- The organization really cares about my well-being.

- Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)

- The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.

- The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)

- The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

Organizational Commitment. Organizational Commitment was measured using Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale, which focused on the aspect of normative commitment. This portion of the scale consisted of six questions that are measured on a 7-point scale, with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 7 being "strongly agree." The items marked with (R) were reverse coded. The following questions from the scale were included:

- I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)

- Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.

- I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.

- This organization deserves my loyalty.

- I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.

- I owe a great deal to my organization.

This scale is unique in that it accounts for all three types of commitment that can be found within an organization, such as affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

Organizational Trust. Organizational Trust was measured using Gabarro and Athos' (1976) seven item scale as cited in Robinson's (1996) study. Respondents were asked to respond on a five-point Likert scale, with 1 being "strongly disagree" and 5 being "strongly agree" This scale included the following questions:

- I believe my employer has high integrity.

- I can expect my employer to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion.

- My employer is not always honest and truthful.

- In general, I believe my employer's motives and intentions are good.

- I don't think my employer treats me fairly.

- My employer is open and upfront with me.

- I am not sure I fully trust my employer.

Intent to Leave. Last, intent to leave was measured using Rosin and Korabik's (1991) four-item scale. The scale ranges from 1 to 3, with 1 being "never have had such thoughts," 2 being "occasionally have such thoughts" and 3 being "frequently have such thoughts." The following questions were included from this scale that has a reported reliability of .82:

- At this time in your career, would you want to quit this job if it were possible?

- Are you actually planning to leave your job within the next six months?

- Are you actively searching for another job right now?

- Please indicate whether you have ever had thoughts of leaving your job.

Data Analyses

Once the data collection period ended, survey responses were downloaded from Qualtrics as an editable file. To ensure accurate results, the survey responses were reviewed for missing data. Once responses with missing data were removed, IBM® SPSS® software was used to run descriptive statistics on the demographic data that was collected. The average age and time spent on assignment was calculated as well as percentages of each possible response for age, gender, and level of education.

Both the scales and the model were tested to determine construct validity. To ensure reliability of each scale, Cronbach's alpha was computed using SPSS. According to George and Mallery (2003) a Cronbach's alpha of .70 or higher is deemed to be an accurate measure of reliability.

A measurement model was tested using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The measurement model was created utilizing the constructs of procedural justice, POS, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intent to leave and their corresponding latent. CFA was utilized to test that the regression weights of the latent variables were above the acceptable threshold of .40 and were statistically significant at $\rho < .001$ (Harmon, 1976). Additionally, the goodness of fit of the model was tested by examining the Chi Square, the Root Mean Square of Approximation (RMSEA) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). According to Schumacker & Lomax (2010), an adequate Chi Square is one that is statistically significant, and an acceptable RMSEA ranges from .05-.08. According to Bryne (2010), the CFI suggests adequate fit if it is greater than .95. To further address issues of reliability, Harman's single factor test was conducted to measure common method variance.

After the best fitting measurement model was established, SEM was performed to test the hypotheses and indicate relationships between the constructs, the mediating impact of organizational commitment, and organizational trust on the relationship between POS and intent to leave. ANOVA was used to compare the means of the demographic data to determine whether any differences existed between the demographic groups.

Reliability and Validity

Bryman and Bell (2011) stated that reliability is "fundamentally concerned with issues of consistency of measures" (p. 157) and that validity "has to do with whether or not a measure of a concept really measures that concept" (p. 159). Reliability is addressed by using previously established scales. Each of the scales used in this study have a reported Cronbach's alpha that is above the acceptable level of .70 (George & Mallery, 2003). To ensure the reliability of the scales used in this study, the Cronbach's alpha for the scales of procedural justice, perceived organizational support, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intent to leave was also computed. The Cronbach's alpha score for each scale matched previous studies in that each scale was at an acceptable level. Additionally, the Harman's single factor test was employed to test for common method bias. Results showed that common method bias was not present for this study.

To ensure validity, factor loadings were calculated using CFA to ensure that each item of the scale accurately measured the appropriate observed variable. In regard to validity in terms of generalizability, the fact that responses were collected from various industries and from companies of various sizes makes the results more generalizable.

Limitations

      Self-reported bias was a potential limitation of this study. Additionally, the survey captured responses at one point in time and could be a limitation as outside factors experienced around the time of the survey may have influenced the answers. Another possible limitation could be that respondents may have avoided answering truthfully out of fear of retaliation from the client organization. In order to offset this potential limitation, respondents were assured that their information and responses would not be shared at the individual level.

Conclusion

      An overview of the proposed study design and proposed plan for implementation has been provided. The target population, survey design and proposed scales were also included as well as collection methods and analyses. Potential limitations were also discussed.

Chapter Four

Data Analysis Results

Chapter four discusses the results of the statistical analysis conducted on the collected data. Descriptive statistics, survey reliability, results from confirmatory factor analysis, and the results from structural equation modeling are all discussed, as well as the results of the hypotheses testing and post-hoc analysis.

The purpose of this study was to examine the unique contextual relationship between temporary employees and the client organization. This study investigated the impact of positive behaviors on behalf of the client organization, as measured by procedural justice and perceived organizational support, on a temporary employee's intent to leave his or her assignment prematurely. The purpose of this study also was to examine whether perceived organizational support and procedural justice leads to organizational commitment and organizational trust, which in turn leads to a decrease in intent to leave among temporary employees.

Descriptive Statistics

Regional staffing agencies in North Texas were recruited to participate in this study. Various staffing agencies were contacted and asked if they would be willing to send out a survey to temporary employees who were currently employed through their agency. Four professional staffing agencies agreed to participate in exchange for access to results at the end of the study. The participating staffing agencies ranged in size and served various industries in the North Texas area. Industries represented by the staffing agencies included mortgage, accounting and finance, human resources, IT, professional, and administrative.

In total, surveys were sent to 1,473 individuals. 155 individuals responded to the survey, giving a response rate of 10.5%. While 155 individuals responded to the survey, 30 responses were excluded because the respondents had not held a temporary assignment within the past

year. An additional 11 respondents did not agree to the IRB statement in order to participate in

the study. After responses with missing data were removed, 92 responses were deemed to be

usable for analysis. While this is below the ideal response rate for structural equation modeling,

the study was still able to be conducted. The high Cronbach's alpha of the scales used in the

study and the high factor loadings of each construct indicate high reliability of the study in that

each construct and related variable measured the intended behavior.

As a part of the survey, respondents were asked to provide descriptive data including age,

gender, tenure at the client organization, and level of education. The average age of respondents

was over 51 years of age. Based on responses to demographic data, the typical temporary

employee was a female who had been on the current assignment for 0-3 months and had attended

some college. Table 1 shows a complete summary of the descriptive statistics.

Table 1. Respondent Demographics

N=92	
Factor	%
Age	
18-25	10.9%
26-30	15.2%
31-35	15.2%
36-40	12%
41-45	7.6%
46-50	17.4%
51 or older	21.7%
Gender	
Male	25%
Female	75%
Time on Assignment	
0-3 months	33.7%
4-6 months	25%
7-9 months	14.1%
10-12 months	9.8%
Over a Year	17.4%
Education	75%
High school	6.5%
Some College	41.3%
Bachelor's Degree	32.6%

Master's Degree	13%
Other	6.5%

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

In order to conduct structural equation modeling, a measurement model (Figure 3) was created and tested using AMOS. This measurement model showed each of the model constructs and individual factor items. According to Byrne (2010), measurements models are "the portion of the model that incorporates only linkages between the observed variables and their underlying unobserved factors" (p. 307).
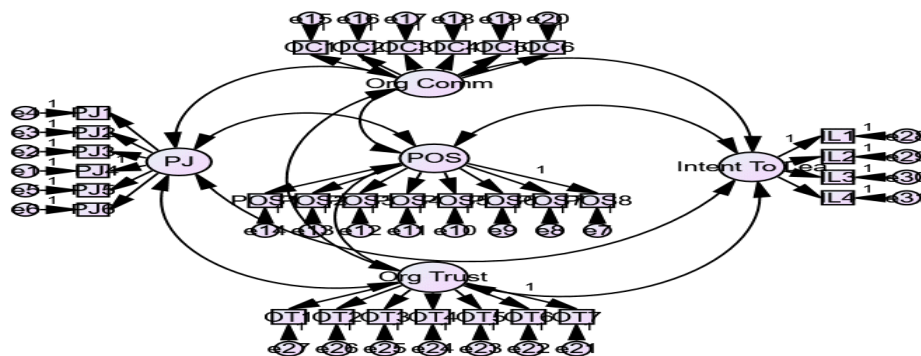
Figure 3. Original Measurement Model

The measurement model tested individual factor loadings between each observed and latent variable. The purpose of testing this model was to ensure that the factor loadings linking the observed and unobserved variables were of an acceptable level as factor loadings "provide us with information about the extent to which a given observed variable is able to measure the latent variable" (Byrne, 2010, p. 185).

