

**AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF WORK STATUS ON JOB  
SATISFACTION IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY-  
FOCUS STUDY OF LUSAKA DISTRICT**

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**ABSTRACT**

*The study sought to determine the impact of work status on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance in the hospitality industry in Zambia and hence made use of descriptive research design together with a purposive sampling technique. A sample size of 105 employees from the hospitality industry was used in this study. Sources of data in this particular study included both primary and secondary sources. In order to specifically address the research questions, the Likert scaled questionnaire was used to gather primary data. The study used both correlation and logistic regression analyses to find out the effect of work status on Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance. The study found that work status had a significant positive effect on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance. The study therefore recommended that firstly, organizations should offer acceptable working conditions for all employees regardless of their employment status. Secondly, the study recommended that Organizations should give opportunities for career advancement and incentives as this will contribute to organization commitment. Lastly, the study also recommended that Part time employees should be treated equally like their fulltime counterparts to ensure job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance.*

**Key words:** *Work status, Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and Job performance.*

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF STUDY

#### 1.1 Introduction

The aim of this section is to introduce the research topic and to formulate research questions. Thus, the chapter begins with an introduction. Problem statement, research questions, research objectives and significance of the study then follows. Scope, structure of the report, definition of terms and chapter summary will conclude the chapter.

#### 1.2 Background

There are a number of concerns shown by all industries more especially the retail and service sectors about part time employees. (Hipple, 2008). The total service occupations comprise of more than 50% part time employment (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2006). Other organizations such as universities, hospitals and manufacturing firms have also employed part-timers (Shittu & Omar, 2006).

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2006), majority of new entrants to the labor force are given first jobs by the hotels and other lodging places. In addition, the hospitality industry also offers opportunity to the youths who may have skill limitations as well as others who may be in search of part-time work. Allowing part-time employees to occupy positions that are particularly hourly based has worked to the advantage of the service industry (Hipple, 2008).

There is an assumption by some managers that the attitude and behaviors of both full-time and part-time employees are the same. Hence, they have not taken into consideration the differences that exist between full-time and part-time employees in job satisfaction,

job performance and other outcomes. This leads to a number of managers applying similar style of management and philosophies to the two types of employees. However, there are many studies indicating that there are differences between full-time and part-time employees in their attitude and work behavior, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment and work performance (Clinebell & Clinebell, 2007; Darden, McKee & Hampton, 1993, Eberhardt and Shani, 1984, Mayfield & Mayfield, 2006, Rotchford and Roberts, 1982, Stamper 7, Van Dyne, 2003, Steffy & Jones, 1990, Wotuba, 1990).

Having half of the workers in the hospitality industry being part-time employees, makes it important to have an understanding of the various views regarding job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance in relation to full-time and part-time workers. One of the determining factors of customer satisfaction in the hospitality industry is particularly the interaction between the employees and the customer. When employees are satisfied with their job, it will be reflected in high quality service they provide. Satisfied employees lead to satisfied customers (Chen, 2007; Spinelli & Canavos, 2000). It is therefore important that both full-time and part-time employee's' job satisfaction is enhanced by managers in order to deliver a high quality of service. In addition, organizational commitment is linked and has an effect on job outcomes such as employee retention (William & Hazar, 1986).

A reflection of high-quality services provided by employees indicates that employees are satisfied with their work. When the employee is satisfied, the customers they will bring will equally be satisfied (Chen, 2007, Spinelli and Canavos, 2000). Therefore, it is important that managers improve both the job satisfaction of full-time and part-time

employees in order to provide a high-quality service. Furthermore, the organizational commitment is related and has an influence on the results of the work, such as retaining of employees (William and Hazar, 1986).

Zambia has a serious problem of unemployment and underemployment. At independence in 1964, Zambia's economy grew while the British South Africa Company retained commercial assets and mineral rights. In 1968, Zambia's economic structure came with Mulungushi Reforms where Government controlled foreign owned companies. The genesis of part time employees dates back to the 1990s when Zambia vigorously and religiously implemented World Bank and International Monetary Fund Structural Adjustment Programme as a remedy to stabilize and resuscitate the ailing economy. Before 1991, most companies were state owned, so the state had full control over employment conditions and most employees were engaged in accordance with provisions of the Employment Act. The Second republic adopted a liberalized economy which allowed growth of the private sector. Foreign and local investors can do anything because of private driven economy.

In 2013 Zambia had 914,576 visitors, of all types, including business travellers, visiting friends and relatives and holiday focused visitors. One of the objectives of ZTB (Zambia Travel Bureau) is to exceed a milestone of 1 million international arrivals in the year 2013.

In 2012, 859,088 tourists visited the country compared to 920,299 arrivals recorded in 2011. Between 2005 and 2007, the number of visitors to Zambia increased threefold, reaching to 897,000 arrivals. While the 2007-2008 International financial crisis negatively affected the tourism industry, dropping the number of arrivals to 710,000 in 2009, the tourism industry made a quickly recovery. In

2010, the number of arrivals to Zambia was 815,000 and increased to 920,299 in 2011. There was a 6.7% decrease in the number of arrivals in 2012, to 859,088.

The excellent investment opportunities in hotel development are evidenced in the substantial number of operators already established in the country. Zambia has a wide range of standards when it comes to places to stay – from five-star hotels and first-class luxury lodges, to rustic bush camps, guesthouses and campsites. Additionally, the majority of visitors who entered into the country travelled for business purposes, this illustrates the abundant investment opportunities in Zambia.

The major hotels in Zambia include Hotel Intercontinental, Taj Hotels, Southern Sun, Sun International, Protea Hotels, Hilton Hotel, The Carlson Rezidor Hotel Group - Radisson Blu, Courtyard Hotels, Golden Bridge and The Radisson Blu Hotel among other emerging hotels. **Zambia Development Agency (ZDA 2015)**

### 1.3 Problem statement

Research has indicated that there are differences between part-time and full time workers in relation to job performance, that may consist of in-role and extra-role performance which is also referred to as Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) (Marchese & Ryan, 2001; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2006; Stamper & VAN Dyne, 2003).

There are many studies that have been done on employee performance, organizational performance and job commitment but these studies did not differentiate between full-time and part-time employees. According to Rotchford and Roberts (1982), part-time workers are regarded as the missing person in organizational research. They are really the missing persons in terms of traditional job performance and OCB. Indeed, there has been little

research done in the comparison of full-time and part-time workers in terms of task performance and OCB (Marchese & Ryan, 2001; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2006; Stamper & Van Dyne, 2003; Wotruba, 1990). However, when Mayfield & Mayfield (2006) attempted to compare full-time and part-time workers in regard to the impact of using motivating language on performance, it was discovered that indeed there was a difference in worker performance between the two groups as full-time workers showed higher performance when motivational language was used compared to part-time workers. In addition, Marchese and Ryan (2001) also found that part-time employees possess a lower performance level in comparison to their full-time counterparts.

The problem of this study is principally informed by the fact that there is very limited empirical documentation on the impact of work status on organization commitment, job satisfaction and job performance in the hospitality industry in Zambia. To the author's knowledge, to date, there is no study comparing full-time and part-time employees in the hospitality industry in Zambia. It is in this regard that this study will attempt to examine whether there are any notable differences among full-time and part-time workers on Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Job Performance in Zambia, particularly in Lusaka province.

