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IMPACT OF CHANGING WORKFORCE AND WORKPLACE ON PERCEPTIONS AND EXPECTATIONS OF JUSTICE.

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Abstract

We forecast how HRM practice and HR research on fairness in the workplace will need to change in light of several specific global workplace trends, namely, increases in workplace diversity and globalization, technology mediated relationships, individualized psychological contracts, and service-related jobs. After describing these trends, we illustrate how the meaning of fairness and worker expectations regarding fairness may be changing in response. We further discuss how those changes will impact HR management.

Keywords: Changing workforce, justice, divsersity

Introduction

Organizational justice research developed in the second half of the 20th century and came of age in the 1980s and 1990s. One might suspect that, perhaps, scholars of justice would be devoted futurists. Because fairness research evolved near the end of one century, its proponents might naturally look to the next. Although this speculation has an intuitive appeal, one could also argue that organizational justice researchers have not spent enough time looking ahead and- may have to play catch-up with their colleagues in other specialties (cf., Cascio, 1995; Goldstein & Gilliam, 1990; Offermann & Gowing, 1990). If we, as justice researchers, have been slow to examine our future, it may be that such an examination is especially difficult for us given the nature of our topic. For justice researchers, looking to the future is fraught with both theoretical and applied problems. Theoretically speaking, organization justice is concerned with the perceptions people form about their work outcomes and the procedures by which these outcomes are allocated. In general, justice perceptions are defined relative to some referent. (In)justice perceptions result from. comparing an actual event to some imagined standard (Cropanzano & Ambrose, in press; Cropanzano & Schminke, in press; Kulik & Ambrose, 1992). As the standards change, perceptions of fairness change accordingly. The answer to the question, "What is fair?," alters across people, situations, and times. This aspect of justice theory is appealing: Changing standards of fairness makes the theory flexible enough to account for differences in justice perceptions.

Problem Statement

However, this flexibility is also the source of our dilemma in extrapolating justice research into the future. If standards are constantly chang245 246 CROPANZANO AND PREHAR ing, how can we predict what will be perceived as fair (or unfair) into the future? What we lack in current theory is an understanding of how standards change from one time to the next. Justice is dynamic, not static. Lacking an understanding of these dynamics, we can ascertain neither the trajectory nor velocity of changing justice perceptions. Unfortunately, empirical theories of justice have seldom dealt with its fluid nature, and this is a conspicuous omission if we wish to foretell the future. Practically speaking, the real-world situations that engender a contemporary sense of unfairness are likely to change. Almost all observers agree that in the next century the work economy will become more global and more competitive (e.g., Greider, 1997; Massachusetts Institute of Technology Commission on Industrial Productivity, 1989; Thurow, 1996). These changes may exacerbate existing concerns over such issues as downsizing, but they may also create new challenges such as the increased use of temporary workers and rising workloads. To look to the future, therefore, justice researchers will need to overcome two problems: How to think about changing perceptions and changing standards of fairness; and to identify which aspects of the work environment will require out attention in the future. The first problem is one of theory; the second is one of application. The goal of this chapter is to navigate a route through these twin dilemmas. As such, this chapter is organized into two distinct parts, each corresponding to one of the two problems we have identified. In the first part, we address the theoretical concerns by offering a preliminary framework for thinking about how standards of fairness evolve. Our framework is based on the idea of psychological contacts. We argue that justice perceptions are defined relative to psychological contracts negotiated between individuals and between individuals and organizations. These contracts define the acceptable standards on which justice is predicated. As the contracts change, so do standards of fairness. Thus, if justice is defined relative to the standards embodied in contracts, and contracts exhibit development over time, then justice standards should change accordingly. Fortunately, although the justice literature has not yet addressed how standards change, the psychological contracts literature has (e.g., Morrison, 1994; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1995, chap. 6, this volume). We illustrate the link between contracts and justice by first providing a brief overview of contracts and how they change. Then, we will pose a prefatory structure for integrating the two literatures. In the second part of the chapter, we turn our attention away from these theoretical concerns and examine the work environment from the perspective of global economic changes. Based on this examination, we identify several issues that we believe will require the attention of justice researchers in the 21 st century. These include downsizing, the temporary workforce, wage concerns, and rising workloads. All of these will likely become salient concerns in the years ahead.

