

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEWS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins with a general definition of Flexible Working Arrangement, followed by a detailed discussion of each individual variables as well as their rationale relationship proposed under this study. The final part of the chapter will layout the proposed research framework for the study.

2.2 DEFINITION OF FLEXIBLE WORKING ARRANGEMENT

Flexible work practices have long been viewed by employees as a valuable workplace tools to facilitate work-life management. Employees reported that workplace flexibility influences their decisions to join an organization, satisfaction with their jobs, and plans to stay with their employers. (Richman et al, 2008). Furthermore, based on a 550 pieces of research by Burud and Tumolo (2004) had concluded that flexible work practices did help employee to reduce their stress, absenteeism, and turnover, at the same time, increase employee satisfaction, commitment, and productivity. (Richman et al, 2008)

In this study, we shall follow the concept of Lambert et al. (2008) which defined ***“Flexible Work Arrangements”*** as ***“employer provided benefits that permit employees on some level of control over when and where they work outside of the standard workday”*** (Lambert, Marler, & Gueutal, 2008).

Although, over the varied of studies and literatures, Flexible Working Arrangement (FWA) may come from variety form/parameters/dimension eg : Flexitime, compressed workweek, job sharing, part time job, work from home / flex place, teleworking etc, which may bring a difference experiences and perception to the employees. However, in this paper, we shall only take into account to combine only 2 dimension of Flexible Working Arrangement as whole to be our scope of study : (i) time basis (Flex-time and compressed work week) and (ii) location basis (work from home and telecommuting); which may consider as among the most observable and popular options being facilitated by the Malaysian employer at their workplace in compared to others type of FWA options such as on-site child care, job sharing etc.

Flexitime & Compressed Work Week. According to G. Costa et al. (2003), “Flexible working hours involve a continuous choice on behalf of employers, employees, or both, regarding the amount (chronometry) and temporal distribution (chronology) of working hours”. Whereas, noted by Golembiewski and Proehl (1978): “Flexitime or Flexi Working Hours arrangement is among the Flexi Working approaches available and it is a structural modification which gives the employee the opportunity to choose, on some time basis and within specific limits, when to start or stop work at his/her discretion, usually requiring a number of daily “core hours” during which all employees should be at work”. For example, the employee would required to work within 10 am to 2pm as core hours with an

flexible band of hours before, or after core times that allows employees to exercise designated options regarding their presence in, or absence from, the workplace.

On the other hand, similar to Flexi-hours / flexitime concept, instead of varied on the working hours based on per work day basis, the concept of compressed work week is to increase the temporal flexibility through the working days per week or per month. Simply saying, the compressed work week is to condense the hours in the standard work week into fewer days (Ronen & Primps, 1981). The total number of hours required per week or month usually remains the same. The underlying principle is similar to flexitime in that it does not affect the number of hours required or the work location. However, with the compressed work week, there is no core time, which enables employees to work a greater number of hours on certain days and then not work at all on other days. For example, on a four day/40 hour schedule, an employee would work 10 hours per day for four days, and then not have to work on the fifth day of that week. Generally, both the flexi-hours and compressed work week provide employees with some degree of discretion of flexibility on their work scheduling in terms of time basis.

Explained by some previous researches, flexi-time may contribute in several ways towards individual and organizational output with among those as following :

(a) Flexitime allowed autonomy to employees to harmonize work and non-work demands on their time, resulting in better workplace relations (Vathsala et al,

2007). At the same time, this autonomy which includes some extent of employee's ability to control his / her own time and location, it is in a way to enable one to meet his / her needs which was closely aligned to the ability to achieve individual satisfactory work-balance. (Kelliher & Anderson, 2008).

(b) While, Pierce & Newstorm (1980) tried to explain the advantages of flexitime through Self Adjustment Theory. Based on their argument, through need fulfillment, stress reduction, and the harmonization of work with human circadian rhythms, flexible working hours can contribute to a greater correspondence between (i) an individual's abilities and the ability requirements of the job, and (ii) an individual's needs and the satisfaction of those needs by the work environment.