According to Harmon (1976) the minimum acceptable threshold for this measurement is .40 to remain significant. A path diagram was first created to indicate each of the latent variables (procedural justice, POS, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intent to leave)

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and their corresponding observed variables. CFA analysis revealed that each of the factor loadings were above the minimum threshold of .40 and were statistically significant. Given that the CFA results showed the data was also normally distributed, modification indices were examined to address issues of covariance. Modification indices revealed that cross loadings among some items existed, although this situation is expected given the positive suspected relationships between four of the variables. However, modification indices of eight of the variables, OT1 (5.569), OC6 (5.154), POS2 (4.505), F5 (4.399), IL4 (4.369), IL3 (5.003), IL1 (5.843), and PJ6 (4.069) showed to be cross loaded to the OC2 variable. As a result, this variable was removed from the model.

CFA was then conducted for the updated measurement model once the OC2 variable had been removed. As with the first model, kurtosis revealed normality of the data. All of the remaining factor loadings also remained above the .40 threshold and were statistically significant.

To ensure that the updated measurement model was a better fit than the original measurement model, four goodness-of-fit indices, Chi-square; comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and CAIC, were examined for both models. According to Schumacker & Lomax (2010), an adequate Chi square is one that is statistically significant, and an acceptable RMSEA ranges from .05-.08. According to Bryne (2010), the CFI suggests adequate fit if it is greater than .90. Additionally, a lower CAIC is preferred as it indicates a better fitting model (Byrne, 2010). The CMIN/df of the two models was also compared, with the comparison of goodness-of-fit indices for the original and updated measurement models shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Goodness-of-Fit Indices Comparison

	Chi-square (χ2)	RMSEA	CFI	CAIC	CMIN/DF
Original model	667.509***	.079	.906	1065.078	1.574
Revised model	597.3***	.075	.920	983.791	1.512
Final Model	597.3***	.075	.920	983.791	1.512

Note. *** p.<.001

The goodness-of-fit indices revealed that while both measurement models fell within the acceptable limits, the updated measurement model was a slightly better fit than was the original measurement model. Additionally, the decrease of CAIC from 1065.078 in the original model to 983.791 in the updated measurement model indicated that the updated measurement model exclusive of OC2 was indeed the better fitting model. Thus the updated measurement model (see Figure 4) was designated as the final measurement model.
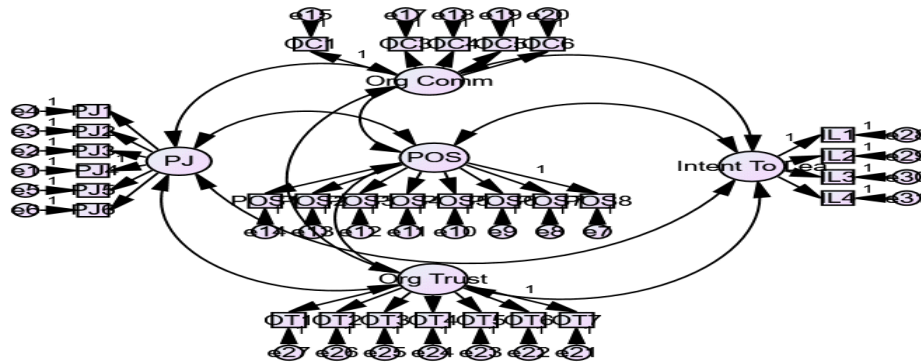

Figure 4. Final Measurement Model

Reliability and Validity

While each of the scales used in this study have been previously validated, using SPSS, the Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each scale to ensure reliability of the scales for this study. The minimum thresholds for acceptable reliability as determined by George and Mallery

(2003) is .70. As shown by Table 3, all of the Cronbach's alphas for each scale were above this minimum threshold. These results are also consistent with past research.

Table 3. Cronbach's alphas

Survey Instrument	Number of Items	Cronbach's α
Procedural Justice	6	.922
Perceived Organizational Support	8	.945
Organizational Commitment	5	.912
Organizational Trust	7	.926
Intent to Leave	4	.917

Common method bias was tested using Harman's single factor test. This test was performed to ensure that a single factor did not account for a majority of the variance in the model. Results indicated four factors had Eigenvalues greater than 1, ranging from 1.102 to 2.492, and the values accounted for 75.029 percent of variance among the model variables. Given that a single factor did not emerge as a result of the Harman's single factor test nor did one factor account for the majority of covariance among variables, it can be determined that common method bias was not present for this study (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Convergent validity of the measurement model was determined by examining the average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliabilities (CR) of each scale. According to Hair et al. (2015) results will be internally valid if the AVE of each scale is above .50. These results along with factor loadings are shown in Table 4. The results of Table 4 reveal that the AVE ranged from .690 to .764, all above the .50 minimum. Additionally all the CR were above the acceptable range, with the lowest CR being .917.

Table 4. Scale Composite Reliability and Factor Loading

Scale	Survey Scale Item	Composite Reliability (AVE)	Factor Loading***
Procedural Justice	Job decisions are made by my manager in an unbiased manner.	.923 (.668)	.720***
	My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.		.867***
	To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information.		.910***
	My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.		.843***
	All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees.		.802***
	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the manager.		.746***
Perceived Organizational Support	The organization values my contribution to its well-being.	.946 (.689)	.834***
	The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)		.753***
	The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)		.734***
	The organization really cares about my well-being.		.894***
	Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)		.898***
	The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.		.816***
	The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)		.883***
	The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.		.814***

Organizational Commitment	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer. (R)	.948 (.696)	.647***
	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.		.848***
	This organization deserves my loyalty.		.918***
	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.		.910***
	I owe a great deal to my organization.		.818***
Organizational Trust	I believe my employer has high integrity.	.928 (.652)	.822***
	I can expect my employer to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion.		.615***
	My employer is not always honest and truthful.		.772***
	In general, I believe my employer's motives and intentions are good.		.834***
	I don't think my employer treats me fairly.		.770***
	My employer is open and upfront with me.		.909***
	I am not sure I fully trust my employer.		.893***
Intent to Leave	At this time in your career, would you want to quit this job if it were possible?	.909 (.737)	.910***
	Are you actually planning to leave your job within the next six months?		.932***
	Are you actively searching for another job right now?		.707***
	Please indicate whether you have ever had thoughts of leaving your job.		.816***

*Note. *** p.<0.001*

Structural Equation Model

The final measurement model was used to create the first structural equation model (see Figure 5). All of the constructs were included in this theoretical model in order to test for significant relationships among each of the constructs with the exception of OC2. Goodness-of-fit indices were also examined for this structural model to ensure that it met the minimum qualifications. Fit indices revealed that the minimum qualifications to show acceptable goodness-of-fit were met based on the $\chi 2$ (399) 598.659, $p < 0.000$; CMIN/DF ratio = 1.50 RMSEA (.074), and CFI (.921). This structural model was then used to test the eight hypotheses.
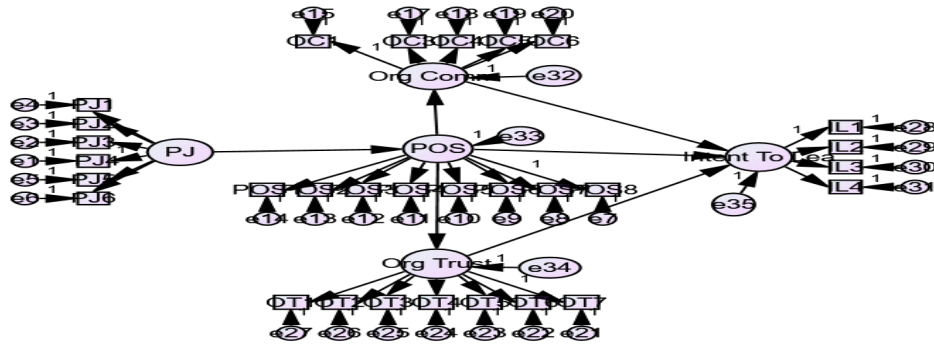
Figure 5.Structural Model

SEM was used to calculate regression weights of each described relationship to determine whether or not a statistically significant relationship existed between each construct. Results showed that the regression weights for each of the depicted relationships were significant except for the relationship between organizational trust and intent to leave ($\beta = -.220$, $p = $ ns) and POS and intent to leave ($\beta = -.160$, $p = $ ns). The remaining relationships were significant: procedural justice and POS ($\beta = .749$, $p < 0.001$); POS and organizational commitment ($\beta = .746$, $p < 0.001$); POS and organizational trust ($\beta = .863$, $p < 0.001$); organizational commitment to intent to leave ($\beta = -.463$, $p < 0.001$).