2.0 Literature review

A THEORETICAL EXAMINATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACTS AND ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE 247 What is fair now might not be fair in the future; few would dispute this point. However, the challenge that confronts us is how to anticipate and understand

shifting standards of fairness. In projecting justice into the next century, the key theoretical problem one encounters is understanding the dynamics of fairness perceptions. By dynamics, we refer to changing standards regarding what is fair. Neither our obligations nor the obligations of others are sacrosanct. As obligations shift, so to do our perceptions of fairness. For example, the American judiciary once viewed organizations as the exclusive property of their owners (usually shareholders). Because a private firm belonged to certain individuals, then those individuals had the right to hire and fire their employees more or less at will. Because the job was the property of the owners, it could be granted or taken away at the owners' behest (Youngblood & Bierman, 1985). More recently, U.S. courts have begun to view jobs as, at least in part, the property of the job incumbent. When an individual has done his or her job well for an extended period of time, then he or she obtains a sort of "squatter's rights" that obligate owners to provide a minimum of protection from capricious discharge (Gordon & Lee, 1990). Arbitrary dismissal was more likely to be fair historically and less likely to be fair today. What was just changed over time. As our perceptions of commitments change, so do our perceptions of justice. Often theories of organizational justice are not explicit as to how standards of justice change. These dynamics have not been fully articulated. Fortunately, a related body of research exists to help us address this problem. The literature on psychological contracts has examined how standards of right and wrong evolve in various work settings. Consequently, if research on psychological contracts were integrated with research on organizational justice, then the former could inform the latter as to the dynamics of fairness. As a preliminary inquiry into this possibility, we examine psychological contracts in the following two sections. First, we review the literature on contracting and contract change. Following this review, we discuss organizational justice in light of psychological contracts, posing a potential model for integrating the two constructs. What Are Psychological Contracts and How Are They Negotiated? Research on psychological contracts is predicated on the fact that people form agreements about their mutual responsibilities. Very loosely, we might say that a contract is a shared belief that one person will perform (or withhold) some actions in return for a reciprocal gesture by another individual. Contracts facilitate behavior, defining what is right in a particular situation and thereby making social coordination possible (for reviews see Rousseau, 1989; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). A complete discussion of the different types of psychological contracts is well beyond the scope of this chapter. The reader is referred to excellent reviews by Rousseau (1989; 1995), Rousseau and Parks (1993) and Shore and Tetrick (1994). Suffice it to say, however, that all contracts are not explicit. Many are implied but never formalized or concretely explicated. Relatedly, many contracts are abstract and open ended. For example, employees may believe that their employer has an obligation to treat them respectfully, without specifying precisely what respectfully means. As the reader will readily observe, the sometimes implicit and open-ended nature of contracts provides fertile ground for misunderstandings and perceived injustice.

2.1 Organizational Justice and Psychological Contracts

Returning to our original definition of contracts, we can see that they are perceptions of obligation between individuals or between an individual and the organization. When we believe that these obligations are met, we are likely to perceive that justice exists-- even when the outcomes are not to our best advantage (e.g., Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996; Cropanzano & Folger, 1991; Folger & Cropanzano, in press). However, when we believe that those obligations are breached, then we are likely to perceive that an injustice exists. For example, in conducting a performance review, we might presume that a supervisor is obliged to take our opinions into account. When this anticipated voice is not allowed, we feel very strongly that we have been treated unfairly (Taylor, Tracy, Renard, Harrison, & Carroll, 1995). In large measure, social justice and psychological contract researchers are talking about the same phenomenon but from a different point of view. Contract researchers begin with the terms of the agreement and look forward to the consequences of violation and fulfillment. Justice researchers, on the other hand, begin with the consequences of the agreement and look backward to the standards that originally gave rise to fairness perceptions. The simplest way to understand the relation between justice and contracts is to treat the terms of the contract as a predictor and justice as an outcome. In this model, a contract exists, one party acts in away that is perceived to be inconsistent with the terms of the contract, and the other party feels a sense of injustice and moral outrage. Although not necessarily stated as such, research evidence is quite consistent with this perspective (Alexander, Sinclair, & Tetrick, 1995; Folger & Cropanzano, in press; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson & Morrison 1994; Rousseau & Anton, 1988, 1991; Taylor, Masterson, McClear, & Goldman, 1996).