All the above rationale given was rather consistent with others empirical study. With the research work being conducted in the late 1970s and early 1980s; using an American company data did find that permitting employees to exercise flexibility in their arrival and leaving times was reported able to help to reduce absenteeism, tardiness, overtime, etc (Golembiewski, Yeager, & Hilles 1975). Another compelling findings of by Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, and Neuman (1999) on a meta-analysis also found that flexible work schedules had a positive effects on both job satisfaction and job performance.

Flexplace. Telecommuting and telework are terms that are often used interchangeably to describe employees who periodically, regularly, or exclusively

perform work for their employers from home or another remote location that is equipped with the appropriate computer based technology to transfer work to the central organization. While the structure of teleworking varies across companies, most arrangements offer employees an option to perform their work responsibilities at home or out from the main office, even some arrangements also offer further options among multiple satellite sites that are geographically more convenient than the traditional office space (Hunton and Norman, 2010, Gajendran and Harrison 2007). Another definition by Nilles (1994) on “Telecommuting” is work conducted from home that is often supported by telecommunications technology (telephone, Internet access, or computer).

A number of studies suggest that work-redesign policies like telecommuting and telework arrangement can have a positive impact on the work-life balance of white-collar employees (Himmelspach 2008; Batt & Valcour 2003, Hunton & Norman, 2010) as well as associate positively towards organizational commitment and task performance

Taken all together, numerous previous studies and literatures did suggest and evidence that the motivational effects of using a formal flexibility policy or other work–family benefits are likely to lead to higher performance and lower turnover intentions.

2.3 VARIABLES

2.3.1. Independent (Predictor) Variable(s) – Benefits Used and Perceived Value of Benefits of FWA as a Work-life Balance Benefit

Benefits have the potential to influence not only employee attraction to the organization but also employee satisfaction, motivation, performance, commitment to the organization, attendance, and retention (Weathington & Jones 2006, Ash & Bendapudi, 1996).

While there is no one accepted definition of what constitutes a work-life balance practice and benefits, the term usually refers to one of the following : flexible work options such as **flexible work hours** (e.g., flextime, which permits workers to vary their start and finish times provided a certain number of hours is worked; **compressed work week**, in which employees work a full week's worth of hours in four days and take the fifth off), **working from home (telework)**, sharing a full-time job between two employees (job sharing), family leave programs (e.g., parental leave, adoption leave, compassionate leave), onsite childcare, and financial and/or informational assistance with childcare and eldercare services. (Beauregard & Henry, 2009)

Generally, economists have measured benefit value in monetary terms, whereas psychologists and sociologists have measured benefit value in terms of perceived importance or attitudes (Weathington & Jones, 2006). Further explained in the same journal article : It appears that benefits do not affect

employee behavior directly (Stedham, 1989) but instead affect such behavior indirectly through individuals' attitudes and perceptions about the organization (Christoph, 1996; Stedham, 1989). Therefore, employee perceptions of the benefits provided by an organization may be as critical in determining employee satisfaction with and commitment to an organization as are the actual benefits themselves (Weathington & Tetrick, 2000, Weathington & Jones 2006). This is consistent with the researchers argument that benefits that employees view as more valuable have greater influence on employee attitudes toward the organization (Lambart, 2000).

Muse et al (2008) has summarized in their research that positive employee attitudes and behaviors have been theoretically and empirically tied to diverse aspects of employee benefits including benefit choice (Duleborn, Murray, & Sun, 2000), benefit availability (Allen, 2001; Behson, 2005; Grover & Crooker, 1995), benefit satisfaction (Williams, Malos, & Palmer, 2002), perceived benefit fairness (Parker & Allen, 2001), knowledge of how to take advantage of benefits (Haar & Spell, 2004), benefit use (Allen, 2001; Butler, Gasser, & Smart, 2004; Lambert, 2000), benefit usefulness (Lambert, 2000), and perceived benefit value (Haar & Spell, 2004; Wilson, Northcraft, & Neale, 1985).

