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**Examination of Inter-relationships between Psychological Contract,
Careerist Orientation, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour**

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Dedication of the Thesis

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Declaration

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John. W. Adams

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Abstract

The objective of the research was to investigate the impact of careerist orientation and the implicit psychological contracts between employers and employees on organisational citizenship behaviour. It was hypothesized that the effect of careerist orientation and the nature of psychological contract on organisational citizenship behaviour would be mediated by turnover intention and life satisfaction. The researcher examined these relationships in two different populations of expatriates and non-expatriates. Two populations were chosen in order to strengthen the external validity of this study. Moreover, there are practical implications for organisations to study the outcomes of expatriate assignments.

The researcher conducted a survey of 442 employees (232 expatriates and 210 non-expatriates) working in the U.S. and U.K. Scales validated by past research were used to measure the concepts. Structural equation modelling was used to test the hypotheses and the network of relationships. The primary hypothesis was confirmed with psychological contract proving a significant predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour, and careerist orientation was a mediator of this relationship. The results provided evidence for the secondary hypotheses that careerist orientation and organisational citizenship behaviour were mediated by turnover intention and life satisfaction.

List of Abbreviations

CO	Careerist Orientation
LS	Life Satisfaction
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
PC	Psychological Contract
PCI	Psychological Contract Inventory
RPC	Relational Psychological Contract
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
TI	Turnover Intention
TPC	Transactional Psychological Contract

Chapter One

Introduction

This study seeks to examine the nature of psychological contract in the level of careerist orientation exhibited by the employee. By addressing the concept of careerist orientation in organisations, this study aims to enhance our knowledge of careerist orientation by examining the role of psychological contract as its antecedent.

Psychological contract is the unwritten agreement between employer and employee (Rousseau, 1989b) and careerist orientation is a preference for advancement through non-traditional means (Feldman, 1985). An important factor that must be examined in order to understand the cause of careerist orientation is the nature of psychological contract. Secondly, this study seeks to examine the role of mechanisms and mediators that link psychological contract and careerist orientation to organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour is the employee's behaviour that is discretionary and not recognized by the organisation's reward system (Organ, 1988). Specifically, this study identifies turnover intention and life satisfaction as two possible mediators in the relationship between psychological contract and careerist orientation to organisational citizenship behaviour. This study examines and compares these above mentioned relationships within two diverse populations; expatriate and non-expatriate employees. Overall, this study looks to connect the most recent literature of psychological contract and organisational citizenship behaviour by examining the role of careerist orientation in the relationship between psychological contract and organisational citizenship behaviour.

The Changing Employment Sector

The change in today's employment sector brought about by layoffs and downsizing has been dramatic (Hall, Yan, & Zhu, 2002). As organisations evolved, they required an increasing number of employees to possess commercial and self-governance

competencies. The author believes that in the future, companies will hire workers as independent professionals and, consequently, there will be a reversal of the level of complexity in organisations.

Hall et al. (2002) endorses the “wave” theories of Alvin Toffler (1981). The first wave was marked by agricultural developments prior to 1860. The second wave comprising industrial revolution and its effects existed from about 1860 to the 1970s and resulted in traditional, hierarchical firms. The third wave, post-industrial society or information age, developed in the 1970s and 1980s and led to what are popularly called “network organisations.” A fourth wave, marked by developments in Internet and knowledge-based organisations, seems to have emerged in the 1990s and has created what are called “cellular organisation” that illustrates the organic nature of the emerging firms.

First wave prior to 1860. It is worthwhile noting that during the first wave, the classic or “free” professions such as medicine, law, education, the clergy, military and civil service emerged which have remained true to their origins until now. Such careers are based principally on education and training, follow an established code of ethics, and, for much of their history, have tended to exist free from the bureaucracies of organisations.

Second wave 1860-1970s. The second wave firm, now with few remaining in operation as a purely second wave entity, is characterized by the traditional tall, steep pyramidal structure, with the few senior managers at the top of the structure who make decisions and follow company procedures. The railways are one example of an early second wave firm that harnesses technical competence and capital equipment to achieve efficient mass production of standard goods and service. Second wave firms changed the way business was conducted. After World War II, the divisional form of organisation was developed to pursue diversification, and individuals could work in

various, specialized divisions of the firm. Because each division was essentially a self-contained unit, the opportunity of career advancement within that division was greater than what it would have been in the company as a single entity. Companies such as General Electric, Procter and Gamble, and Sears and Roebuck were known for producing high calibre managers with complete repertoires of technical, commercial, and governance skills.