The relation between contracts and justice does not end with perceptions of injustice and moral outrage, however. Fairness perceptions carry over into the formation of new psychological contracts once the old ones are broken. In this sense, justice perceptions now act as a predictor and (new) contracts as the outcome. If individuals feel they have been treated unfairly, this will probably affect the negotiation and acceptance of new contracts. Promises and payments may be renegotiated, or acceptance may not come as easily. What we are, in essence, proposing is a reciprocal relation between fairness and contracts. The terms of an accepted contract-what we perceive to be the explicit or implicit promises and payments-are the standards by which we evaluate fulfillment of the contract. If the terms are met, a sense of justice is maintained. If the terms change, however, then a breach of contract may be perceived and injustice perceptions may ensue. Violations of contracts lead to feelings of injustice which, in turn, affect the forging of new contracts. In this way, the two research literatures are intimately related (for a similar perspective see Alexander et al., 1995).

2.2 Wages: Slower Growth Rates and Uneven Distributions Wage Stagnation.

It has, or had, become almost a truism in America that each generation would live better than the one that preceded it. In part, this was reflected in the expectations that wages would continue to rise (Samuelson, 1995). Unfortunately, wage growth has not continued apace with expectations. The income of working families has been relatively flat since the early 1970s. In 1973 the median

family earned $30,663 per year. In 1987 this figure was $30,853 (Phillips, 1990). Similar conclusions appear if we examine the change in weekly earnings per worker during the same period. If we equate all earnings in 1987 dollars, then between 1972 and 1987, the median weekly wages dipped from $366 to $312. Mostly, this trend has been due to the frozen wage rates for many middleclass and working-class men. Upper and upper middle-class workers have fared somewhat better, continuing the income growth of previous decades (Peterson, 1994). As seen in the next section, this has led to a greater wage polarization, as the relatively wealthy have become wealthier and the relatively poor have become poorer (Frank & Cook, 1995; Philips, 1990). Fortunately, earnings for female workers have grown somewhat more than earnings for their male counterparts, reducing (although not eliminating) the gender gap and rescuing family incomes (Schor, 1991; Thurow, 1996). By 1987, women were earning about 70% as much as their male co-workers (Philips, 1990). Although women were still relatively underpaid, this was certainly an improvement from 62.5% in 1979. Male wage earners, on the other hand, watched their incomes drop somewhat. Within two-parent household, women were able to off-set the decline in male wages. This not only protected overall family earnings, it also served to keep the U.S. per capita income rising (Philips, 1990; Schor, 1991). The downside, however, is that this rescue could only take place in intact families with two wage earners. Single parent families, the vast majority of which are headed by women, are over-represented among the poor (Bennett, 1994; Peterson, 1994). The causes of these stagnant wages are complex and not easily understood. As Greider (1997) observed, global capitalism gives organizations a much stronger bargaining position vis-a-vis their workforce. For example, U.S. firms in many industries, such as automobiles and stee1, need to remain competitive with foreign competitors. Many of these competitors have a lower wage workforce'. Depending on the skill level required to produce the product, businesses can relocate to other nations and export their products back into the United States. Thus, fewer U.S. workers are needed and those that remain have less clout for demanding pay, increases. Likewise, low-productivity growth, of course, must almost inevitably flatten wage growth. If firms are not producing more, than their profits are apt to lag and there will be less to distribute to employees (Prichard, 1992). Thus, faster productivity growth could be one tool for improving flagging wages. Women are over one half of the U.S. population. As they have entered the workforce in greater and greater numbers, women have inevitably expanded the pool of potential employees. Through a simple process of supply and demand, therefore, the dollar value of a given worker may have fallen. This is an intriguing possibility to consider from a justice perspective. Is it unfair to men that they must now compete with women? The answer depends on whether one views justice from a normative perspective (e.g., as a philosopher trying to answer a "should" question) or from a phenomenological perspective (e.g., as a justice researcher trying to anticipate who will feel unfairly treated during the next century). From a normative perspective, the fact that women's earnings have risen relative to men does not show that men were unfairly treated. In fact, it demonstrates the exact opposite. Higher wages illustrate that women are valuable workers. This suggests that the previous underemployment was due to something that artificially restricted women's access to jobs and opportunities. Societal norms of sexism were probably the principal