Benefits Used. Use of Work-life Benefits (WLBs) such as FWA was related to lower family-to-work conflict (Hammer, Neal, Newsom, Brockwood, & Colton, 2005). Grover and Crooker (1995) found that the availability of WLBs was related

to enhance commitment and reduce turnover intentions among all employees, not only to WLB users. They suggested that WLBs influence the employees' attachment by signaling that the organization cares about employee well-being. This is consistent with signaling theory which argues that observable actions by an organization are interpreted as signals of less observable characteristics (Spence, 1973). Therefore, WLBs are observable actions that may signal that the organization is caring for the employee well being.

Whereas, in another research by Kenexa Research Institute in 2007 shows that those employees who were more favorable toward their organization's efforts to support work life balance also indicated a much more lower intention to leave the organization, greater pride in their organization, a higher willingness to recommend it as a place to work and increase of overall job satisfaction with the organization.

On the other hand, study did also support the claims that expanding worker access to formal flexible arrangements is a viable strategy for promoting individual health and well-being which will enhance organizational overall performance.

Perceived Value of Benefits. Consistent with Gouldner's (1960)'s caveat as well as with some others theoretical justification being raised by Lambert (2000), Haar & Spell (2004) and Muse et al (2008) that : individuals react differently to the

same action based on their value system to justify the importance focusing on benefit value in determining an employee's resulting of obligation. Further explained to this, for example : employee A who is the mother for 2 children may perceived Flexitime is a valuable benefits for her as she need to fetch her children to school, which in this case Flexitime allow some flexibility for her schedule to do so; but this may not necessary apply to employee B who is still single. As such the degree of reciprocity may also be different between the both individual employee A & B.

Therefore, the influence of a benefit on employee attitudes depends on perceptions of both the monetary and non monetary worth of the benefit being provided. Employees may not only use monetary value as a clue to the psychological or social value of a benefit but also base this determination on perceptions of the practical administration and use of the benefit. In simplify, benefit satisfaction or dissatisfaction determines the positive or negative influence of benefit perception on employee attitudes, whereas benefit value determines the strength of the relation (Weathington & Jones, 2006).

Reporter by Hill, Hawkinsn Ferris and Weitzman (2001) in their study conducted around the late 1990s at IBM on the work and family spillover (balance) which among one of the interesting findings of their work was on the importance of perceived flexibility. Another research funded by IBM through Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, "When Work Works: A Project on Workplace Effectiveness and

Workplace Flexibility” partnering with the Center for Workforce Preparation an affiliate of the U.S. Chamber of Commerce and The Center for Emerging reported some compelling results findings related to flexible work arrangement. Based on the report did show that flexible work options are viewed as desirable by the workforce in general—not just women and employed mothers—contrary to the opinions of some. The study also reported that employees who access to Flexible Work Arrangement were generally more engaged and committed to their employers, significantly have higher job satisfaction, and are more likely to plan to stay with their current employer for at least next year. (Source : www.whenworkworks.org. “When Work Works – a Status Report on Workplace Flexibility by Ellen Galinsky, James T. Bond, E. Jeffery Hill, published with funding by IBM, 2004)

In proceeding further in our study, we shall examine also the both “perceived value of the benefits” and “used of benefits” as our scope of study towards the benefits provided by organization at their workplaces. Although, based on previous discussion and recommendation by others researchers, the norm of reciprocity, that ‘when testing for reciprocation between employers and employees, the organization researched should ideally already offer multiple work-family practices and have been doing so for some time, thus allowing for a moral obligation to develop” (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner’s, 1998; Muse et al., 2008). However, due the limitation we have had to access into an organization / research site that have been well developed with such WLBs

facilities, hence, we have extend this study to a more general population which the respondents are being identified and classified as FWAs users to enable the perquisite of examine the norm of reciprocity in this sense, but these group of respondents may come from different divergent of job category, companies and background.