### 1.3.1 Specific research objectives

- i. To determine if there is a difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job satisfaction.
- ii. To find the relationship between job satisfaction and staff productivity

### 1.5 Justification of study

This study makes several contributions to the existing body of knowledge on the impact of work status on job satisfaction, organizational

commitment and job performance in the hospitality industry. This is the first study that would examine the impact of work status on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance in the hospitality industry in Zambia. Furthermore, the outcome of this study will contribute to the literature of work status from the perspective of developing countries, particularly Zambia.

In addition, the outcome of this research can help to bring new perspectives for stakeholders in the practice. If differences are identified between full-time and part-time workers on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance, the following groups have benefits: policy makers, executives, managers, employees, regulators, and auditors. All these stakeholders can use the information to make better decisions.

### 1.6 Definition of Terms

It is of essence and indispensable that terms to be applied in this study be defined in a way that they are going to be applied in the dissertation. These definitions are meant to spell out the milieu, in which the terms are used and applied in this dissertation.

#### 1.7.1 Job Satisfaction

There are many ways in which the term Job Satisfaction has been defined) job satisfaction is "a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of a specific job"

#### 1.7.2 Organizational Commitment

According to Mowday, Porter & Steers (1982), organizational commitment is "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization"

#### 1.7.3 Job Performance

Job performance can be divided into two types: in-role and extra-role work performance or OCB (Katz,

1964; LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002; Organ, 1988). Performing tasks that are written in the job description and recognized by the organization's reward system constitutes the traditional in-role performance. This means that employees are trained and are expected to execute regular tasks and failure to undertake such tasks is punishable.

#### **1.7.4 Work status (part-time/full time)**

##### **1.7.4.3 Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)**

During the stay of an employee in the organization, there are certain behaviours which are expected from him and are abiding on him by the rules and regulations of the organization. However, employees at times exhibit certain behaviours that go beyond the call of the duty. Such behaviour is called Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB).

#### **1.8 Chapter summary**

The chapter introduced the research background, research problem, research objectives, scope of the study significance of the study and chapter organization. The next chapter provides the relevant literature to the study.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter will give a general view of the studies that have been conducted on part-time and full-time employees on variables of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance as well as the difference between full-time and part-time employees.

#### **2.2 Job Satisfaction**

There are many ways of defining job satisfaction (Cranny, Smith & Stone, 1992; Spector, 1997). Spector (1997), defines job satisfaction as "a global

feeling about a job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job. These aspects can either be job status, condition, co-workers, pay or security. Job satisfaction is one area that has been researched heavily.

#### **2.2.1 Work status and Job Satisfaction**

The findings from Tang, Kim & Tang (2002) shows that full-time employees are more satisfied with work, pay and promotions than the part-time employees. In addition, it was found that full-time employees are more attached to the organization as compared to their part-time counterparts (Still, 1983).

Spector (1997) refers to job satisfaction in terms of how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) support this view by defining job satisfaction as the extent to which employees like their work. Schermerhorn (1993) defines job satisfaction as an affective or emotional response towards various aspects of an employee's work. C.R. Reilly (1991) defines job satisfaction as the feeling that a worker has about his job or a general attitude towards work or a job and it is influenced by the perception of one's job.

According to the study conducted by Friedlander and Margulies (1969), it was discovered that management & friendly staff relationships contribute to the level of job satisfaction. However, this result contradicts with view of Herzberg (1966) who supported the view that supervision is irrelevant to the level of job satisfaction. According to Frame (2004) work conditions are defined as an employee's work place, work instruments, the work itself, organization policy, and organizational rules. Arnold and Feldman (1996), promoted factors such as temperature, lighting, ventilation, hygiene, noise, working hours, and resources as part of working conditions.



According to James Brown (2007), he defines fairness as equal treatment, receiving the same services and benefits as other people. Fairness means different things to different people, and our view of whether or not something is fair often depends on the circumstances (Klesh, J. 1979). Competent employees are essential to the success of any organization. An important factor driving satisfaction in the service environment is service quality. One school of thought refers to service quality as a global assessment about a service category or a particular organization (PZB, 1988). Various studies discussed shows that job satisfaction has been studied with relevance to co-worker behavior supervisor behavior, pay and promotion, organizational factors and other work-related factors. In some studies, the employees were highly satisfied or otherwise. The aim of this study is to determine the factors affecting employee job satisfaction in pharmaceuticals Companies

### 2.3 Organizational Commitment

Mowday, Porter & Steers (1982) defined the organizational commitment as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization” From their definition, three characteristics customize the organizational commitment:

- a) A strong belief in the organization’s goals and values,
- b) Willingness to perform to help the organization reach its goals, and
- c) Staying with the organization long enough.

#### 2.3.1 Studies on Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is bound and influences the results of work, such as job satisfaction (William and Hazar, 1986). Fiorito, Bozeman, Young and Meurs (2007) discussed OCB, while Martin and

Hafer (1995) and Kazlauskaite, Buciuiniene and Turauskas (2006) discussed turnover. Turnover as a result of low organizational commitment has different consequences and negative costs. Replacing, training, developing and processing card costs for returning and returning employees can be saved if the turnover rate is low. Rotation has an impact on employee attitudes and increases the direct supervision of new employees (Dalton & Todor, 1982). Furthermore, it was found that rotation was a barrier to maintaining a strong relationship between the client and the organization (Brownell & Reynolds, 2002). For example, if the guest were assisted by the same people every time they registered, they would enjoy a "home away from home".

Rotation is one of the major problems of human resources that the hospitality sector has suffered (Enz, 2001). The estimated turnover rate of the industry in general was calculated at 48.36% (AH and LA, 2004). Every investment in human capital becomes a waste of money if the volume of business is high. Cost savings result from hiring part-time employees to offset the high cost of turnover (Senter and Martin, 2007). The importance of studying rotation as part of the organizational commitment is just starting to be recognized. Few studies have compared full-time and part-time employees in regard to turnover due to low organizational commitment (Goslinga and Sverke, 2003; Maynard et al., 2006; Ng, Butts, Vandenberg, DeJoy and Wilson, 2006); Peters, Jackofsky & Salter, 1981; Wotruba, 1990;). The results for billing other fields are lacking in consistency. Ng *et al.* (2006), Maynard et al. (2006) and Thorsteinson (2003) found that there were no significant differences between full-time workers and part-time workers in organizational engagement. Wotruba (1990) found

that there is a significant difference between full-time and part-time workers

Bennett et al. (1994) and Smulders (1993) reported no relationship between job status and absenteeism when other factors were checked. Other studies suggest that variables such as marital status and participation in work moderate the relationship between job status and abstinence attitudes and behaviors (Lane, Mathews, & Prestholt, 1990, Werbel, 1985) or that the occupational status moderates the relationship between intentions of rotation and behavior (e.g., Peters, Jackofsky and Salter, 1981). Clearly, previous research is misleading with respect to differences in the working status in the attitudes and behavior of the organization. One of the reasons for this misunderstanding is that much of this research defines the status of part-time work only because of the number of hours worked by the employees each week. As McGinnis and Morrow (1990) suggest, "making full-time verses work only in terms of the number of hours worked may be too simplistic if we want to fully understand how and why part-time workers differ from full-time employees" (p 95). Feldman (1990) has argued that there are several sub-groups of part-time employees and that researchers should focus on the differences between part-time workers based on different work modalities. He suggested that work arrangements can be organized into five basic dimensions:

(1) permanent vs temporary, (2) organization hired vs agency hired, (3) year-round vs seasonal, (4) main job vs second job, and (5) voluntary vs involuntary.