culprit. Looked at from this perspective, it is difficult to sympathize with an aggrieved male worker, especially given that women's earnings still lag behind. In fact, one might even argue that male workers were overpaid relative to what they should have been earning in a fair-labor market. On the other hand, justice judgments are not always rational. They can be biased by self-interest. For this reason, one could predict a tendency to blame female workers. This would not be normatively correct, of course, but it could become a problem if present trends continue. One might hope, instead, that a growing economy will produce opportunity for all. The relative changes in female versus male earnings might create a future dilemma for justice researchers. Implicitly, many justice researchers have advocated giving people those things that they see as fair, such as greater voice and equitable pay. How might we respond, however, if promoting (subjectively perceived) justice for one group comes at the disadvantage of another?

2.3 Rising Pay Inequality.

Regardless of this vicissitudes of the CPI, another economic trend remains. Wealth in the United States has become more and more unevenly distributed (Peterson, 1994; Sheppard, Lewicki, & Minton, 1993; Thurow, 1996). Although scholars hotly debate the size and cause of this wage polarization, few dispute its existence (see Frank & Cook, 1995, for an excellent discussion). Some telling statistics are provided by Philips (1990). In the period between 1977 and 1987, the after-tax family income of the top 1 % of the U. S. population leaped from $174,498 to $303,900. By comparison, the bottom 10% of the U.S. population saw their earnings slid from $3,528 to $3,157. There was a big gap to begin with, and it became even bigger. Data reviewed by Peterson (1994) shows that since the early 1970s, the rate of earnings growth is highly correlated with one's starting position. In particular, the wealthiest quintile in the early 19705 saw the largest income gains, the next wealthiest quintile saw the sec ond largest income gains, and so forth-down to the poorest quintile, which showed slight losses (see also Phillips, 1990). These differences are dramatic. Between 1977 and 1989, the wealthiest 1 % garnered a full 70% of the growth in personal income (Frank & Cook, 1995). Affluence has become so concentrated in the United States that the top 1 % of household control a full 37% of the nation's wealth (Frank & Cook, 1995). The extent of the problem varies by-nation. Some regions, such as Latin America, are perennial bastions of inequality (Skidmore & Smith, 1992). Elsewhere the record is more mixed. For instance, during the 1980s, the United Kingdom underwent growing wage polarization (Moore & Sinclair, 1995). The top 20% of British wage earners earned 22% more in 1985 than they did in 1979. The bottom, 10%, on the other hand, saw there earnings slip by 9.7% (Philips, 1990). Although perhaps less dramatic, rising inequality has also been observed in Japan (Philips, 1990). These global trends are important because they suggest that wider economic forces probably explain part of the growth in inequality. Nevertheless, it n::mains significant that U.S. incomes are relatively more unequal than elsewhere in the industrialized world. For example, Mishel and Bernstein (1993) found more wage polarization in the United States than in Australia, Canada, Germany, or Sweden. These cross-national differences suggest that economic policy choices are partially responsible for the rise in income inequality that has been observed in the United States. The implications of these

cross-national comparisons are complex. We can illustrate this by juxtaposing the United States and France. Relative to the United States, France has a more comprehensive social-welfare system, higher wages, and considerable worker protections against discharge and dismissal. As one might expect given these differences the growth in inequality has been less in France and more in the United States (Moore & Sinclair, 1995; Philips, 1990). However, before suggesting that Americans imitate the French system, we need to look more closely at the economic trade-offs. Relative to France, the United States has a lower unemployment rate, lower taxes, a stronger record of job creation and is more competitive internationally (e.g., Thurow, 1996). It is plausible, therefore, that French record of wealth redistribution, as well as the American record of economic growth, has come as a trade-off.