Hypothesis Testing

The eight hypotheses were tested using SEM and by examining the regression weights for each relationship among the individual constructs (procedural justice, POS, organizational trust, organizational commitment, and intent to leave). The proposed relationships between each of these constructs is shown in Figure 6.
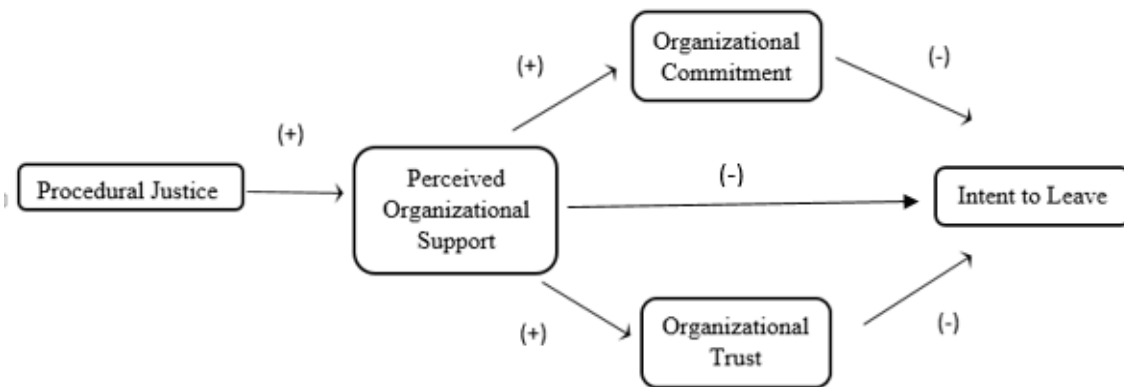
Figure 6. Proposed Relationship Model

The first six hypotheses were tested using the first structural model.

- Hypothesis H_1 stated that *Procedural Justice is a positive predictor of perceived organizational support for temporary employees.* This hypothesis was supported (β = .749, p < 0.001).

- Hypothesis H_2 stated that *Perceived organizational support is a positive predictor of organizational commitment for temporary employees.* This hypothesis was supported (β = .746, p < 0.001).

- Hypothesis H_3 stated that *Perceived organizational support is a positive predictor of organizational trust for temporary employees.* This hypothesis was supported (β = .863, p < 0.001).

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- Hypothesis H_4 stated that *Organizational commitment is a negative predictor of intent to leave for temporary employees.* This hypothesis was supported ($\beta =.-.463$, p < 0.001).

- Hypothesis H_5 stated that *Organizational trust is a negative predictor of intent to leave for temporary employees.* This hypothesis was not supported ($\beta = -.220$, p = ns).

- Hypothesis H_6 stated that *Perceived organizational support is a negative predictor of intent to leave for temporary employees.* This hypothesis was not supported ($\beta = -.160$, p = ns).

Mediation Testing

The remaining two hypotheses examined whether the relationship between POS and intent to leave (IL) was partially mediated by organizational commitment (OC) and organizational trust (OT). Hypotheses seven and eight are stated as followed:

- Hypothesis H_7 *stated that negative relationship between perceived organizational support and intent to leave is partially mediated by organizational commitment for temporary employees.*

- Hypothesis H_8 *stated that the negative relationship between perceived organizational support and intent to leave is partially mediated by organizational trust for temporary employees.*

According to Baron and Kenny's (1986) requirements of mediation, in order for mediation to be present, the following conditions must be met:

- The independent variable is significantly related to the mediator.

- The mediator is significantly related to the dependent variable.

- The relationship between the independent and dependent variables is minimized when the mediator is present.

For H_7, the model met the first two qualifications for mediation in that the relationships between the independent variable (POS) and the mediator (OC) was significant ($\beta = -.693$, $p < 0.001$), and the relationship between the mediator (OC) and the dependent variable (IL) was also significant ($\beta = -.477$, $p < 0.001$). To test for partial mediation, the direct relationship between POS and intent to leave was measured without the presence of OC as a mediator. This relationship was found to be significant ($\beta = -.693$, $p < 0.001$). When organization commitment was added as a mediator, results showed that the relationship between POS and intent to leave decreased to $\beta = -.338$ and still remained significant at $p<.05$.

To confirm partial mediation, complete mediation must also be tested and the two models compared. Complete mediation will be present if all relationships are significant and not equal to zero, and the fit of the model is better than the fit of the default or partial mediation model. To determine the fit of the default model, the relationships between the variables (POS-IL, POS-OC, OC-IL) were tested without constraint. Alternatively, to test for the complete mediation model, the relationships between the variables were tested again once the relationship between POS and intent to leave had been constrained to zero.

Results of testing the complete mediation model provided support for partial mediation versus complete mediation. When comparing the fit indices of the two models, support is provided for partial mediation in that the partial mediation model was a comparatively better fit than the complete mediation model. This is evident by examining the RMSEA, CFI, CAIC, and CMIN/DF of the two models. The comparative results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Goodness-of-fit indices for Mediation

Models	Chi-square (χ2)	RMSEA	CFI	CAIC	CMIN/DF
Complete Mediation	302.8***	.061	.959	573.402	1.334
Partial Mediation	295.7***	.058	.962	571.773	1.308

Note. *** p.<.001

The same steps to test for hypothesis 7 were taken to test for hypothesis 8. However, mediation analysis revealed that the relationship between the mediator (OT) and dependent variable (intent to leave) was not significant (β = -.274, p= ns). Given that the relationship between the mediator and dependent variable was not significant, mediation did not occur and therefore hypothesis 8 was not supported (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Model Confirmation

To ensure that the structural model used in this study was indeed the best fitting model, a jackknife technique was used to determine whether any relationships needed to be removed from the model by comparing the original structural model fit, the model fit when constraining each singular relationship, and the model fit of the structural model when both of the non-significant relationships were constrained. Using this technique, nested models were created in the final structural model by constraining a specific path to zero within the model. If a constrained path showed a worsened model fit, then it is suggested that the relationship should stay within the model. Conversely, if constraining a relationship to zero increased the fit of the model, that relationship should be removed from the model as long as it is not statistically significant.

Results of the jackknife technique can be found in Table 6. Similar to the hypotheses results, the model fit slightly improved when the relationships between POS and intent to leave and organizational trust and intent to leave were methodically constrained at zero. Results showed that these paths were not statistically significant, also indicating they should be removed from the model.