Third wave 1970s and 1980s. The third wave, which began in the 1970s, marked the first time that the start of globalization and rapid technological change forced older companies to rethink their structures and human resource systems. The third wave arrived and established itself quickly as new products hit the market in greater number than ever before. There was no longer the time for the careful planning and coordination that marked the second wave, if companies were to remain competitive. The third wave company did what it did best, and outsourced noncore operations to other firms. By the middle of the 1980s there were two trends becoming evident: the old firms had become downsized and de-layered, and managers were creating a design of organisational structure called the network (Thorelli, 1986).

Fourth wave 1990s to present. For the individual in the fourth wave organisation, the organisation ceases to function as an employer but serves as a platform for the employee to promote his/her professional skills. Employees will be required to regularly upgrade their education and competency, and sabbaticals will be encouraged in order to do this. Ironically, as the fourth wave organisations take form, we see a return to something very similar to the very first wave of careers – that of the “free” professionals mentioned earlier. Hundreds of years ago in pre-organisational times, people advanced by educating themselves, sensing and striking out at new opportunities, and managing all aspects of their working and non-working lives. In the future, these professionals will expand their own abilities and join them with other like-

mindful professionals. The norm today is less trust in the employer, no guarantees by the employer, short-term employment, and performance-driven arrangements.

The Effects of Change in Employment Landscape

Employee attitude change. Rousseau (1995) suggests at least two psychological contracts exist today. The relational psychological contract refers to a long-term arrangement where the employee receives job security in exchange for commitment to the company. The transactional psychological contract is more short term and financially driven with no job security. The changes made by multi-national corporations worldwide have been sudden, with serious impact on employer-employee relationships (Rousseau, 1995; Turnley & Feldman, 1999) including a prevalence of transactional nature of psychological contract, as opposed to the relational nature. These events in the external environment have also often changed the terms of the psychological contract, causing the employee to distrust the employer. Feldman (1985) argues that this distrust causes the employee to form an attitude that getting ahead in the organisation will best be accomplished by non-performance means or in other words, the employee develops a careerist orientation. Feldman asserted that careerist orientation is a result of lessened job security and unpredictable treatment by the employer.

Psychological Contract Changes

The changing landscape of employee-employer relations has led to a psychological contract change between employee and employer (Herriot & Pemberton, 1995; Rousseau, 1995). Historically, employees offered hard work and commitment to employers in exchange for job security. The individual's beliefs regarding this arrangement form the psychological contract. Changes and massive layoffs by world-wide corporations have had a major impact on employer-employee relations, much to the employees' detriment. This environment has led to the development of the construct

of careerist orientation (Feldman, 1985) or the attempt to “get ahead” by nonperformance- based means.

In order to highlight the significance of this research, This study will briefly discuss three topics in this chapter: (a) the changing employment sector, (b) the consequences of change in career landscape, and (c) key predictors of organisational citizenship behaviours. Finally, the scope of the present study is discussed, along with a brief outline of the subsequent chapters.

Psychological Contract Tradeoffs

There are tradeoffs between transactional and relational nature of psychological contract and there are consequences associated with careerist orientation. The employee that perceives a transactional nature of psychological contract with the employer and who displays careerist orientation often increases his/her turnover intention. While assuming more responsibility for their careers and putting less trust in the employer, employees high on careerist orientation develop a propensity to “look out for themselves” and not have the organisation’s best interests in mind. These attitudes also affect the employee’s contribution to organisational effectiveness and organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour is an important outcome because it correlates with employee productivity, and employee productivity correlates with productive organisations. Companies today recognize the important role that committed and dedicated employees play in accomplishing organisational objectives (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). A dedicated employee is important to the corporation in terms of meeting company objectives and in creating a better environment among company workers. Employees who perceive that the organisation is committed to them often reciprocate with loyalty and hard work. However, the reverse is also true when the company is perceived to have little commitment to the employee.