3.0 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

A research methodology is a description of the procedures and strategies used to find and look through sources related to a specific area of study. Research design is the process by which scientists plan their investigations so that they can employ the tools they have selected to achieve their objectives. This included the research design, data collection and analytic methods, and the overall framework used to conduct the study. It includes every important aspect of research. In addition, by using a research technique, which provides a framework and directions for doing so, researchers can formally formulate study questions, hypotheses, and objectives.

3.2 Research Design

The methodology, processes, and methodologies of a research project are described in a systematic and methodical blueprint known as a research design (Asio, 2021). In order to properly answer their research questions or aims, researchers can use the aforementioned as a comprehensive framework to guide them in the methodical gathering, analysis, and interpretation of data (Asenahabi et al., 2019). The study's implementation must be methodical, consistent, and rigorous in order to produce accurate data. In this instance, the study design is used. A quantitative methodology will be used in this investigation. The ability to triangulate study findings is one of the key advantages of quantitative method into research since it integrates the unique aspects of both approaches, improving the overall quality and depth of the research done (Turale, 2020). The credibility of the study's findings can be greatly boosted by contrasting the outcomes acquired utilizing different approaches. When quantitative information ideas are in agreement, the validity of study conclusions is increased, and a more thorough examination is possible.

3.3 Population

Typically, inferential statistics find application in quantitative research within fields such as education, psychology, and sociology, including the ongoing study. In this methodology, research is conducted on a specific sample, and the findings are then extrapolated to a larger or complete group of subjects, known as the population in research. Accurate definition and identification of

the population are crucial before commencing research activities. A well-defined population assist the researcher in selecting a representative sample size, essential for ensuring the applicability of the results to the entire population. The success of the research and the reliability of the results heavily rely on the chosen sample. This chapter delves into the discussion of how to select a sample that genuinely represents the entire population.

3.3.1 Sampling Techniques

Sampling techniques are approaches that are used to choose a selection of individuals or items from larger populations (Berndt, 2020). After upon, studies and analyses are conducted on this particular group in order to draw conclusions about the entire community. A few examples of common sampling procedures are simple random sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling, and systematic sampling. Two such instances are cluster and systematic sampling. Selecting a sampling approach requires careful consideration of the study's objectives as well as the characteristics of the population under investigation. Based on the advantages and disadvantages of each strategy—which are particular to each approach a sample method is selected.

3.3.2 Simple Random Sampling

"Simple random sampling" is a fundamental strategy used to select participants from a population in a wholly arbitrary manner in the field of research methodologies. This is due to the method's conception in the 1960s. As a result of its inherent fairness, this study methodology differs from others. Every member of the community has an equal chance of being selected for the study project's sample, according to Kothari (2021). This is what distinguishes the strategy. There are no established patterns or biases, which makes the procedure unique. By doing this, it is ensured that the group selected accurately and impartially represents society as a whole. The key benefit of this approach is that it enables researchers to accurately extrapolate findings from a small sample to the entire population. Simple random sample techniques have significant effects that enhance the study's broad inclusiveness and external validity.

The first step in the data collection process for a study employing simple random sampling is determining the population of interest. This is the first step in the procedure. At the end of this phase, each member of the particular population is assigned a unique number. Using a random number generator or randomization process, a subgroup of people is chosen at random from the population without reference to any predefined patterns or criteria. This suggests that there is no predetermined method for choosing. This ensures that every member of the population has an equal chance of being chosen because the selection process is entirely based on random chance. Various methods can be employed to gather data, contingent on the nature of the investigation and the required information. These methods include conducting surveys, experiments, observations, and interviews. Following the selection of the sample, data collecting may begin. The procedure for gathering data must be unbiased and representative of the entire population in order to yield results that can be relied upon. This is an important stage in the process of coming to reliable findings.

3.3.3 Purposive Sampling

The sample technique by Kothari (2021), known as "purposive sampling" is highlighted in this study. In this study, a non-probability sampling technique was adopted, and participants were chosen based on their knowledge of pertinent material and compliance with the study's criteria. Purposeful sampling concentrates on deliberate selection variables that increase the likelihood of finding participants with the characteristics needed to provide crucial information, as opposed to chance sampling techniques, which are fundamentally random. This meticulous method of data collection increases its accuracy and dependability.