Table 6. Model Confirmation

Model Tested	Chi-square (χ2)	CFI	RMSEA	CAIC	CMin (df)
Default Model	589.659***	.921	.074	963.097	1.50
Jackknife 1 (PJ-POS=0)	661.620***	.896	.085	1020.536	1.654
Jackknife 2 (POS-OC=0)	661.278***	.896	.085	1020.194	1.653
Jackknife 3 (POS-OT=0)	699.505***	.881	.091	1058.421	1.749
Jackknife 4 (OC-IL=0)	611.840***	.916	.076	970.756	1.530
Jackknife 5 (OT-IL=0)	600.235	.920	.074	959.151	1.501
Jackknife 6 (POS-IL=0)	599.313	.921	.074	958.23	1.498

*** p. < .001

To confirm that both the relationships between POS and intent to leave and organizational trust and intent to leave should be removed, a second jackknife test was run on the model once the relationship between organizational trust and intent to leave had been completely removed. The relationship between organizational trust and intent to leave was removed due to the slightly higher CAIC. The results suggest that the relationship between POS and intent to leave should remain in the model given the statistical significance of the relationship at the $p <$ .05 level. These results concur with the results of mediation testing, in which the relationship between POS and intent to leave was significant when organizational trust was removed. The results of the second jackknife are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Model Confirmation-Final Structural Model

Model Tested	Chi-square (χ2)	CFI	RMSEA	CAIC	CMin (df)
Default Model	600.235***	.920	.074	959.151	1.500
Jackknife 1 (PJ-POS=0)	663.348***	.896	.085	1016.743	1.654
Jackknife 2 (POS-OC=0)	662.769***	.896	.085	1016.163	1.653
Jackknife 3 (POS-OT=0)	702.191***	.880	.091	1055.585	1.751
Jackknife 4 (OC-IL=0)	613.221***	.916	.076	966.615	1.529
Jackknife 5 (POS-IL=0)	608.127**	.918	.075	961.521	1.517

** p. < .05; *** p. < .001

Based on the results of the second jackknife testing, a final structural model was developed with only the path between organizational trust and intent to leave removed. To validate that the relationship between POS and intent to leave should remain in the model, the model fit of the original structural model, the middle structural model (with the relationships

between both POS and intent to leave and organizational trust and intent to leave removed), and

the final structural model presented as a result of the second jackknife were compared. The

comparison of the model fit for each structural model tested is shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Structural Model Fit Comparison

Model Tested	Chi-square (χ2)	CFI	RMSEA	CAIC	CMin (df)
Original Structural Model	589.659	.921	.074	963.097	1.500
Middle Structural Model	608.127	.918	.075	961.521	1.517
Final Structural Model	600.235	.920	.074	959.151	1.501

Based on this comparison, we can see that the CAIC of the final structural model is

indeed the most favorable. Therefore, it is concluded that the final structural model should

represent the results of the second jackknife and the removing of the path between organizational

trust and intent to leave, while maintaining the relationship between POS and intent to leave. The

final structural model with path weights (based on standardized beta weights) is shown in Figure
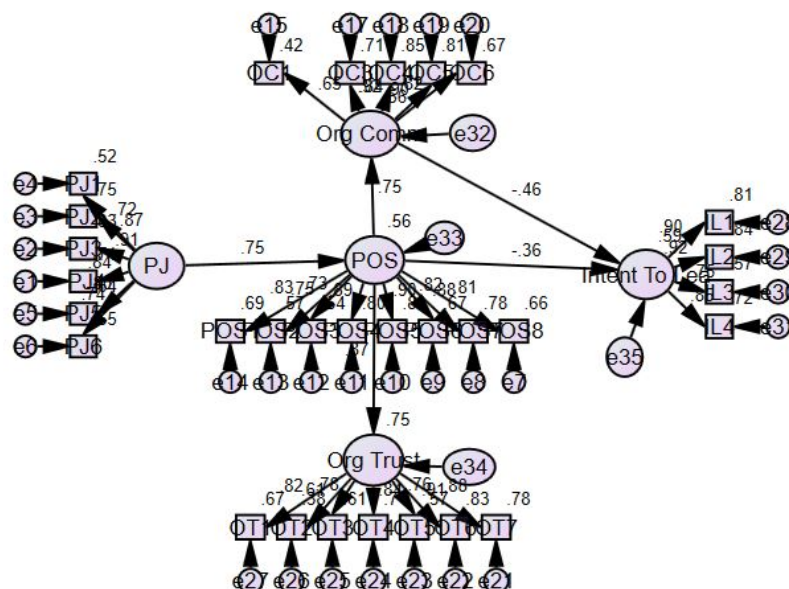
7.

Figure 7. Final Structural Model

Post Hoc Analysis

Given the low sample size and the poor yet adequate fit of the structural model, it can be suggested that structural equation modeling was not the appropriate statistical analysis for this study. Using multiple regression versus SEM allowed for independent testing of the variables and was more conducive to a lower sample size. Additionally, given that support for a mediating relationship between organizational trust, POS, and intent to leave could not be found, the relationship was tested as a moderating effect as part of a post hoc analysis.

Using SPSS, the finalized measurement model was used to conduct multiple regression. Based on the results of the measurement model, the item OC2 was not included in the mean calculation for organizational commitment. In order to determine whether organizational trust acted as a moderator to the relationship between POS and intent to leave, means were first calculated for each of the constructs (PJ, POS, OC, OT, and IL).

The responses for organizational trust were divided into three categories: low, medium, and high. The low category was equal to the mean minus one standard deviation, the medium category was equal to the mean, and the high category was equal to the mean plus one standard deviation. These results were coded as low-1; medium-2, and high-3. Additionally, an interaction variable was created for between POS and OT.

The results of regression analysis showed that organization trust did act as a moderator of the relationship between POS and intent to leave. Comparison with the first model revealed that the independent variables (procedural justice, POS, and organizational trust) explained 44.8% of the variance in intent to leave. This explained variance was also found to be significant at p < .05. The interaction model produced a R^2 change of .026, which means that the interaction term of organizational trust explained 2.6% of variance over what was explained by POS and

organizational trust. Additionally, the interaction term of POS and organizational trust was also

significant. Results of moderation testing are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Moderation Results

Model	R	R^2	R^2 Change	F Change (DF)
First Model (PJ, POS, OT, IL)	.670	.448***	.448	23.846(3)
Second model (PJ, POS, OT, IL, POS*OT)	.689	.475***	.026	4.353(1)

Note. *** p.<.001

These results indicate that organizational trust did have a moderating effect on the

relationship between POS and intent to leave. This result is evident in that the R^2 between the

first and second model increased when the interaction variable between POS and OT was added

to the model, and the moderating effect was equal to the R^2 change of .026. Further examination

of the scatterplots showed a difference in each of the three different levels of organizational trust

(low, medium, and high). Figures 8, 9, and 10 show the progression from each of the levels of

organizational trust. As the level of organizational trust increases, the mean score of POS also

increases, as the mean score for intent to leave decreases.
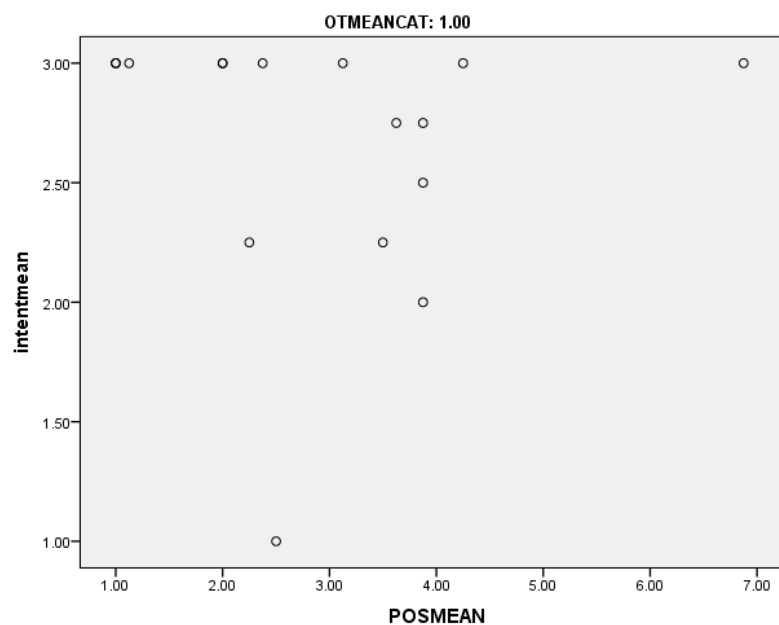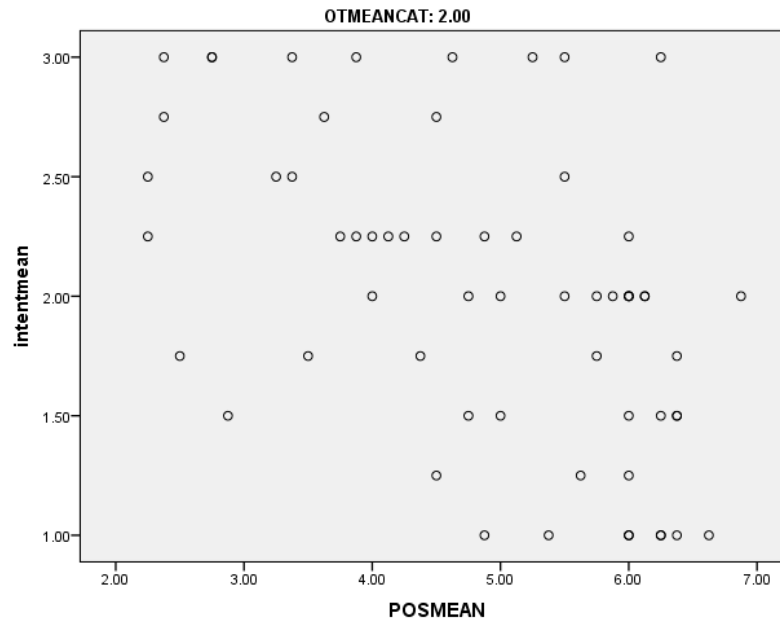