In these circumstances, the employee oftentimes develops a careerist orientation and transactional psychological contract toward the employer.

Thus, the research objectives of this study mentioned at the outset are directly related to changes in the external environment of the organisation over the past three decades and are consequently relevant to emerging theory and practice of organisational behaviour.

Present Study

The research presented in this thesis involves a cross sectional study that examines the nature of psychological contract (transactional and relational) in the level of careerist orientation exhibited by expatriate and non-expatriate employees of multinational companies in the U.S and U.K. This study addresses the concept of careerist orientation in organisations and aims to enhance our knowledge of careerist orientation by examining the role of psychological contract as its antecedent. In addition, this study examines the roles of turnover intention and life satisfaction as two possible mediators in the relationship between psychological contract (transactional and relational) and careerist orientation to organisational citizenship behaviour. The differences between expatriates and non-expatriates on these variables are also examined.

Research questions. The first research question examines the nature of psychological contract (transactional and relational) in the level of careerist orientation exhibited by the employee. This research question addresses the concept of careerist orientation in organisations and aims to enhance our knowledge of careerist orientation by examining the role of psychological contract as its antecedent. Secondly, this study seeks to examine the role of mechanisms and mediators that link psychological contract (transactional and relational) and careerist orientation to organisational citizenship behaviour. Specifically, the research identifies turnover intention and life satisfaction

as two possible mediators in the relationship between psychological contract and careerist orientation to organisational citizenship behaviour. This study examines and compares the relationships within two diverse populations; expatriate and non-expatriate employees. Overall, these research questions also connect the most recent literature of psychological contract and organisational citizenship behaviour by examining the role of careerist orientation in the relationship between psychological contract and organisational citizenship behaviour.

New findings. This research aims to contribute to the literature in the following ways. The number of studies examining careerist orientation is relatively small while the studies done independently on psychological contract and organisational citizenship behaviour have been extensive. Building on the works of Herriot and Pemberton (1995, 1997), Rousseau (1989b, 1995, 1998), Feldman (1985), Feldman and Turnley (1995), Chay and Aryee (1999) and Podsakoff et al. (2000), this study is one of the first studies that examines the relationship of careerist orientation and psychological contract with organisational citizenship behaviour. More importantly, the impact of psychological contract and careerist orientation on organisational citizenship behaviour has not been extensively studied. Thus, the current research aims to contribute to each of these disparate fields by examining their interrelationships and linking them together. In addition, the studies examining the impact of psychological contract and careerist orientation on organisational citizenship behaviour in two different populations such as expatriate and non-expatriate employees are fewer yet. This helps strengthen the external validity of this study by examining the generalizability of the findings to another population and exploring the boundary conditions of a theory. While internal validity is important for any study, external validity is often not adequately addressed in extant literature (Tebes, 2000).

Practical significance. This research aims to explicate the mechanisms linking psychological contract, careerist orientation, and organisational citizenship behaviour. Specifically, this study examines the mediating role of turnover intention, and life satisfaction in the relationships between careerist orientation and psychological contract on the one hand and organisational citizenship behaviour on the other. Hypothesizing and testing the role of mediating variables in the relationship between two key variables (such as psychological contract and organisational citizenship behaviour) is important for theory advancement. In terms of practical significance of studying expatriates, the offshore assignment is becoming increasingly important as U.S. companies alone employ thousands of middle and senior management employees overseas. In addition, the successful completion of an overseas posting is often a prerequisite for advancement in upper management for a number of organisations.

Overview of Subsequent Chapters

This dissertation has five more chapters. The second chapter provides a detailed literature review of psychological contract, careerist orientation, and organisational citizenship behaviours. In addition, the second chapter provides a brief overview of the concepts that are expected to serve as mediating mechanisms, turnover intention and life satisfaction. The third chapter discusses the arguments on the basis of past research on similar topics leading to various hypotheses of this study. The fourth chapter describes the methods used in the study. This study conducted a cross-sectional survey study of employees, categorized as expatriates and non-expatriates, working in the U.S. and U.K. The fifth chapter describes the statistical analysis of data using structural equation modelling and the results of the analyses are reported. Finally, the findings are discussed in terms of how the current study fits into the existing literature, as well as the implications, limitations, and conclusions that can be drawn from the findings.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Models of organisational behaviour typically include a combination of constructs that are conceptually related. This study seeks to: (a) identify some key antecedents and consequences of careerist orientation; (b) determine possible differences in expatriates' and non-expatriates' in their levels of careerist orientation and its key antecedents and consequences, and (c) to explore whether there are differences between expatriates and non-expatriates in the strengths of relationships among model constructs.