Feldman also suggested that people gravitate around different types of working arrangements and, as a result, that sub-groups of part-time employees have different perceptual maps and frame of reference for

attitude variables such as engagement. Feldman and Doeringhaus (1992) tested Feldman's (1990) assertions with surveys in five organizations and found demographic and perceptive differences between subgroups of part-time employees. Their findings also indicated that part-time workers use part-time workers in the same organization as equity benchmarks. Other research evidence also implies systematic differences among part-time workers under various labor agreements.

## 2.4.1 Studies Job performance

Marchese and Ryan (2001) noted some differences between full-time workers and those working part-time in work performance. Full-time employees had a higher level of performance. Another study showed no significant differences between full-time and part-time workers in terms of performance (Wotruba, 1990). In terms of OCB, Organ (1988) mentioned five categories that fit the aforementioned definition of extra-role behavior. These five dimensions are altruism, courtesy, sportiness, civic virtue and conscientiousness. These categories are the OCB dimensions most used in research (González and Garazo, 2006, LePine et al, 2002).

## 2.5 Studies on work status

In the United States, part-time employees account for 20% of the workforce and represent over 22 million employees in 2001 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2001), where the percentage has almost doubled in the last 40 years (Feldman, 1995). Organizations have turned to part-time employees to provide greater scheduling flexibility, meet market demands more efficiently and reduce wage and benefits costs. In addition, part-time employees represent an important part of the workforce for entire industries, such as services and retail, and part-time work is dominated by some groups, such as women and young workers and older workers

(Feldman, 1990). While part-time workforce is clearly important in terms of size and utility, the organization's researchers lag behind in their understanding of the part-time work relationship and our understanding of the psychological experience of part-time work remains. Limited time It is recognized that part-time workers are demographically different from full-time employees, but the degree of divergence between workplace attitudes is less clear. The dominant approach taken by researchers seeking to understand part-time work is to assess differences in attitude and behavior between part-time employees and full-time employees (Barling and Gallagher, 1996). If job satisfaction is different through work status, for example, it has been an unresolved problem since the first studies (for example, Hall & Gordon, 1973, Logan, O'Reilly and Roberts, 1973) to the most recent (Fenton O 'Creevy , 1995, Krausz, 2000, Morrow, McElroy and Elliott, 1994, Sinclair, Martin and Michel, 1999).

Existing research has focused mainly on the relationship between employment status and job satisfaction and commitment, although some studies have considered other relationships, such as employment status and organizational climate (e.g., McGinnis and Morrow, 1990), participation in the work (for example, Wetzel, Soloshy and Gallagher, 1990) and of characteristic jobs (for example, Eberhardt and Shani, 1984). Studies comparing job satisfaction between part-time and full-time employees show contradictory results (Barling and Gallagher, 1996, Jackofsky and Peters, 1987, McGinnis and Morrow, 1990, Wetzel et al., 1990). Part-time employees have been found to be more satisfied (Eberhardt & Shani, 1984 Fenton O'Creevy 1995 Fields & Thacker, 1991 Jackofsky & Peters, 1987, Roberts, Glick and Rothchford 1982, Sinclair et al 1999, Wotruba, 1990), the least satisfied (Hall

and Gordon, 1973; Miller and Terborg, 1979), and equally satisfied with their work compared to full-time employees (Krausz, 2000; Logan et al, 1973; Steffy & Jones, 1990; Old, 1984).

Previous studies have found that part-time employees are faced with problems of communication with the organization and continuity of work relationships (for example, Feldman, 1995, Godfrey, 1980, Sidaway & Wareing, 1992). The reduction of communication and the discontinuity of the interaction can influence the promises of communication. If employees perceive fewer promises between themselves and the organization, then the probability of perceiving a violation is reduced. As for the clarity of the promises, ambiguous promises could lead to inconsistency correlated with the conditions of the psychological contract worker in which the inconsistency is considered an important factor for employees who receive promises and broken commitments (Lewis-McClea & Taylor, 1997, Morrison and Robinson, 1997) .T. W. Lee and Johnson (1991) provided additional reasons for studying the possible differences between part-time and full-time employees, although there are differences between part-time and full-time employees, existing theories can be considered for these differences and may require different managerial practices for each group.

As noted by Miller and Terborg (1979), if there are significant differences between part-time employees and full-time employees, future research should differentiate between the two groups. It is also important to discuss the need to understand the basic theoretical basis for the expected differences between part-time and full-time employees (Feldman, 1990, Rotchford and Roberts, 1982). Thorsteinson (2003) has identified four possible theoretical reasons that the researchers cited to



explain the differences between part-time and full-time workers: reference structure, demographic differences, adjusting the person's approach to the employment relationship and the theory of partial inclusion. According to Thorsteinson (2003), the explanation of the frame of reference is based freely on the theory of equity. If you compare part-time employees with full-time employees, you may be more dissatisfied than comparing with other part-time employees.

Senter and Martin (2007) have suggested that understanding different types of employment helps managers better meet the needs of workers and thus helps reduce turnover and increase job satisfaction. The results will help managers apply different strategies to improve job satisfaction in both groups and other outcomes. Different levels of inclusion as the reason behind the differences observed between part-time and full-time employees (Feldman, 1990; Katerberg et al., 1979; Martin and Hafer 1995; Miller and Terborg., 1979; Peters et al., 1981; Tansky et al., 1997; Wetzel et al., 1990). Partial inclusion was first identified by Allport (1933) and was defined by Clinebell (1987) as "the extent to which individuals perceive themselves as part of the daily activities of the organization" (p.5). Miller and Terborg (1979) suggested that perhaps the differences in work attitudes between part-time and full-time employees are not intrinsically due to the state's part-time respondents, but because part-time employees had higher levels. Poor inclusion Logan et al. (1973) used different levels of inclusion as an explanation of the different frameworks for part-time and full-time employees, which could explain the differences in the pattern of job satisfaction found. Peters et al. (1981) have suggested that the inclusion of different levels could lead to a different psychology of work among part-time employees than full-time employees.

Feldman (1990) requested a survey on the influence of inclusion in the working attitudes of part-time employees. Although inclusion has often been suggested as an important construction to consider when addressing the problem of full-time and part-time employees, it has not been empirically tested in studies that have suggested it as a post hoc explanation of related outcomes with part-time and full-time employees. Thorsteinson (2003) stressed that future research should focus on verifying the suggested underlying theoretical explanations, such as partial inclusion. Feldman and Doeringhaus (1992b) found evidence that most part-time employees use part-time employees as employees. Eberhardt and Moser (1995) found that about half of part-time employees used part-time employees as referents, while the other half was compared to full-time employees. The explanation of the demographic difference refers to the differences between sex and age between part-time and full-time employees who have a higher proportion of women and young and old (Nardone, 1986, Thorsteinson, 2003). A difficulty in exploring the feasibility of this explanation is that many studies do not control demographic differences.

Two population-controlled studies found no difference between part-time and full-time employees (Vecchio, 1983) or found a difference only in participation in work between part-time and full-time employees (McGinnis and Morrow, 1990). The adjustment per person-work examines whether the employee's working status is preferable or not (Thorsteinson, 2003).

Partial inclusion is considered to explain the possible differences between part-time and full-time employees, as part-time workers are less present in the workplace and cannot be included in work activities in the same way as full-time employees.