Figure 8. Low Levels of Organizational Trust

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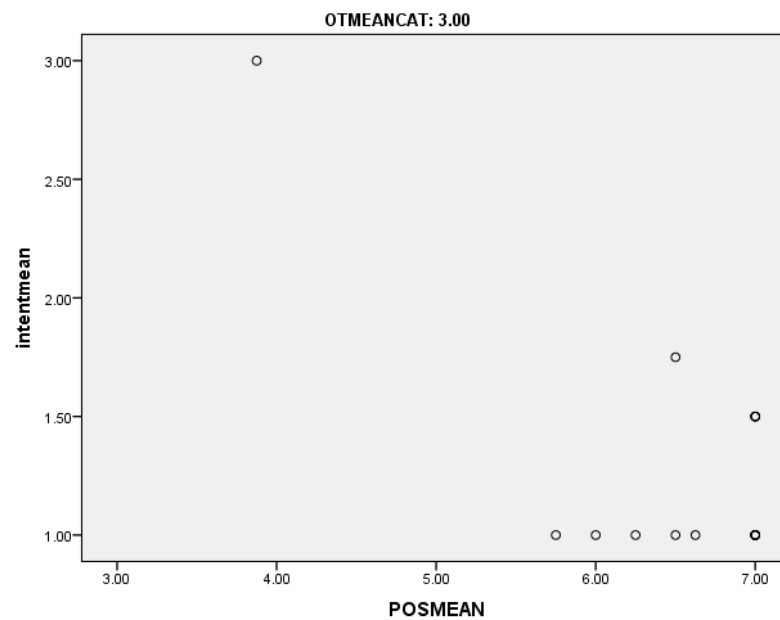Figure 9.Medium Levels of Organizational Trust

Figure 10. High Levels of Organizational Trust

ANOVA Testing

One-way ANOVA was used to compare the means of the demographic data to the means

of each individual variable within the model. Previous literature suggests that certain

demographic variables can influence the behavior of a temporary employee (Ohana, 2014; Wheeler & Buckley, 2004). ANOVA was conducted to determine whether any of those differences were evident in this study.

The results of ANOVA testing showed that no differences existed between any levels of the demographic data (age, gender, time spent on the assignment, and highest level of education) and the variables of the model (procedural justice, POS, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intent to leave) with the exception of the highest level of education and organizational commitment. The results from ANOVA testing as shown by the F values.are represented in Table 10.

Table 10. Age Effects on Variables

	PJ	POS	OC	OT	IL
Age	.360	.745	.877	1.664	1.387
Gender	1.087	2.33	.237	.011	.209
Tenure	.348	1.355	.775	.847	.374
Education	.992	.506	2.637**	.998	1.999

Note: **$p < .05$

As shown in Table 10, the only significant difference exists between the level of education and organization commitment given that it is significant at the $p < .05$ level. To determine which groups were statistically different from each other in regard to level of education, the Least Squared Difference (LSD) was examined. These results revealed that the mean difference of those who answered that they had attended some college is statistically different from both those who reported having a bachelor's degree (.399 $p<.05$) and those who stated they had a master's degree (.522, $p<.05$).

Conclusion

This chapter discussed the descriptive statistics, reliability testing, and the results of CFA and SEM. The measurement model was discussed followed by a discussion of the structural model, leading to hypotheses testing.

Results of reliability testing showed that the scales used in the study had acceptable Cronbach's alpha. An examination of the factor loadings also showed that the latent factors did measure the constructs they were set to measure. The AVE and CR for each scale was calculated and showed support for convergent validity. A measurement model was also developed that showed an acceptable level of goodness of fit to the study data.

From the measurement model, a structural model was developed to test the hypotheses. The structural model also met the acceptable goodness of fit levels. Five of the eight hypotheses were supported. Significant relationships were found for the following relationships: procedural justice and POS; POS and organizational commitment; POS and organizational trust; and organizational commitment and intent to leave. Support was also found that organizational commitment acted as a mediator between POS and intent to leave. However, support was not found for the mediating effect of organizational trust. A summary of the hypotheses results is shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Summary of Hypotheses Findings

Hypothesis	Finding
H1: Procedural Justice is a positive predictor of perceived organizational support for temporary employees.	Supported
H2: Perceived organizational support is a positive predictor of organizational commitment for temporary employees.	Supported
H3: Perceived organizational support is a positive predictor of organizational trust for temporary employees.	Supported
H4: Organizational commitment is a negative predictor of intent to leave for temporary employees.	Supported
H5: Organizational trust is a negative predictor of intent to leave for temporary employees.	Not Supported
H6: Perceived organizational support is a negative predictor to intent to leave for temporary employees.	Not Supported
H7: The negative relationship between perceived organizational support and intent to leave is partially mediated by organizational commitment for temporary employees.	Supported
H8: The negative relationship between perceived organizational support and intent to leave is partially mediated by organizational trust for temporary employees.	Not Supported

As part of a post hoc analysis, jackknifing was conducted to ensure that the model used as the structural model was indeed the best fitting one. Results of this testing indicated that the direct path between organizational trust and intent to leave should be removed. Multiple regression was also used to examine whether organizational trust acted as a moderator on the relationship between POS and intent to leave. Support for this new hypothesis was found. Last, ANOVA was conducted to determine if any differences between the demographic groups existed. The results of ANOVA showed that no differences existed for any of the demographic categories, with the exception of the levels of education and organizational commitment.

Chapter Five

Discussion, Implications, Limitations, and Future Research

A brief summary of the study background is presented, followed by a discussion of the studying findings of the individual hypotheses. Implications for the HRD field, temporary agencies, client organizations, and for current literature are also discussed. Last, limitations and areas of future research are explored.

Discussion

Temporary employees are often thought to respond differently than do permanent employees because of the differences in employment contract. However, the psychological contracts between these two employee types have been previously researched (Kraimer, Wayne, Liden, & Sparrowe, 2005; Moorman & Harland, 2002) and have yielded mixed results. Some research suggests that contextual relationships, rather than formal contracts, determine temporary employees' attitudes.

Further, previous research on this employee type is often focused on the mistreatment that is experienced by this category of employees. While the constructs of procedural justice, POS, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intent to leave have been researched within temporary employee research, the literature is often focused on the triangular relationship between temporary workers, client organizations, and temporary agencies along with comparing temporary employees to permanent employees. Consequently, there is a lack of research focusing on the direct impact the actions of the client organizations have on the behavior of the temporary employees, which could eventually lead to intent to leave an assignment early.

The purpose of this study was to add to the current literature by examining the unique contextual relationship between temporary employees and client organizations. This study

focused on investigating the impact of positive behaviors on behalf of the client organization, as measured by procedural justice and perceived organizational support, on a temporary employee's intent to leave his or her assignment prematurely. This study also examined whether perceived organizational support leads to organizational commitment and organizational trust, which in turn leads to a decrease in intent to leave among temporary employees.