The following literature review summarizes the research on three focal concepts of this study: (a) psychological contract, an important hypothesized antecedent of careerist orientation, (b) careerist orientation (and related research on careers as well as individual dispositions and attitudes similar to careerist orientation), and (c) organisational citizenship behaviour.

Psychological Contract

A decline in the labour market has been brought on by the restructuring of corporations that must adjust to changing market pressures and demands. Traditional long-term contracts between employers and employees have also been affected by these changes. These changes in market conditions make it difficult for employers to keep promises that were made to their employees. In this sense, it is important to understand the behavioural perspective underlying contracts.

The literature suggests that contracts are pervasive and are generally founded on the assumption that promises are being made by others. For example, by accepting a position with a new company, an employee assumes the promises of employment and a regular salary from the employer in return for job duties performed. Companies which have experienced downsizing and restructuring in past years share the unfortunate

circumstance that they can offer little or no employment guarantees to their employees. The organisations are faced with staying flexible to adjust to world and industry pressures. This has resulted in a flexible workforce with short-term employment contracts being the chosen employment method for many organisations. Long-term employment contracts are becoming a promise of the past as they continue to be replaced by short-term and temporary contracts. In turn, an organisation creates less commitment with the employee through these weaker/shorter contracts. As a result of these practices, Charles Handy (1989) suggests that organisations of the future will look like construction and farming models of the past. Taking on the shape of a shamrock, these organisations will have a core of required executives with freelance workers and part-time/temporary routine workers each filling one leaf of the "shamrock."

Regarding the organisation, it can be difficult for the employee to get specific information at the beginning of the employment relationship due to on-going changes in the business climate. This puts both employer and employee in a position of making up as they go along in order to accomplish the task at hand. However, employees tend to be more efficient and committed and need less supervision if working under contract conditions. An ideal world often differs from reality where the organisation finds itself in an ever-changing competitive environment that demands flexible contracts.

Herriot and Pemberton (1996) argue that a new psychological contract must be contextualized, interactive between the individual and the organisation, subjective and not normative, tolerant of different interests, process-oriented and not structural, and cyclical in nature. The contract they propose involves agreements that are based on a perceived match between one's own wants and what the other party has to offer, and the exchange of promised offers. How either party responds to the proposed contract, which can be either transactional or relational, is dependent on his or her perceptions of its equity and whether the contract has been honoured. It can lead to any number of

outcomes, including exit from the contract or renegotiation of the contract. One of the negative outcomes can lead the employee to exhibit tendencies of careerist orientation – advancement in the organisation through non-traditional means.

Among the changes in the business environment that make this agreement effective is the “de-layering” of organisations and reduction of the number of management and supervisory levels. Devolution of responsibility for decisions and budgets down the line and the resultant reduction in the need for supervisory and managerial control has encouraged contracting out of “all but the core activities of the organisation, and a consequent increase in part-time and fixed-term contracts of employment.” Expectation of security of employment and continued promotion within the organisation had become “untenable,” and dissatisfaction developed with the contracting agreements.

An effective psychological contract, such as the one Herriot and Pemberton (1996) propose, needed not only to address the current business environment, but the recent past and the future. This type of contract will have a negative effect on psychological contract. The authors saw a contract satisfying that requirement which must be contextualized, that is it must not only address current contexts of the organisation within and between which careers are pursued, but it must also consider the changing business, political and economic environment within which the organisation operates – and also the changing social context of individuals’ lives. In addition, it must be cyclical to allow for changes in context, structures and identities over time, and concerned with the processes through which careers develop (i.e., it must be processural). Careerist orientation can become prevalent if the psychological contract becomes inflexible or adapting to the employee’s needs over time. There is a requirement for subjectivity as opposed to a normative common model such as the age-

stage theories. Lastly, it must be interactive, which is to say it must account for relations between the organisation and its representatives, and individual employees.