2.3.2 Mediator Variable - Perceived Organization Support (POS)

Perceived Organization Support (POS) has shown to be related to a range of positive employee attitudes and behaviors at work such as various forms of citizenship, discretionary behaviors, and attendance which resulted in increased interest among both organizational scholars and practitioners to the subject in recent years (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Organizational support theory applies POS as a central construct to understand the employee-employer relationship in an organization which in turn lead to higher employee's intra-role and extra-role behaviors. Perceived organizational support is defined as an employee belief that the organization cares for and values his or her contribution to the success of the organization (Kaufman, Stamper & Tesulk, 2001). Perceived organizational support encompasses policies in promoting employee well-being and feelings of accomplishment, a sense of positive contribution to the organization, and personal and organizational goal attainment (Eisenberger et al, 2001). Further explained by Eisenberger and his colleagues in their study at 1986 & 1990 : employees tend to

develop a general attitude concerning “the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being” through a term named Perceived Organizational Support. Hence, the stronger perceived organization support is predicted to stimulate stronger feeling of obligation of the individual of employees to repay the organization. (Eisenberger et al, 1986 & 1990).

Lambert (2000) claimed that one macro motive that seems especially relevant to understand how employee’s experiences with work-life benefits may affect their citizenship behavior is through perceived organizational support (Lambert, 2000). According to the social exchange model of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Hmttingrm, Hutchison. & Sowa. 1986, (Hutchison, 1997) employees exchange their loyalty and effort for material and social rewards from the organization. As such, the facilitate and provision of Flexible Working Arrangement at the workplace can be seen as an indicator of favorable treatment which directly / indirectly increase employee perceptions of organizational support, prompting reciprocal positive actions from employees. (Lambert, 2000). On the other hand, researchers investigating the effects of employer’s supports for worker’s personal lives have also speculated that work-family benefits can enhance worker’s perceptions of organizational support (Grover & Crooker, 1996, Kossek, 1989, Lambert, 2000).

2.3.3 Dependent Variable - Organizational Commitment

Compared with other variables, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment is a more stable variable across time (Porter et al, 1974, Yao and Wang, 2006). Generally, there are two important rationale why the academic and especially the HR practioner are keen to enhance their further understanding on the antecedents, correlation consequences etc. of employee organizational commitment towards the both individual and organization outcomes, mainly due to : (i) the associate costs in related to the negative attitudinal and behavior from employees due to low commitment (eg : cost of employees voluntary turnover, costs retention and replacement, low job motivation and satisfaction etc), and (ii) the benefits associate to high commitment reflected through employee positive attitudinal and behavior contributed towards positive organizational output (eg : improving productivity, extra role behavior, job attachment etc). That's make sense why organizational commitment has always been taking as an important construct and popular research topic in studying the organizational behavior.

As defined by Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979 : "Organizational commitment represents an individual's identification with the goals of the organization, how much the individual values membership in the organization and degree to which they intend to work to attain the organizational goals."

On the other hand, Allen and Meyer (1990) has identified the organizational commitment as a psychological states that (i) characterized the employee's

relationship with the organization and, (ii) has implications for an employee's decision to continue or discontinue their membership in the particular organization. (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Yao & Wang, 2006).

Meyer and Allen (1987 & 1993) had identified three-component model that generally reflect the organizational commitment in three themes : affective commitment (affective attachment), continue commitment (perceived costs) and normative commitment (obligation). Further explained to this by Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993): "Employees with a strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they want to, those with a strong continuance commitment remain because they need to, and those with a strong normative commitment remain because they feel they ought to do so"

As mentioned earlier, the interest in employee commitment mainly derives from the established link to its desirable work related outcomes. In particular, studies have consistently reported organizational commitment to be negatively associated with turnover intentions and actual turnover behavior (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009).