Job Satisfaction and Employee Performance Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as the pleasurable

emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values. Lai Wan (2007) stated that job satisfaction is an important goal for organizations to reach, as it has shown that profitability, productivity, employee retention and customer satisfaction are linked to job satisfaction of employees. Studies show that job satisfaction is influenced by various factors. In 2010, Amzat and Idris stated that employees who receive low salaries usually cause serious upheavals, with regard to job satisfaction, across the world. According to Noordin and Jusoff (2009), salary, status, and age affect academic staff's job satisfaction in Malaysian universities. Santhapparaj and Alam's (2005) study among 173 academics of a private university in Malaysia indicates that pay, promotion, working conditions and support of research have a positive and significant effect on the university academics' job satisfaction. Khalid, Irshad, & Mahmood (2012) indicates that a positive and healthy university structure increases the university academics' job satisfaction and improves the learning environment as well as increases university productivity. However, in their study, it is concluded that private university academics are more satisfied in terms of pay, supervision, and promotional opportunities, compared to public universities, while public university academics are more satisfied in terms of co-workers' behaviour and job security.

## **Perceived Stress**

Stress can have very negative effects on organizational behavior and an individual's health. Stress is positively related to absenteeism, turnover, coronary heart disease, and viral infections. According to Linda Rosenstock, director of the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, stress at work has been increasing because of the widespread downsizing of corporate America in recent years. She believes that 25% to 33% of the

workforce is under high stress and is drained and used up by the end of a workday. In addition, people are working more hours. For example, the average number of hours Americans work (47 hours per week) has increased by 8% between 1998 and 1999—20% of the workforce works at least 49 hours per week.

## **2.6 Critique**

Too often, the state of work (for example, part-time, full-time) is not one of the variables that have had consideration in organizational research. The results are often generalized to all employees, regardless of the convenience of generalizing from one type of employee to another. Given the increasing role of part-time employees in organizations and in management decisions and actions, which can be based on full-time research workers, it is appropriate to address the question of whether there are significant differences between part-time and employed employees full time in the interest for organizational research. Although it is a post hoc explanation often cited for the differences between part-time and full-time employees, it has not been studied empirically.

Many researchers have studied employee performance. These studies did not distinguish between full-time and part-time workers. Rotchford and Roberts (1982) called the part-time workers the missing person in organizational research. They are really missing people in terms of traditional work performance and OCB. In fact, little research has been done to compare full-time and part-time employees in terms of work performance and OCB (Marches and Ryan, 2001, Mayfield and Mayfield, 2006, Stamper and Van Dyne, 2003, Wotruba, 1990).

McClellan & Taylor, 1997, Morrison and Robinson, 1997) .T. W. Lee and Johnson (1991) provided additional reasons for studying the possible

differences between part-time and full-time employees, although there are differences between part-time and full-time employees, existing theories can be considered for these differences and may require different managerial practices for each group.

This chapter reviewed the studies that were performed using part-time employees and the full-time variables on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance, the differences between part-time and full-time employees and it was ended with the criticism of the literature.

This chapter further shows the theoretical and conceptual structure of the study. A number of theoretical models and concepts in line with work status, performance, satisfaction and commitment are considered. Miles and Huberman (1994) affirm that a conceptual structure tries to explain graphically or narratively the main aspects to be studied, i.e the key factors, the constructs or the variables and the presumed relationship between them.

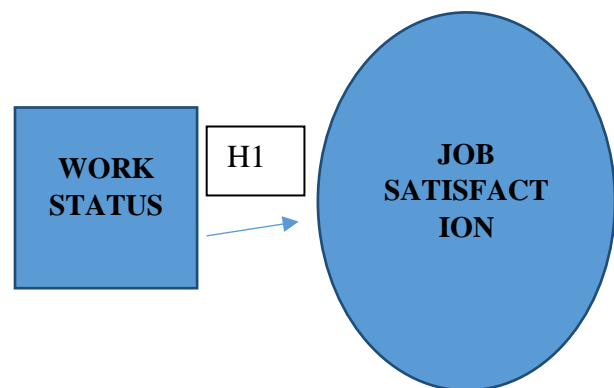
## 2.7 Theoretical framework

### Partial Inclusion Theory

The PIT concept proposes that individuals have multiple roles in various social systems (Katz and Kahn, 1978), which indicates that part-time employees may not be included to the extent that full-time employees are in the organization. The theory recognizes that employees can be involved in many work and non-work situations that compete for their time, effort and energy (Katz and Kahn, 1978). Because part-time employees spend less time and effort at work than their full-time counterparts, they are less included in the focal organization. Moreover, due to the lack of participation of part-time employees in the organization, part-time

employees tend to be less involved, satisfied and committed than their full-time employees (Martin and Hafer, 1995). Thorsteinson's meta-analysis (2003) supported the notion of PIT that the proposed part-time employees had less work participation than full-time employees.

**Fig 2.8.1: Conceptual Model**



(Source: Author, 2019)

Ng *et al.* (2006), Maynard *et al.* (2006) and Thorsteinson (2003) found that there were no significant differences between full-time workers and part-time workers in organizational engagement. Wotruba (1990) found that there is a significant difference between full-time and part-time workers

Full-time employees have a greater rate of turnover. On the other hand, Hakim (1998) stated that the turnover rate among part-time workers is higher than that of full-time workers. To reduce the costly turnover among employees, it would be helpful for managers to know which type of job is most vulnerable to rotation. The results will contribute to the existing knowledge of the differences between full-time and part-time employees in terms of organizational commitment. The affective organizational commitment is the psychological construct most commonly associated with the work

relationship. This refers dependent emotional attachment with the organization employs and is marked by the congruence and identification of the perceived value to the organization and the willingness to tend to it and the desire to remain member of the organization (Meyer and Allen 1984 1997; Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1982). Most research efforts are based on the theory of social exchange (for example, Blau, 1964; Homans, 1974), suggesting that organizational attitudes and behaviors are partly based on reciprocity for the good or inadequate treatment by the organization (Levison, 1965). Because the commitment reflects the quality of the employer-employee relationship it is not surprising that the busier workers tend to report higher levels of health and well-being (Begley & Czajka, 1993; Meyer and Allen, 1997), have higher rates. low absenteeism and turnover intentions (Matheiu and Zajac, 1990; Tett and Meyer, 1993) perform their tasks more effectively (Mayer and Schoorman, 1992; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin and Jackson, 1989), and more likely to participate positively organizational citizenship behaviors (Hunt and Morgan, 1994; Shore and Wayne, 1993). Commitment and other occupational attitude constructs play a central role in our understanding of the psychological effects of relationships between employees and employers. However, previous research suggests considerable ambiguity about differences in the working status in work attitudes.

Some studies indicate that full-time employees are more committed to their organization than part-time workers (Lee & Johnson, 1991, Martin and Hafer, 1995), but others report that there are no differences in commitment (McGinnis and Morrow, 1990; Shockey & Mueller, 1994). Job satisfaction research indicates differences in work status in aspects of satisfaction, but the direction of these differences is

not clear (for example, Bennett, Carson, Carson and Blum, 1994, Eberhardt and Shani, 1984, Lee and Johnson, 1991, Levanoni & Sales, 1989). Logan, O'Reilly and Roberts, 1973; Miller and Terborg, 1979).