Results of this study showed support for five out of the eight hypotheses. The hypotheses testing relationships between procedural justice and POS, POS and organizational commitment, POS and organizational trust, and organizational commitment and intent to leave were all supported. Likewise, support was found for organizational commitment acting as a mediator between POS and intent to leave. The hypotheses testing the relationships between POS and intent to leave and organizational trust and intent to leave were not supported. The hypothesis testing organizational trust as a mediator between POS and intent to leave was also not supported. However, post-hoc analysis revealed that organizational trust did act as a moderator in the relationship between POS and intent to leave.

This study contributes to literature surrounding temporary employment by examining the antecedents to intent to leave among temporary workers. Turnover, which has been cited as a growing issue among temporary employees, can be costly to an organization. By measuring intent to leave, a direct antecedent to actual turnover, key attributes that help client organizations retain their temporary employees are able to be identified. For the temporary agency, permanently placing temporary employees that complete their assignments could also mean increased reputational gain as well as continued business with the client organization. Results from this study support the suggestion that temporary and client organizations should work

together to create an environment in which the temporary employee is treated fairly and feels supported by the client organization.

The results of this study provide support for research indicating that temporary employees do respond to situations in a similar manner as do their permanent counterparts. This study also focused on the direct behaviors of the client organization in impacting a temporary employee's intent to leave and supports the notion that temporary employees make distinctions between their relationships with the client organization and those with the temporary agency (Jong & Schalk, 2010).

H_1: Procedural Justice and Perceived Organization Support

The specific relationships of the model provide implications for both the client organization and the temporary agency. To start, the positive relationship between procedural justice and perceived organizational support (POS) coincides with the view that temporary employees respond in the same manner as do permanent employees in terms of procedural justice being a precursor to POS. As discussed in previous chapters, procedural justice addresses issues of unfairness, which is relevant in that previous research also suggests that temporary employees could be more easily influenced by issues of unfairness than are their permanent counterparts (Jong & Schalk, 2010). This response could be due to the job insecurities that often accompany temporary assignments.

Within a temporary employment context, issues of unfairness could arise for a number of reasons. One issue is the administration of policies and procedures at the client organization. Even though the temporary employee is technically the legal employee of the temporary agency and not the client organization, the temporary employee is still expected to abide by the client organization's policies and procedures while on assignment. The client organization should work

with management to ensure that policies and procedures are applied consistently and fairly to everyone, including temporary employees.

However, due to concerns of co-employment, there are times when temporary employees may not have the opportunity to participate in the same functions or be offered the same benefits as permanent employees. As previous research has shown, even if outcomes are not favorable to an employee, if he or she understands how or why the outcome was achieved, favorable attitudes toward an organization are still possible. This outcome points to the importance of communication in the temporary employment relationship in regard to efforts to increase procedural justice.

Additionally, current literature often cites the mistreatment of temporary employees in that they are often treated as outsiders and thus do not receive the information they need (Davis-Blake, Broschak, & George, 2003; Koene & Riemsdijk, 2005). Client organizations should be mindful that this lack of communication could lead temporary employees to feel as though they are being treated unfairly. According to this study, a result of unfair treatment could decrease levels of POS experienced by the temporary employee, which could have further implications. In a practical sense this result suggests that open conversations with temporary employees may negate some of the turnover intent that would otherwise exist because they do not understand the basis on which decisions were made.

By including temporary employees in conversations and decisions that directly impact their jobs, procedural justice can be increased. As this study indicates, procedural justice is a positive predictor of POS, meaning that an increase in procedural justice can lead to an increase of POS. In turn, this study also suggests that POS leads to positive levels of both organizational commitment and organizational trust.

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H$_2$: Perceived Organizational Support and Organizational Commitment

Similar to previous research focused on permanent employees, this study indicates that high levels of POS can lead to increased levels of organizational commitment and trust. This study's results emphasize that learning how to manage these employees will be key if companies wish to remain competitive. The benefits of having a committed workforce cannot be understated, especially given that organizational commitment has been found to be negatively related to intent to leave an organization, as shown in this study. While it may seem contradictory that temporary employees can be committed to their client organizations, this study suggests that under the right environment, one in which the employees feels supported, they can be committed to the organization.

Temporary employees on a short-term contract may still greatly impact the productivity of an organization. Erdogan et al. (2001) suggest that high performing employees who are with an organization for a short time are more beneficial to the employer than an employee of lower caliber who is there for a longer amount of time. Given this situation, organizations should seek ways to keep their temporary workforce committed enhance productivity. In the case of a temporary employee, being committed to an organization could mean completing his or her assignment rather than departing early.

This study indicates that POS positively influences organizational commitment even within a temporary employment context. This finding could have lasting implications for many organizations, as 90% of organizations report that they have converted temporary employees to permanent employees (Cappelli & Keller, 2013). With this high rate of conversion from temporary to permanent employment, and in order to use temporary employees to the full

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strategic advantage, client organizations should strive to build commitment among the temporary

work group from the beginning of the work assignment.

H$_3$ and H$_5$: Perceived Organizational Support, Organizational Trust, and Intent to Leave

Along with positively predicting organizational commitment, findings of this study

suggest that POS also is positively related to organizational trust, which can provide additional

positive benefits for the client organization. However, while past research indicates that

organizational trust is negatively related to intent to leave, support for such a relationship could

not be found in this study. The demographic data may possibly explain this failed finding, as the

majority of survey respondents (33.7%), had only been on their current assignment for 0-3

months. It is speculated that respondents who were new in their roles may have not had sufficient

time for organizational trust to develop to the point that it would influence an individual's intent

to leave.

H$_4$: Organizational Commitment and Intent to Leave

One notable outcome of organizational commitment is decreased levels of intent to leave.

This study showed that this relationship also held true in the context of temporary employment in

that organizational commitment was negatively related to intent to leave. In other words, the

higher the levels of organizational commitment of the temporary employee, the lower was the

intent to leave.

This finding related to organizational commitment has significant implications in that

creating a committed workforce, inclusive of temporary employees, employee turnover can be

decreased. Decreased turnover saves the client organization time and money in finding a

replacement, and it also saves money in terms of lost productivity when employees have become

disengaged from their current jobs. Additionally, the mediating relationship found in this study

suggests that through organizational commitment, the actions taken on behalf of the client organization to support the temporary employee can indeed lead to decreased intent to leave. Knowing that organizational commitment helps to explain the relationship between POS and intent to leave, organizations can target specific behaviors that can encourage organization commitment to the client organization.

H_6: Perceived Organizational Support and Intent to Leave

The lack of support for hypothesis H_5, which stated that POS negatively predicted intent to leave, was surprising given that this relationship is highly supported in literature. One possible explanation could be the limitation of the small sample size, which hindered running a more complex model. Because the sample size was so small, the non-significant relationship between organizational trust and intent to leave could have skewed the model results. Support for this possibility was shown when the jackknife technique was used to systematically constrain each relationship in the model. When the relationship between organizational trust and intent to leave was constrained, the model fit increased. It should also be noted that when a nested model was created in order to test for mediation, the relationship between POS and intent to leave was significant. This also supports the notion that the addition of organizational trust to the model skewed the relationship between POS and intent to leave when the model was tested as a whole.

Organizational Trust as a Moderator

Post-hoc analysis revealed that while organizational trust did not have a significant relationship with intent to leave, organizational trust did moderate the relationship between POS and intent to leave. Practically speaking, when organizational trust is present, the relationship between POS and intent to leave magnifies. Thus, as a temporary employee is with the client

organization for longer periods of time, the client organization should make increased effort to build trust between the client organization and the temporary employee.

From the perspective of the temporary agency, the agency can help to build organizational trust for the client organization by presenting a clear and accurate representation of the temporary assignment. False claims of permanent employment or special accommodations can lead to a distrust of both the client and the temporary agency. Furthermore, organizational trust can be built when temporary employees observe how client organizations treat other temporary employees, and whether permanent employment is achieved at the time the client organization projected.

ANOVA Testing

ANOVA testing also produced significant results that are noteworthy to report. While previous research suggested that age, gender, and tenure at an organization could influence a temporary employees' attitudes, such results were not found in this study. In relation to age, gender, and tenure, no differences were found between these groups and the means of the other construct variables (POS, procedural justice, organizational commitment, organizational trust, and intent to leave). The only differences in means between groups appeared between organizational commitment and levels of education. The LSD results indicated that the significant difference existed between levels of commitment and those who had completed some college versus those who had received a bachelor's degree or a master's degree. Furthermore, the results indicated that the levels of commitment were lower for those who had indicated a higher education level. It can be speculated that this lower level of organizational commitment could result from the belief that a college degree should lead to a permanent career position. It is also possible that this difference in levels of commitment could be due to the thought that those

with higher levels of education do not see temporary work as a long-term solution and instead see it as a career stepping stone.