Further explained by Sandura & Lankau (1997) in their research, with respect to individual and organizational outcomes, research has shown that organizational commitment is positively related to performance (Aranya, Kushnir and Valency,

1986) and negatively related to turnover (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Porter, Steers and Mowday, 1974) and turnover intentions (Williams and Hazer, 1986).

We will further discussed this in more details on the three-component model at the below section.

Affective Commitment. The affective component of organizational commitment refers to an employee's emotional attachment to the organization, as well as an individual's identification with and involvement in the organization. (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It is the process by which the goals of an organization and those of the individual become more closely integrated or aligned (Hall et al. 1970). Accordingly, employees with a strong affective commitment are said to continue their employment with an organization because they want to or choose to do so (Meyer & Allen 1997). Largely results also suggest that affective commitment has the strongest and most consistent relationship with desirable outcomes, such as retention, attendance, and performance, and therefore making the affective commitment the most widely studied component of organizational commitment

Continue Commitment. Continuance commitment refers to an employee's perception that there are costs associated with leaving the organization; thus, employees whose primary link to the organization is based on this component remain with the company because they believe they need to do so (Meyer & Allen,1997)

Normative Commitment. Normative commitment refers to an employee's feelings of obligation to remain with an organization because of his or her belief that it is the right thing to do or that he or she should do so (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This form of commitment might develop through conditioning rewards and punishments or through observation and imitation, which individuals learn from their family, culture, or the organization (Wiener, 1982). Normative commitment could also result from investments that an organization makes in an individual which might be perceived as difficult for the individual to repay. (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Scholl, 1981) Employees might find such an imbalance uncomfortable and choose to stay with the organization out of a sense of obligation and norm of reciprocity relationship (Gouldner, 1960). Finally, if employees believe they are obligated to their employer in an exchange relationship psychological contract, normative commitment might develop.

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), due to the distinct emphasis on obligations that are unique to normative commitment, this component of organizational commitment might well be the missing link in our understanding of the influence of psychological contracts on employee commitment. This is important because, of the three forms of organizational commitment described above, the least is known about the development of normative commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991)

The above statement is rather consistent with Yao & Wang (2006) in their study

to examine the normative organizational commitment on turnover from a cultural perspective at Chinese companies. In their research, they urged that the value of normative organizational commitment has far been under clarified and therefore deserved more attention from the researchers especially in predicting the working behaviors due to the conducive with cultural perspective. Based on their study and result had reveal that affective commitment was an important predictor for organizational satisfaction whereas the normative commitment was most important predictor for employee's job changing behavior

Although, in the studies of Haar & Spell, they expected normative commitment to be most relevant with respect to a norm of reciprocity, since this construct involves the felt of obligation, however, their findings had been found contradictory. Hence, it seems there are still remain ambiguity in this niche of organizational commitment especially to understand the normative commitment in the positive exchange relationship between the employer-employee.

2.3.4. Dependent Variable - Turnover Intention

The retaining of talent is now becoming more critical in a world where the organization's human capabilities are increasingly the key source of competitive advantage. This pervasive interest comes mainly from a recognition that voluntary turnover can be very costly, and that understanding and managing it better can provide considerable benefits (Griffeth & Hom, 2001). Lockwood (2003) suggested that the cost of employee turnover and the accompanying loss

of valuable company knowledge can also be very significant (Huang et al. 2007).

According to the National Study of the Changing Workforce, in 2002, 73% of employees with high availability of flexible work arrangements reported that there was a high likelihood that they would stay with their current employer for the next year (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002, p. 34).