## 2.10 Summary of Chapter

This chapter reviewed previous studies that were conducted on part-time and full-time employees on the variables of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance, the differences between part-time and full-time employees and the critique of the literature. This chapter has brought out theories underpinning the study. In relation with other theories, partial inclusion theory, equity theory, job embeddedness theory and social exchange theory have been discussed in detail. Furthermore, the conceptual framework of the study has been developed and the hypotheses have been outlined. The next chapter will outline the methodology that was used to provide answers to the research questions in line with the research objectives.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter analyzes the methodology on how the data and other relevant information for the study were collected and analyzed in order to achieve the research objectives. It will examine the research design used, the target population, sampling procedures, data collection and methods of analysis.

#### 3.2 Research Design

The research design that was employed is descriptive research design. This is a Research design in which the major emphasis is on determining the frequency with which something occurs or the extent to which

two variables covary. This implies that both qualitative and quantitative research designs were used. Quantitative research is the process of investigating and explaining different concepts and theories based on variables and drawing results in the form of numeric data by applying different statistical operations. On the other hand, a qualitative research is the process of developing relationships between complicated concepts and situations of interest which happens in natural settings and then drawing meanings from those relationships. Under quantitative method a structured questionnaire was used together with face to face interviews with managers and hotel employees. The main reason for adopting this approach was to ensure that information collected using one design is complimented by the other. Further qualitative research helps to provide insight into issues and provides an opportunity for the researcher to make follow-up questions.

### 3.3 Population and sample design

#### 3.3.1. Study Population

McMillan and Schumacher (1997) have defined a population as a representative of all those belonging to the category of interest or objects or events that meet specific criteria and for which we intend to generalize the results of the research. The research comprised of hotel personnel from selected hotels within Lusaka district because they were expected to provide relevant information to the problem under study. This study had a target population of 171.

#### 3.3.2. Sample Size

Sampling is very cardinal whether the researcher wishes to use questionnaires, interviews, observation or some other data collection techniques. Although in some cases a researcher

can have access to data collection for the entire population, the total cost may prevent that. Sampling helps the researcher save time and facilitate data control (Lewis and Saunders 2003). This study made use of simple random sampling. The response rate from the sample under investigation was expected to be satisfactory. Using the formula adopted from Minda (2016), the sample size was calculated as follows;

$$n = \frac{N}{(1 + N(e^2))}$$

Where n = sample size, N= population e= level of significance = 0.05

$$n = \frac{171}{(1 + 171(0.05^2))}$$

$$n = 119.79 = 120$$

Therefore, this study used a sample size of 120

### 3.4 Types and sources of data

#### 3.4.1 Primary data

Primary data refers to first hand data collected specifically for the research being conducted. The researcher collected primary data through going to the field.

#### 3.4.2 Secondary data

This was mainly collected from the published and unpublished literature related to the topic and from various journals and research papers particularly available on the internet pertaining to the topic of research.

### 3.5 Data presentation and analysis

Data analysis involves analyzing the collected data. The data collected through the questionnaires were tabulated and converted into frequencies and percentages using frequency tables and interpreted



accordingly. Statistical methods were also used in data analysis. The methods used were correlation and linear regression analysis. This method was used to answer the research hypothesis. These hypotheses were designed to help respond to research goals. This was done using the SPSS software package (statistical package for social sciences). It was used to summarize the data in the frequency tables and also to know the relationship between the dependent variable (job satisfaction, organization commitment and work performance) and the independent variable (working status).

### 3.6 Validity and reliability

The goal of the study was to get answers from all the selected respondents. The research assistants turned to the individual interviewees and made sure that no one was influenced by another or someone who knew what the other respondents were sending. All that was submitted was for academic purposes only and was never used for purposes other than the original purpose. The reliability analysis is used to establish both the consistency and stability of the research instrument. Consistency shows how well the research instrument measures the model and the conceptual framework. Cronbach's alpha is a coefficient that indicates how well the items in a set are positively or negatively correlated to one another. A test is considered reliable if the same results are gotten repeatedly. Cronbach's alpha is computed in terms of the average intercorrelations among the items measuring the concept.

### 3.7 Ethical consideration

The study was conducted using some ethical considerations and each respondent was informed about the purpose and objective of the study prior to the administration of the questionnaires. After explaining the objective of the study, respondents

were assured of anonymity and confidentiality before being administered with the questionnaire.

### 3.8 Chapter summary

This chapter described the methodology used to conduct this survey. It presented the various methodologies that could be adopted for research purposes. The chapter presented aspects of the chosen methodology and its justification. Some aspects of the methodology were discussed, including population, sampling method and data collection tools. The chapter also presented an explanation on how the research problem was studied and described the tools that were used to conduct the research. It further explained what has been done, justified the design of the research and explained how the results were analyzed. The next chapter presents the results and the discussion of the results.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESEARCH FINDINGS AND PRESENTATION

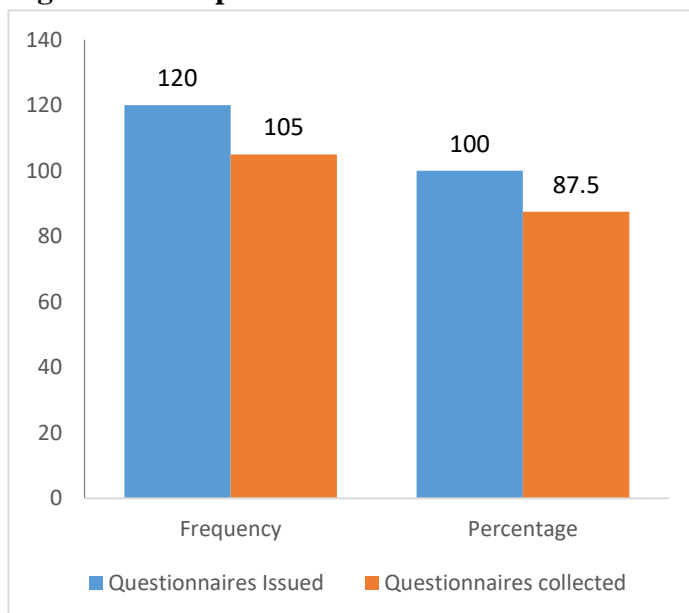
#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter analyzes, interprets and presents data obtained from research results based on research objectives. It is based on the demographic and objectives of the survey. The information in this chapter was obtained mainly through questionnaires which were issued although not all of them were returned. The first section presents the results in the demographic profile of the interviewees. The second section presents the results on the effect of the work status on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and work performance in the hospitality sector in Zambia.

## 4.2 Response Rate

During the administration of the research questionnaire, it was not possible to reach all 120 respondents selected in the sample frame to receive the questionnaires. Total questionnaires collected, numbered 105, but it was sufficient to draw adequate conclusions to achieve the objectives specified in chapter one. For the 15 that have not been reached, general observations have been made to arrive at adequate conclusions to support the results.

**Figure 4.2: Response rate**



Source: Field Survey (2018)

Therefore, 105 respondents who participated in the study gave the 87.5% study response rate as shown in Figure 5.1 above.