The remaining levels of education were not linked to any significant differences for any of the remaining constructs. However, the finding that no significant differences existed between the majority of the groups is also noteworthy. This finding suggests that managers of the client organization should not assume that a temporary employee's attitude is related to their gender, age, tenure, or education level. However the scatter plot graphs resulting from ANOVA testing showed that temporary employees who had remained with the client organization for over a year had lower levels of POS, organizational commitment, and organizational trust. On the other hand, temporary employees who had remained with a client organization for over a year had a greater intent to leave. While ANOVA results did not find these relationships to be statistically significant, it is still worth noting that it appears that the longer a temporary employee is with a client organization, the more negative attitudes a temporary employee may start to exhibit.

Demographic Data

Last, the demographic data itself provides insight into the temporary employee population. The majority of the respondents (21.7%) were ages 51 or older. This supports the notion that individuals are using temporary employment as a way to re-enter the workforce or to delay retirement. It was also interesting to note that a slight majority of respondents were female (53%). This finding also supports previous research that suggests females use temporary work as a way to re-enter the workforce after perhaps leaving due to family matters.

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Implications of this Study

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At a macro level, the results indicate that positive behaviors on the part of the client organization do lead to a decrease of intent to leave among temporary employees, which leads to

several practical implications that can be discussed for the client organization, the temporary agency, and Human Resource Development (HRD) professionals alike. The first implication for the client organization is that the treatment of temporary employees, who are often seen as dispensable, can indeed impact an organization's bottom line in more way than one. Regardless of the employee type, unplanned turnover can be costly for an organization.

As the workforce and the environment in which organizations compete continues to change, the temporary worker may become a fixed asset in employment. Temporary employees can be of great benefit to an organization. They can offer a means to increase and decrease the workforce as needed while allowing organizations to avoid reducing their own workforce and the negative impact to employee morale that is often associated with it. Temporary employees are also a great way to find skilled workers to meet an exact business need while still remaining cost effective, and to assess the suitability of potential employees before hiring them permanently. However, the benefits of using temporary employees is negated if their mistreatment leads to negative work behaviors and prematurely ended contracts.

Implications for HRD

As previously discussed, the results of this study indicate that temporary employees respond in a similar manner as permanent employees to certain environmental factors. Therefore, regardless of employment contract, employees who feel they are treated fairly and are supported by the organization will have higher levels of organizational commitment and organizational trust, and lower levels of intent to leave. As past research points to the mistreatment often experienced by temporary employees, managers and HRD professionals need to be cognizant of the direct influence they have through procedural justice and perceived organizational support in influencing temporary employees' intent to leave an organization. If mistreatment of temporary

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employees is allowed to continue throughout an organization, the strategic value of this employee type can be lost.

Although co-employment is certainly a valid concern for managers of temporary employees and can at times dictate the role of the manager, HRD professionals should be highly involved in ensuring the temporary employee feels supported without overstepping the contractual boundaries. The findings of this study show that procedural justice is an antecedent to POS. With this knowledge, HRD professionals can help both managers and temporary employees to better understand the scope of the existing employee contract and create an environment conducive of procedural justice and perceived organizational support.

One practical way that HRD professionals can create a favorable environment for temporary workers is through the onboarding process of the new temporary employee. Through such new employee development practices, role ambiguity and conflict can be decreased (Slattery et al., 2008). Through proper onboarding, temporary employees can be welcomed to the organization on a positive note, making them feel like a valued part of the team. Orientation is also a great time to set forth and present policies and procedures that temporary employees will need to abide by during their work assignments. HRD professionals could also use this onboarding time as an opportunity to clarify the temporary employee dynamic and address any questions up front. Any noted differences between temporary employees and permanent employees can be addressed at this time as well. This up-front communication could lead to a better understanding on the temporary employee's part and circumvent potential issues of unfairness.

Overall, providing onboarding to temporary employees could have several positive outcomes. It allows the temporary employee to gain clarity about the new role and temporary

employment process. However, due to the risk of co-employment, HRD professionals will need

to work closely with their temporary agencies to create and deliver the onboarding process. By

working collaboratively with the temporary agency, information can be relayed properly so as to

create a supportive environment. Likewise, HRD professionals in the client firm need to ensure

that policies are in place that protect the rights of temporary employees.

Another implication of this study for HRD professionals concerns the training and

development for managers of temporary employees. Procedural justice is often measured through

perceived fairness of policies and procedures. Once HRD professionals work to ensure that

policies and procedures are in place to protect temporary employees, they must also work to train

the managers on these policies and procedures. It is crucial that managers understand that despite

the differences in employment contract, the treatment of temporary employees by managers and

peers can be detrimental to the company's profitability due to turnover.

Once aware, managers can work to ensure that temporary employees are treated similarly

to the permanent employees in regards to the administration of policies and procedures. HRD

professionals should also work with managers to ensure that temporary employees receive all of

the necessary information they need to complete the job assignment successfully. As isolation

and treatment as an outsider are commonly noted by temporary employees, HRD professionals

and managers also need to ensure that fellow permanent employees are aware of how this

treatment can negatively impact both the temporary employee and the organization. Further,

inclusion and sensitivity trainings may be needed by permanent employees in situations in which

HRD professionals speculate that mistreatment of temporary employee is occurring. Along with

training for managers, HRD professionals should monitor how peers treat temporary employees.

If mistreatment is occurring, training in diversity, sensitivity, or emotional intelligence could be

offered to show how attitudes and actions toward temporary workers   impact individuals and the organization through turnover. Ultimately, HRD professionals are tasked with creating a culture of inclusion.

Managers need to be educated on how to interact with their temporary employees in a manner that does not create risk for the organization. From this study, it can be inferred that the temporary employees who feel supported by the organization are less likely to leave their assignments early. As previously mentioned, employee recognition and training opportunities have been found to be indicative of POS (Allen et al., 2003; Shore & Shore, 1995). Thus, another implication for HRD professionals is the need to include training and development for the temporary employee. Again, because of the issues of co-employment, the client organization will need to work closely with the temporary agency to ensure that the training is coordinated well.

Although a temporary employee is technically the employee of the temporary agency, on-the-job training still needs to take place in order for the temporary employee to be able to do his or her job properly. Regardless of the employment type, client organizations need both temporary and permanent employees to perform at a high level. Through proper training, temporary employees will have the tools and resources to complete their jobs. This study indicates that supportive behavior can lead to increased levels of organizational commitment and trust, and decreased intent to leave on behalf of the temporary employee. These results can be leveraged by both the client and temporary agency to show the need for training and development of temporary employees.

This study also suggests that HRD professionals need to foster an environment of trust in order to retain temporary employees. One way to create this environment of trust is to set forth expectations for the temporary employee that the client organization will be able to meet. In this

matter, HRD professionals need to become strategic in their use of temporary employees so that a positive work environment can be created. For example, HRD professionals should work with leadership to determine how temporary employees fit into the organization's long-term strategic plan, and they should be prepared to ask questions pertaining to the longevity of an assignment and possibilities for conversion. With this knowledge, realistic expectations of employment can be established from the beginning of the assignment. Being able to follow through on set expectations will help the client organization build trust with the temporary employee. This trust can also be strengthened by temporary employees watching how their fellow temporary employees have been treated. For example, if a temporary employee is told that he or she will be offered a full-time position in six months, then told that the client firm is not able to convert, trust in the organization may diminish. Likewise, if there are other temporary employees watching this situation, their trust could diminish out of fear that they will face the same situation.

Last, HRD professionals also need to work with the temporary agency to increase levels of employee engagement and participation among their temporary workers. Employee engagement activities can lead temporary employees to feel supported in that they feel included as a part of the organization. Temporary agencies and HRD professionals should work collaboratively to ensure that temporary employees are able to participate in company events if possible. This could be as simple as having the temporary employment agency sponsor part of the event on behalf of the temporary employee.