Study results also suggested that an employee's affective commitment is the most important component of organizational commitment in predicting turnover intentions, which implies that organizations interested in reducing voluntary turnover behavior can do so by fostering affective commitment (Jaros, 1995; Hunton and Norman, 2010)

2.4 RATIONALE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIABLES

2.4.1. Benefits of FWA, Perceived Organizational Support, Organizational Commitment and Turnover Intention

Ultimately, theoretically and empirically, previous studies did evidence there were a rationale link associate between Flexible Working Arrangement with the organizational and individual outcomes.

According to person-environment fit theory, flexibility may improve the fit between

domains – both personal and work – by increasing employee’s resources and ability to meet demands of roles in each domain. (Richman et al. 2008). Whereas, Kossek, Lautsch, and Eaton (2005) proposed that this aspect of flexibility, which they call ‘personal job flexibility autonomy’, maybe the single best predictor of the outcomes of lower work-family conflict and lower intention to turnover of all the flexibility enactment measures they studied. Hence, the Flexible Working Arrangement which allowed some extend of “flexibility” to employees to manage their work-personal demands may seems likely to fulfill for such proposition.

In their studies, grounded on the Blau (1964) Social Exchange Theory, Haar and Spell (2004) suggested that employees who value work family policies will harbor the feelings of obligation and responsibility by three ways : (a) the employees have benefited from the work family policies in some capacity, (b) enjoy the opportunity of having these policies available if needed or (c) recognize the organization’s commitment to helping employees balance their work and family issues; irrespective of whether they intend to use these policies or not. This statement was further supported by Richman et al. (2008) who claimed that employee who worked for organizations that offered family friendly policies (interchangeably with work life benefits) had higher levels of organizational commitment and lower intentions to leave, regardless of the extent to which the employees might personally benefit from the policies itself.

Meanwhile, previous theoretical understandings and empirical evidence did

predict that the enhanced of the perceptions of organizational support did foster citizenship behavior, especially at the organizational level (Lambert, 2000). Work life benefits programs such as Flexible Working Arrangement can therefore be interpreted as signal that organization cares about the well-being of its employees, and thereby strengthening the employer-employee bond in creating the desire of reciprocity relationship within employer-employee (Muse et al, 2008). This in turn predicted to associate with some positive outcomes embrace to both individual and organization. Eg : Job satisfaction, higher commitment and job motivation, better performance and improve of work productivity & quality etc.

This was supported by the research carried by Casper and Harris (2008) did show that POS was fully mediated the relationship between Work-life Benefits (WLB) availability and affective commitment, as well as the relationship between dependent care assistance (DC) availability and turnover intentions. These findings was extend from the Casper and Buffardi's (2004) finding that anticipated organizational support mediated the relationship between these two WLBs and job pursuit intentions. In their study, Casper and Harris (2008) suggested that there are two ways in which Work life benefits might influence employees' commitment and turnover through two compelling theories : (i) Self-interest model and Signaling theory. In their study to examine the relationship of employees' attachment with two commonly explored WLBs : dependent care assistance (DC) and schedule flexibility (SF), results supported both the signaling model and the self-interest utility model. For women, the availability of work-life

benefits influenced organizational attachment irrespective of use, and these effects were mediated by support perceptions (POS), consistent with the signaling model. In contrast, the self-interest model (in this sense the Used of benefits) was also supported, specifically, the availability and use of flexible schedules interacted in predicting affective commitment among men such that flexible schedule availability was positively related to commitment only when use was high and negatively related to commitment when use was low.