## 4.3 Demographic characteristics of the respondents

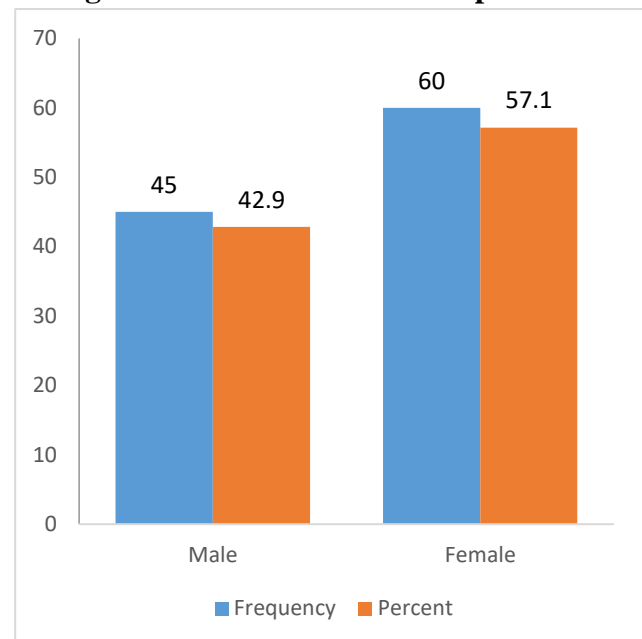
The sample size for the survey was 105 respondents from selected hotels and lodges. The respondent's demographic group included the following as a data set; marital status, gender, age, staff category and

educational level of respondents. It is important to emphasise that this was an exploratory study that attempted to highlight areas for future research. Therefore, this study only highlights the various perceptions amongst the employees of the hospitality in Zambia. An attempt was made to select the sample in such a way as to be broadly representative of the demographics of the Zambian hospitality industry population as a whole. The sample size for the study was acceptable and this area represents a heterogeneous population.

### 4.3.1 Gender of the respondents

The study sought to find out the gender characteristics of respondents. The results in Figure 5.2 show that there are more women than men in the study.

**Figure 4.3.1: Gender of the respondents**



Source: Field survey (2018)

The study found that there were 45 men interviewed representing 42.9% with 60 women surveyed representing 57.1%. This shows that the study was not influenced by gender bias in any way.

### 4.3.2 Age of the respondents

The study sought to find out the age distribution of respondents. Table 4.3.2 below shows the findings in this regard.

**Table 4.3.2: Age groups of respondents**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 18-25 years old	35	33.3	33.3
26-35 years old	19	18.1	51.4
36 years old and above	51	48.6	100.0
Total	105	100.0	

Source: Field survey (2018)

Table 5.1 above shows the distribution of respondents in relation to age, most of the respondents were over 36 years old. The study found that 35 of the respondents were between 18 -25 years representing 33.3% of the respondents. Secondly, there were 19 respondents who were 26 – 35 years representing 18.1% of the total number of respondents. Lastly, there were 51 respondents who were 36 years old or older and represented 48.6% of the total respondents.

### 4.3.3 Marital status of the respondents

The study sought to find out the marital status of the respondents. Table 4.3.3 below shows the findings in this regard.

**Table 5.1: Age groups of respondents**

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Single	38	36.2	36.2
Married	67	63.8	100.0
Total	105	100.0	

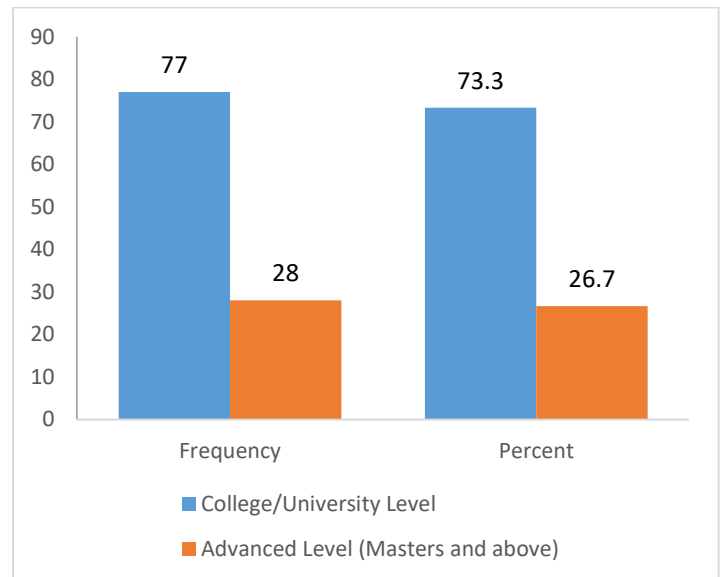
Source: Field survey (2018)

Table 4.3.3 shows the distribution of respondents in relation to marital status, most of the respondents were married. The study found that 38 of the respondents were single who represented 36.2% of the respondents and that there were 67 respondents who were married, representing 63.8% of the total respondents.

### 4.3.4 Education level of the respondents

The study under this theme sought to find out the education level of respondents. Figure 4.3.4 shows that most of the respondents had diploma level education as their highest level of education.

**Figure 5.1: Education level of respondents**



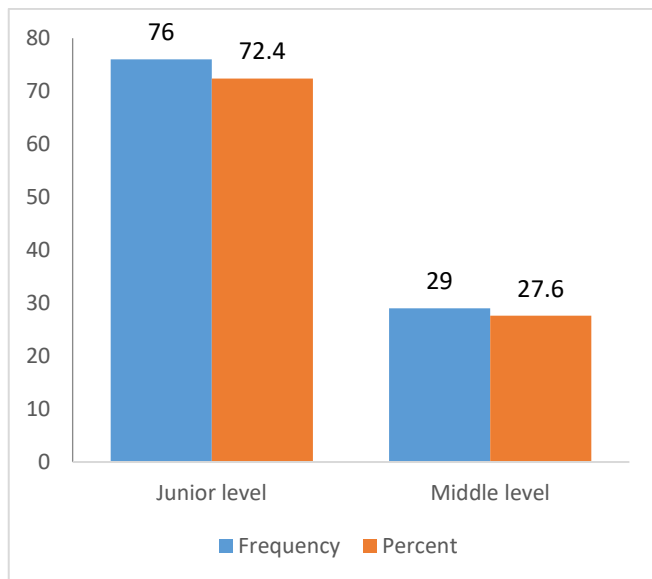
Source: Field survey (2018)

Figure 4.3.4 shows, 73.33 % of the respondents possess college/university level education, while 26.67% of the respondents possess advanced level (masters and above). The majority of the members of the respondents possess college/university level education this implies that the respondents are knowledgeable and educated.

### 4.3.5 Staff category of the respondents

The study sought to find out the staff category of respondents. Figure 4.3.5 shows that most of the respondents had diploma level education as their highest level of education.

**Figure 4.3.5: Staff category of respondents**



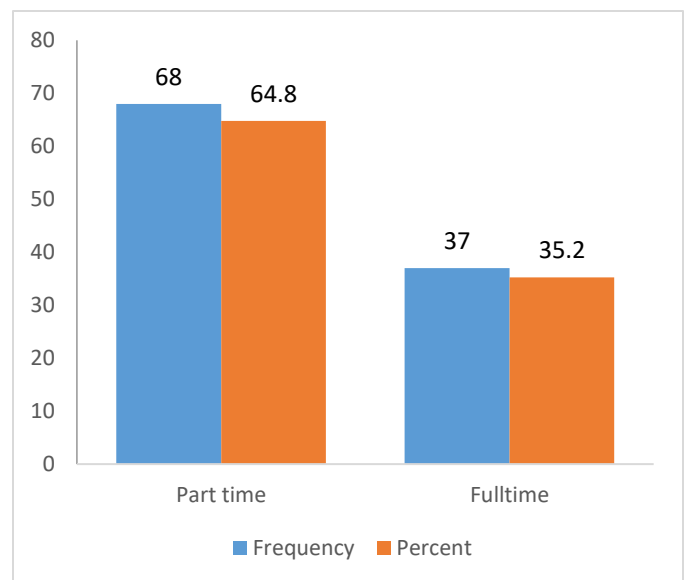
Source: Field survey (2018)

Figure 4.3.5 shows that, 72.38 % of the respondents of staff category is at middle level, while 27.62 % of the respondent's staff category is at junior level.