Purposive sampling is a method for data collection used in research projects. The investigators employ their own discretion to identify and choose participants who have the particular characteristics or information required for the study. Purposive sampling frequently uses techniques such as focus groups, in-depth interviews, and case studies in its data collection process. These methods enable researchers to obtain case-specific information from the selected individuals. In qualitative research, deliberate sampling is a frequently used strategy to understand the complexity and breadth of particular experiences or traits shared by a particular group of participants. Typically, gathering data from a large variety of sources aids in accomplishing this objective.

3.4 Pilot Study

Ibrahim (2010) suggests a reasonable and ideal number for a pilot study is 30 to 50 people. This suggestion is in line with the study of Blumberg et al. (2011), who suggested that the number of samples for the pilot study should be 10% of the actual study sample. Therefore, this study set 30 questionnaires distributed as a pilot study, and the respondents were selected randomly.

The pilot study will be based on a quantitative strategy in which the survey methodology will be used to collect data regarding the students enrolled at preschool education courses who are required to assess their perceptions of social environment and teacher teaching ability influence on academic success. The survey instruments will be constructed upon the researchers' goals and piloted among a small sample of respondents. 30 respondents will be used in a pilot study. Throughout the pilot study, ethical considerations will be a key issue. All participants will be asked to provide informed consent, and efforts will make the data collected confidentially. The establishment of ethical concerns will be addressed in accordance with established guidelines and approval, if required from an ethics review board.

Reliability and validity will be tested using Cronbach's Alpha. To ensure the reliability and validity, the Cronbach Alpha must be more than 0.7. This pilot study can be considered as a very important first step when investigating the impact of social environment and teacher teaching ability on college students studying in preschool education courses at vocational colleges. Through the improvement of survey instrument, testing their usefulness and making sure ethics will be

adhered to in this pilot study it will help provide a proper setup for full controlled research which can offer great knowledge into what are being investigated about and what is sought after.

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

The objective of this study is to have a comprehensive understanding of the topic "The Influence of Social Environment and Teacher Teaching Ability on the Academic Achievement among Preschool Education Students in Vocational Colleges." To accomplish its goals, this inquiry will use both primary and secondary data sources. The secondary data sources will comprise finished research projects, government reports and databases, institutional databases, online databases, polls and assessments, literature reviews, and meta-analyses, in addition to literature.

To get reliable results, the study will use both primary and secondary data sources. The primary sources of information will be surveys and interviews, and the secondary sources will be the examination of documentary guides.

3.5.1 Primary Source of Data

The term "primary data" refers to material that is obtained directly from the source for the stated purpose of the study being conducted in the context of research methodology (Srisathan et al., 2020). A few of the techniques utilized to gather primary data during the process are surveys, questionnaires, interviews, and observations (Yan et al., 2020). The data used in this research project is unique since it was recently collected and can effectively address the aims and questions of the study. It provides the essential foundation for analysis, inference, and decision-making as a result. By utilizing primary data collection techniques, the study seeks to obtain first-hand input from participants who are students enrolled in preschool education courses in vocational institutions. Instruments for gathering primary quantitative data directly from study participants include surveys, questionnaires, and interviews.

3.5.2 Secondary Source of Data

According to 2020 research by Williams and colleagues, "secondary data" refers to information that has already been collected but for purposes unrelated to the current research project. Various types of items, including books, essays, databases, and government papers, to name a few, could be included in this collection. It was put together by a large variety of people and organizations from all around the world. In order to support their work and to gain a larger perspective, secondary data is an essential tool for researchers (Sopha et al., 2021). Secondary data provides knowledge from the past that may lend their own research validity. In addition to insightful information, these studies will provide important data for comparison and analysis.

A combination of primary and secondary data collection techniques will be employed to compile thorough data for the study. This will be done in order to get the data required for the study. Surveys, observations, interviews, and focus groups will all be used to gather the bulk of the data. The secondary data will come from completed research projects as well as official reports and

databases, institutional data, online databases, surveys and assessments, literature reviews, meta-analyses, and survey and assessment data. The research on the influences of social environment and teacher teaching competence on the academic achievement of students enrolled in vocational schools would have a solid foundation if these data sources were used. This investigation's main focus will be the academic development of graduates.

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