Consistent with Wasti (2003) arguments, high levels of perceived organizational support are thought to create within individual the obligation to repay the organization as perceived organizational support is associated with a trust that organization will fulfill its exchange obligation. Therefore, employee who perceived high support from organization expressed stronger affiliation and loyalty to the organization. (Eisenberger, et al 1990)

From the perspective of how FWA may affect on individual outcomes, theorists are consistent that flexible scheduling and work arrangement may affect the motivation to attend, possibly through increases in autonomy, responsibility, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Scott and Taylor, 1985; Blau, 1986). Based on the further explanation refer the above statement, there seem to be two general rationales whereby flexible scheduling and work arrangement might thus be expected to affect individual behavior. The first, which is direct and pragmatic, may arise from a scheduling policy that enables employees to

manage competing life obligations more readily and thus minimizes the need to be absent to meet such responsibilities. Scheduling discretion, then, improves the ability to manage conflicting interests. The second derives from the motivational effect of scheduling policies. Here, scheduling discretion may be seen as an improvement in work autonomy and responsibility and may lead to reduction in conflict. Such outcomes may affect employees' attitudes toward their employer and their work, leading to an improved attitude that sustains their involvement and their attachment to the workplace. (Dan & Debra, 1990).

Grover and Crooker (1995) also found that employees with access to more family-responsive practice benefits (or interchangeable of Work-life benefits) showed a greater organizational commitment and lower intention to leave. It is being suggested that companies offering better quality of work life and supportive working environments will likely gain leverage in hiring and retaining valuable people nowadays (Huang et al, 2007).

Other than supported by the Social Exchange theory as discussed above, the norm of reciprocity within employer-employee relationships also supported by Rousseau (1995) "psychological contracts theory". In their study, Scandura and Lankau, (1997), revealed that offered of flexible work hours were in overall related to higher organizational commitment and job satisfaction especially for those having family responsibilities. "Psychological Contracts" contain for both explicit promises (i.e. verbal or written agreements and implicit promises

(i.e. good faith or fairness) pervasive in the organization. Further being defined by Rousseau (1995), "psychological contracts" ... "is a set of individual belief that shaped by organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization..." Following the theory of psychological contracts, employees believed the organization made promises to them to adopt a more flexible workplace in response to better help them in managing work-life and hence this perception may reciprocate greater loyalty and attachment from the employee to the organization

2.5 RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

With all the discussion that served the backbone of the research framework grounded on the multiple theoretical and conceptual as discussed above, the proposed research framework of this study was proposed per figure 2.1

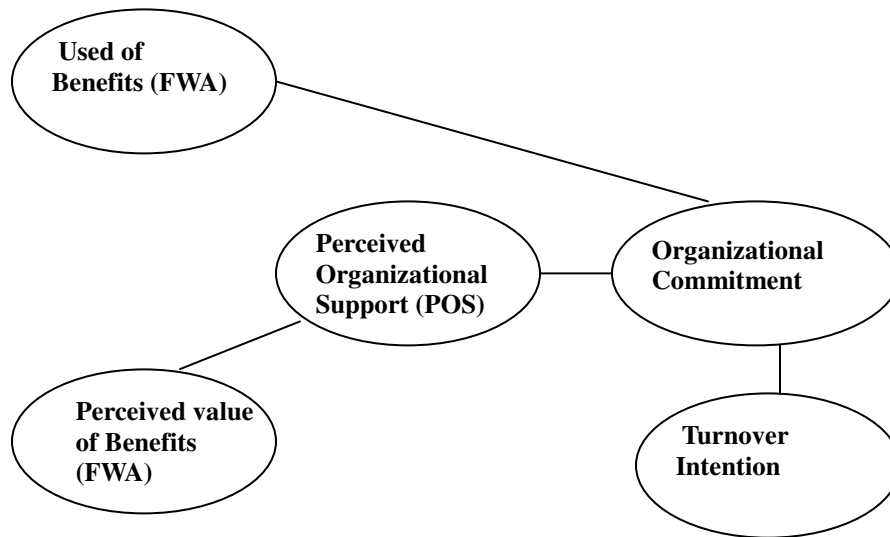


Figure 2.1 : Proposed model for examining differential relationships of employee benefits use and perceived value of benefits with organizational commitments mediated by Perceived Organizational Support and its subsequent prediction to employee's perceived turnover intention.