### 4.3.6 Work status of the respondents

The study under this theme sought to find out the work status of respondents. Figure 5.5 shows that most of the respondents had diploma level education as their highest level of education.

**Figure 4.3.6: work status of respondents**



Source: Field survey (2018)

Findings in figure 5.5 above shows that there were 68 respondents whose work status is part time, this therefore, represented 64.8% of the total number of respondents and this formed the majority. The study also found that there were 37 respondents whose work status is at full time representing 35.2% of the respondents.

### 4.4 Analysis of major findings

This section shows the descriptive analysis of the results, including statistics based on the data collected from the respondents. The Likert scale was used to determine the answers that were obtained by the respondents in this case, the employees of the various hotels and lodges that participated in the study. The variables were measured using a Likert 1-5 scale; Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2) Neutral (3), Agree (4) And Strongly Agree (5). Therefore, items with mean values significantly above 3 implied that, on average, respondents agreed / strongly agreed with the statements. Similarly, items with mean values significantly lower than 3 implied

that, on average, the respondents did not agree / totally disagree with the statements.

The mean, standard deviation and asymmetry were calculated for all the variables and, based on the results of the study, the mean value ranged from the minimum 1.62 to the maximum 3.32, while the standard deviation was measured between the minimum of 0.618 and the maximum of 1.245.

This section shows the descriptive analysis of the findings including the statistics based on the collected data from the respondents. The Likert scale was used to determine the responses that were collected from the respondents in this case the employees at the various hotels and lodges that participated in the study. The variables were measured using a 1-5 Likert scale; Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2) Neutral (3), Agree (4) and Strongly Agree (5). Therefore, items with mean values significantly greater than 3 implied that on average the respondents agreed/ strongly agreed to the statements. Likewise, items with mean values significantly below 3 implied that on average the respondents disagreed/ strongly disagreed to the statements.

The mean, standard deviation and skewness for all the variables were calculated and according to the study results, the mean value was between the minimum 1.62 and the maximum 3.32, while the standard deviation was measured between the minimum 0.618 and the maximum 1.245.

#### 4.4.1 Job Satisfaction

The study sought to find out if there is job satisfaction among the respondents. Table 4.4.1 shows the results with regard to job satisfaction at the various hotels and lodges.

**Table 4.4.1: Job satisfaction**

SN	Item	Mean	SD	Skewness
JS1	Are you satisfied with the aspects of your job?	2.6762	1.03306	.795
JS2	Do you get the sense of achievement from your work?	3.1714	.87109	.191
JS3	Are you given the opportunity of using your own initiative in your job?	3.1333	.98123	.038
JS4	Are you satisfied with the amount of influence you have in your job?	3.2095	.95771	-.167
JS5	Are you satisfied with the amount of pay you receive?	3.0381	.90855	.159
JS6	Are you satisfied with your job security?	3.1810	.93830	.198

Source: Field Survey (2018)

#### 4.4.2 Organizational commitment

The study sought to find out if there is job commitment among the respondents. Table 4.4.2 shows the results with regard to organizational commitment at the various hotels and lodges.



**Table 4.4.2: Organization commitment**

	Item	Mean	SD	Skewness
OC1	I share many of the values of my organization?	3.6000	.96676	-.614
OC2	I feel loyal to my organization?	3.5524	.99982	-.471
OC3	I am proud to tell people i work for this organization?	3.5143	1.00110	-.655
OC4	I want to spend my career within the organization?	3.5619	1.05542	-.541

Source: Field Survey (2018)

Results in table 5.3 show that employees share the values of their organizations as noted by the average response which came out to be 3.6 indicating agreement with the statement ‘I share many of the values of my organization’. Secondly, the study sought to find out as to whether the employees of the organizations feel loyal to their organizations. The study found that employees feel loyal to their organizations as established by the mean which came out to be 3.55. thirdly, the study found that the employees are proud to tell people what organization they work for and that they want to spend their careers in their organizations, this is shown by the average responses which came out to be 3.51 and 3.56 respectively.

#### 4.4.3 Job performance

The study sought to find out the level of job performance among the respondents. Table 4.4.3 shows the results with regard to job performance at the various hotels and lodges.

**Table 4.4.3: Job performance**

SN	Item	Mean	SD	Skewness
JP1	I know what is expected of me at my job?	3.6571	.84157	-.954
JP2	I am able to do what I do best every day?	3.4381	.92947	-.402
JP3	I am able to do my best every day?	3.4571	.89902	-.314
JP4	I have confidence and skill to tackle unexpected events?	3.6571	.79456	-.708
JP5	I work efficiently and effectively in my work?	3.4571	.94083	-.686

Source: Field Survey (2018)

Results in table 5.5 show that employees know what is expected of them at their job as noted by the mean which came out to be 3.66 indicating agreement to the statement ‘I know what is expected of me at my job’. Secondly, the study sought to find out if the respondents are able to do what they do best every day. Thirdly, the study found that employees are able to do what they do best every day and that employees have confidence and skills to tackle unexpected events as established by the means which came out to be 3.66 and 3.46 respectively. The study found that respondents work efficiently and effectively in their own work as established by the average response which came out to be 3.46.

## 4.5 Quantitative analysis and hypotheses testing

This study used both regression and Pearson's correlation analyses to evaluate the relationship between the dependent variables and the

### 4.5.1 Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Testing

Cronbach's Alpha is designed as a measure of the internal coherence of the elements in the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha measures the internal consistency of a scale. It represents the degree to which the elements of the instrument are homogeneous and reflect the same underlying constructs. However, researchers should strive for alphas of 0.70 or more (Bohrstedt and Knoke, 1994). As the underlying data show that all scales are reliable and consistent.

The data collected from the 105 valid or completed questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS 22 and the results of the data analysis are presented. The total number of questions or elements in the questionnaire is 21, which included 16 test variables or Likert scale variables and 6 elements related to demographic variables

**Table 4.5.1: Cronbach's Alpha-Reliability Test**

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.871	21

Source: Author using SPSS v22

Cronbach's alpha test was performed to verify the reliability of the questions or articles. The table above shows different results obtained. The Cronbach alpha test was performed, which produced a general score of 0.871, indicating the internal consistency of the articles.

independent variables. The study conducted some diagnostic tests to ensure that results are not biased. This involved the measure of internal consistency of the questionnaire, sampling adequacy and validity.

### 4.5.2 KMO and Bartlett's test for sampling adequacy and validity

KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) and the Bartlett test: this test is used to measure the suitability and validity of the sampling, which also decides the need to perform a factor analysis. Subsequently, several hypothesis tests were performed using Pearson's regression and correlation analysis.

**Table 4.5.2: KMO and Bartlett's Test**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.795
Bartlett's Approx. Chi-Square Test of Sphericity	1312.692
Df	210
Sig.	.000

Source: Author using SPSS v22

The convergence of the elements in eleven different factors shows that there is evidence of the validity of the articles. The external validity of the study is improved by the adoption of a random sampling procedure in a multifaceted way. Initially, the total sample size required for this study is measured based on the measurement model in a normal distribution. According to Table 5.11, the Bartlett sphericity test (sig = 0.000, df = 210) was significant, indicating that there were sufficient correlations between the variables. The value of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) of 0.795 exceeded the minimum recommended value of 0.50 established by Kaiser (1970). This meant that the sample was adequate and that the data set had a very high ratio between respondents and variables. The fulfillment of these criteria has supported the bias of the correlation matrix.