Implications for Temporary Agencies

The results of this study also have important implications for temporary agencies. Temporary agencies should use this study's results to educate their client organizations on how

the mistreatment of temporary employees, which is a commonly cited issue with temporary employment, can lead to a temporary employee prematurely leaving his or her assignment. Temporary agencies should also educate their client organizations on the research that speaks to the benefits of providing support to this employee type.

Additionally, temporary agencies should seek to create working relationships with their client organizations that go beyond simply staffing temporary positions. Working collectively with the client organization will allow the temporary agency to take a proactive approach to create a positive work environment for the temporary employee at both the client organization and with the temporary agency. From this study it can be concluded that positive actions can lead to decreased turnover of the temporary employee. Permanently staffing temporary employees who successfully complete their assignments increases the reputation of the temporary agency. Additionally, the temporary agency benefits from promoting a healthy working environment for the temporary employee because the dissatisfied temporary employee may leave the temporary agency as well as the client organization.   Connelly et al. (2011) stated "Temporary agency workers who perceive unfair treatment by their client organizations may retaliate against their agencies as well as their client organizations; it is insufficient for the temporary agency alone to treat its workers fairly" (p. 190). An important implication of this study for the temporary agency is the need to be concerned about the treatment that the temporary employee receives at both the temporary agency and the client organization.

Implications for Client Organizations

Overall, the results of this study indicate that the field of HRD will need to focus more on the training and development of the temporary workforce. As temporary employment continues to grow in the United States, the development of these employees will be crucial to remaining

competitive. Both temporary agencies and client organizations will need to focus on providing necessary training and development opportunities.

Results also indicate that in order to gain the competitive advantage that temporary employees can offer, temporary agencies and client organizations must work together to create a positive work environment for this employee type. In order to decrease employee turnover, client organizations must take responsibility for the environment that is created while the temporary employee is on assignment. Last, given the high proportion of organizations that have used temporary contracts as a way to find permanent talent, organizations should seek to build commitment and trust from the beginning of the assignment, so that positive attitudes carry into permanent employment.

To ensure proper treatment of this employee type, client organizations need to properly train their managers. Based on this study, we know that the actions of the manager at the client organization have a direct impact on a temporary employee's intent to leave. Performance management training should be offered to managers to encourage proper inclusion of temporary employees, which could mean involving the temporary agency in performance discussions. Managers should be aware of the stipulations of temporary employment to be sure that they do not create issues of co-employment or offer future employment opportunities when there are none.

Also, as with permanent employees, client organizations should ensure that the proper channels are in place for temporary employees to bring forward concerns about the treatment they receive. Policies and procedures should be implemented to ensure that managers know the ramifications of mistreating temporary employees, and that they will be held accountable for this treatment.

Implications for Literature

Literature surrounding temporary employment is often conflicting while focused on broad organizational concepts and the triangular relationship that exists between the temporary employees, temporary agency, and client organization. The main focus of current literature appears to be in comparing the behavioral responses of temporary employees to that of permanent employees based on the idea that different employment contracts lead to different behavioral outcomes.

What appears to be missing in current literature is a focus on this unique employee group, who have the potential to create high rewards or risk for the organization. Feldman et al. (1994) spoke to this point when they stated, "While some of the management literature has covered how temporary agencies can best recruit both employees and customers, very little has been written about how the employing organization should manage temporary workers themselves" (p. 51). Along with this lack of research concerning managing this group, the research that does exist often focuses on the mistreatment experienced by temporary employees. However, the consequences of this mistreatment have been understated in literature, as a direct focus on the actions of the client and potential associated outcomes are often viewed only from the vantage point of the temporary agency. Additionally, it has been documented in the literature that high turnover among this employee group continues to be an important issue.

This study adds value to the body of knowledge by addressing key existing gaps in the literature. First, it focused solely on the interaction between the client organization and the temporary employee, so the direct effects of the client behavior could be assessed for specific outcomes. Second, this study examined direct behaviors that have been shown to lead to intent to leave and tested these relationships under the context of temporary employment. In this point, it

adds to the literature that suggests employment contract type does not dictate employee responses. Last, it provides clarity on how client managers can better manage this employee type.

Practical implications for the client organization and its managers can be made through measuring constructs such as procedural justice and POS. Previous research has already suggested ways in which these constructs can be exemplified in an organization, such as clearly communicating how decisions are made to increase levels of procedural justice and how proper onboarding and training can help an employee feel more supported by an organization. This study takes the existing research and extends it into the realm of temporary employment. Applying what was found in this study gives management a clear direction of how to manage their temporary workforce in such a way that builds organizational commitment and trust, thus decreasing turnover. As the use of temporary workers increases, it is crucial that managers not face constant turnover among this employee group; stability among temporary workers allows management to maintain their levels of productivity and decrease costs associated with unplanned turnover.

Limitations

The following are possible limitations of this study:

- Self-reported bias is a potential limitation of this study as the responses of both the predictor and criterion variable were collected from the same individual (Podsakoff et al., 2003).
- Survey length is another possible limitation to this study in that the survey had a total of 37 questions.

- The cross-sectional design of the survey is also a limitation. The fact that the survey captured responses at one point in time could also be a limitation as outside factors experienced around the time of the survey could have influenced the answers.

- Another possible limitation could be that respondents might have avoided answering truthfully out of fear of retaliation from the client organization. To offset this potential limitation, respondents were assured that their information and responses would not be shared at the individual level.

- Sample size of this study should also be noted as a limitation. In total, only 92 usable survey responses were analyzed in this study, which is well below the recommended 5:1 ratio. However, due to the high Cronbach's alpha of the scales used in the study and the high factor loadings of each construct, the study was able to be completed.

- This study focused only on a specific type of temporary workers, those employed through a temporary agency, thus the findings are not generalizable to other types of temporary employees, such as part time workers.

Future Research

The potential for future research on this topic is vast. More research is needed that focuses on the interactions between the temporary employee and the client organization. One possible research topic is the dynamics that occur between the temporary and permanent employees. Research is needed to study the view that permanent employees have of temporary employees and how this attitude influences the interactions between the two groups. Future research is also needed into how and why managers interact with temporary employees. If a

prevalent mindset emerges from these types of studies, trainings could be presented to combat

any negative attitudes. Further research should also be concentrated on how time as a temporary

employee influences the individual when he or she becomes a permanent employee. Qualitative

research in this field is also lacking. More qualitative research should follow to better understand

the mindset of temporary employees and the specific actions that causes them to want to remain

with an organization.

Conclusion

Chapter five provided a summary to the background of the study. Drawn conclusions

from each of the hypotheses were discussed as well as overall implications for the HRD field,

temporary agencies, client organizations, and literature. Limitations and areas of future research

opportunities were also discussed.

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Appendix A: Letter to Temporary Staffing Agencies

Hello,

I am a current PhD student at The University of Texas at Tyler, and I am currently in the process of writing my dissertation. Both I and my husband started our careers as temporary employees, and our vastly different experiences sparked an interest to research this unique employment type.

My current research is focused on how certain behaviors on part of the organization (such as perceived fairness and support) impact a temporary employee's intent to leave their assignment early. I am reaching out to different staffing agencies to see if they would like to partner with me on this research project. All that I will need is for each staffing agency to send an email with the survey link to those employed through their agency. The results will be completely anonymous, but I will be more than happy to share my results and final project with you. I am excited to get started on this project as it has great implications for both staffing agencies and client organizations alike, and I would love for your agency to participate.

Additionally, I would like to interview managers of this employee type either in person or via phone to gain their perspective. I am asking that you reach out to your contacts to see if any managers would be willing to participate.

Please let me know if you have any questions or concerns, or if you need any further information from me.

Thank you!

Kristen

Appendix B: Letter to Temporary Employees

Hello,

I am a current PhD student working on the final stages of my dissertation. In order to finish, I need your help! Please take a few minutes to complete the survey via the link given in the email. As someone who has worked in a temporary position myself, I am excited to research this unique employment relationship from the viewpoint of you, the temporary employee. This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of Texas at Tyler.

Your help in completing this study is greatly needed and appreciated. The survey should take no longer than 10 minutes, and your responses will be completely anonymous to both myself and your temporary agency. Your participation in this study is also completely voluntary.

Again, your participation is crucial to me being able to complete this study, and I thank you for your willingness to participate.

Kristen Waddell

PhD Hopeful