### 4.5.3 Correlation analysis and hypothesis testing

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (or Pearson correlation coefficient for short) is a measure of the strength of a linear association between two variables and is denoted by  $r$ . The Pearson correlation coefficient  $r$ , can take a range of values from +1 to -1. A value of 0 indicates that there is no association between the two variables. As cited in Wong and Hiew (2005), the correlation coefficient value ( $r$ ) range from 0.10 to 0.29 is considered weak, from 0.30 to 0.49 is considered medium and from 0.50 to 1.0 is considered strong. Correlation matrix on impacts of work status on Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance are as shown below.

**Table 4.5.3: Correlation matrix**

Correlation matrix (Pearson):

Variables	Work status	Job satisfaction	Organizational commitment	Job performance
Work status	<b>1</b>			
Job satisfaction	<b>0.7260</b>	<b>1</b>		
Organizational commitment	<b>0.4745</b>	<b>0.1834</b>	<b>1</b>	
Job performance	<b>0.3775</b>	<b>0.2679</b>	<b>0.4169</b>	<b>1</b>

*Output significance level alpha=0.05*

### Hypothesis 1

$H_0$ : There is no difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job satisfaction.

**Table 4.5.4: Model summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	<b>.835<sub>a</sub></b>	<b>.698</b>	<b>.584</b>	<b>.9761</b>

Source: Author 2018

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance

$H_1$ : There is a difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job satisfaction.

**Table 4.5.1: Logistic regression coefficients**

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.					
	B	Std. Error	Beta							
1	(Constant)		1.700	2.413	.704	.501				
	Job satisfaction	.187					.092	.481	2.028	.077
	Organizational commitment	.556					.184	1.265	3.015	.017
Job performance	.001	.000	1.377	3.331	.010	.010				

Source: Author 2018

a. Dependent Variable: Work Status

The correlation coefficient was found to be 0.7260 which shows that is a difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job satisfaction. The p-value of 0.000 entails we reject the null hypothesis since this was below significance level  $p \geq 0.05$  and adopt the alternative and we conclude that we are 95 percent confident that there

is a difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job satisfaction.

This is in line with Thorsteinson, (2003) who did a study on job satisfaction and found that there is a difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job satisfaction. The findings are also in line with Noel (2006) who also found that there is a difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job satisfaction.

#### 4.5.4 Logistic regression Analysis

A logistic regression test was performed with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance as independent variables. The dependent variable was in this case, work status. The results show that there was a significant relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

#### 4.5.5 ANOVA Test

**Table 4.5.5: ANOVA test**

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	12.952	6	2.159	6.877	.000 <sup>b</sup>
Residual	93.538	298	.314		
Total	106.490	304			

Source: Author 2018

a. Dependent Variable: (Work status)

b. Predictors: (Constant), Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance

The ANOVA table 4.5.5 indicates that the model was significant ( $F = 8.418$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Furthermore, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance were significantly related to work status.

#### 4.5.6 Interpretation of regression results

The goodness of fit (coefficient of determination) of 69.8% shows that *ceteris Paribas*, work status was 69.8% correctly explained by independent variables in the model holding other things constant. This implies that the model was overall a good fit and independently was correctly selected as supported by the adjusted R squared of 58.4% which implies that even after adjusting the model for abnormalities, the model was still significant and had a good fit.

As noted by the table above, the regression model shows that all the independent variables were significant at 5% level of significance. Work status was significantly and positively related to job satisfaction, the positive sign on the coefficient estimate indicates that an increase in work status led to an increase in job satisfaction. Career switching was significantly and positively related to work status. The positive sign on the coefficient estimate indicates that an increase in work status led to an increase in the organizational commitment and job performance.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a summary of the findings, conclusion and present recommendations of the study based on the objectives of the study which was to determine the impact of work status on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance in the hospitality industry in Zambia.

A descriptive sample survey was used to conduct the study. This is because the study was intended to measure the opinions of respondents on the subject. The simple random sampling technique was used respectively to select the respondents for the study. In total, 105 respondents were selected.

The research tool used in the collection of data was a questionnaire and an interview. To guide the study, the following research objectives were established.

- i. To determine the difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job satisfaction in Zambia.
- ii. To determine the difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their organizational commitment in Zambia.
- iii. To determine the difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job performance in Zambia.

#### 5.2 Summary of findings

##### 5.2.1 Job satisfaction

The study found that the employees are not satisfied with the aspects of their current job and that the employees have a sense of achievement from their work. The study further found that the employees

are given the opportunity of using their own initiative in their jobs and the study also sought to find out as to whether the employees are satisfied with the pay they receive from their work, the study found that the employees were not sure as to whether they were satisfied with the pay they receive from their work. The study however found that the employees were satisfied with their job security. The correlation coefficient was found to be 0.7260 which shows that there is a difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job satisfaction.

##### 5.2.2 Organizational commitment

The findings of this study show that employees share the values of their organizations and that employees feel loyal to their organizations. The study found that the employees are proud to tell people what organization they work for and that they want to spend their careers in their organizations. The correlation coefficient was found to be 0.7260 which shows that is a difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job satisfaction.

##### 5.2.3 Job performance

Findings show that employees know what is expected of them at their job and that respondents are able to do what they do best every day. The study found that employees are able to do what they do best every day and that employees have confidence and skills to tackle unexpected events. The study found that respondents work efficiently and effectively on their own. The correlation coefficient was found to be 0.38 which shows that there is a difference between full-time and part-time hotel employees regarding their job performance.



## 5.3 Conclusion

The aim of this research was to determine the impact of work status on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance in the hospitality industry in Zambia. The findings from the normality tests revealed that there is a significant relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variables and further analysis with a chi-square test also reconfirmed that there is significant relationship between the independent variable (work status) and the dependent variables (job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance).

## 5.4 Recommendations

- i. It is recommended that organizations should offer acceptable working conditions for all employees regardless of their employment status.
- ii. Organizations should give opportunities for career advanced and incentives as this will contribute to organization commitment
- iii. Part time employees should be treated equally like their fulltime counterparts to ensure job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance.
- iv. Besides, enacting a law to provide for part-time employees as a distinct and vulnerable class in need of protection is in consonance with the standard practice in countries such as the United Kingdom, Canada and South-Africa. In the United Kingdom, they enacted a law called Part-Time Workers (Prevention of Less Favorable Treatment) Regulations 2000. This is so, notwithstanding that part-time employees are covered within the meaning of the term “employee” in the primary labour legislation as the situation is in Zambia. It must be further noted that the reason why the law in question in the United Kingdom was passed, was not necessarily that less favorable treatment was widespread, it was essentially to propel the

development of a flexible labour market, encouraging the greater availability of part-time employment and increasing the quality and the range of jobs which are considered suitable for part-time employment and partly to end residual cases of less favorable treatment. It is therefore not superfluous at all to have an independent Act that addresses the plight of part-time employees in Zambia, especially if it also seeks to foster other objectives akin to the English model.

## 5.6 Summary of chapter

The chapter discussed the summary of findings, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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Lastly, my gratitude goes to all names and organizations that I may have not mentioned in here but rendered their support to me in one way or another in the completion of this dissertation.

Above all, glory and honour be to God for his grace and mercies which were sufficient for me to reach this far.

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