If the agreement accomplishes these requirements, it could have considerable benefits, the authors claim. It would enable people to understand the changing nature of the employment relationship. It would help provide a critique of prescriptive models of career management, and it would generate career research and theory. The authors cite three models or current theoretical frameworks which meet at least some of the above criteria: Rhoades and Doering (1983); Anderson, Milkovich and Tsui (1981) and the one they believed was closest to their own, Rosseau and Parks (1992).

The agreement is presented in a complex figure, which proposes 30 “relationships,” mainly between employee and organisation, which are its components. These relationships vary from the organisation’s strategies and structures which will determine what they want from their employees, to the individual’s identity within the social context of family friends and community, to the degree of communication between the parties during the negotiation, whether the contract is relational or transactional, good citizenship behaviour on the part of the employee, and the method of exit from the contract for both parties.

Each relationship is discussed at length in their paper, and ends with a conclusion of several major points. The Herriot and Pemberton (1996) psychological contract implies that it is not possible to describe careers solely from a managerialist, human resource perspective. “Current prescriptions which recommend the management of careers by the organisation solely to achieve business objective are unlikely to be analytically correct,” the authors say. The “currently fashionable” restructuring of most organisations was bound to result in more profound effects that had been recognized to that time. Among these were redundancies, de-layerings, and increases in workload that had been construed as violations of the relational contract and a basis for the employee

to demonstrate careerist attitudes. Their agreement implies that “the Human Resource myth of a single all-embracing organisational culture is prescriptive rhetoric, aimed at concealing differences in value priorities among employees.”

Rousseau (1995) suggests little research has been put forward regarding commitment and promises in employment relationships. Rousseau (1995) suggests that employment contracts last over time and involve more than would be exhibited in a one-time event. She argues the reasons for individuals having difficulty in understanding contracts could involve their considering the contract to have a single meaning, uninterested in individual interpretations and no time for ambiguity. McLean Parks and Schmedemann (1994) note the corporations become quite defensive when legal recognition of agreements is mentioned in an employment setting. Employees are often aware that companies may attempt to circumvent enforceable clauses in the employment agreement.

The new short-term employment contract between employees and employers is not one that the employee readily accepts. However, in an age of “take it or leave it” and high unemployment, the employer has imposed employment terms and conditions commensurate with the short term employment agreement or transactional psychological contract. The short term employment contract between the employer and employee can create the foundation for careerist tendencies (Rousseau, 1995).

The contents of the psychological contract are important to outcomes for both the employer and the employee. Some of these outcomes include turnover intention, and life satisfaction. Several empirical studies have examined the relationship between the nature of the psychological contract and these different outcomes (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; Hui, Lee & Rousseau, 2004; Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004; Rousseau, 1990, 2000). These studies have led to the development of several theoretical frameworks.

Background and Nature of the Psychological Contract

Argyris (1960), Levinson (1962), and Schein (1980) were early contributors to the psychological contract literature where they found both employer and employee had strong expectations of each other. When considering the employee-employer relationship, both parties have the chance to gain something from the continuing interaction (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975).

The definition of a psychological contract is not as clear-cut as that of some other concepts in organisational psychology (Conway & Briner, 2005). While there is no one authoritative statement or agreed upon definition, the psychological contract can be described as an unwritten contract between the employee and the company, which involves promises and expectancies (Rousseau, 1989b). It has also been defined as a form of exchange between the employee and the employer - e.g., employees may offer hard work and loyalty to the company in exchange for monetary rewards and long-standing job security (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). The contract or exchange may end when one or both parties no longer perceive the chance of gaining something of value. As an example, an employee whose employer has broken the employment agreement may have little to gain and much to lose by continuing the relationship (Taylor & Tekleab, 2004).

Research by Rousseau (1989b) has refocused the psychological contract into a foundation for the employment relationship. Through her research, promises have become the preferred term when defining the psychological contract as they are seen as more clearly contractual, whereas expectations and obligations are considered to have more general meanings. Conway and Briner (2005) argue that obligations and expectations are considered part of the psychological contract only if they are based on a perceived promise. They go on to note that earlier definitions of the psychological contract tend to emphasize beliefs about promises and expectations, while later

definitions emphasize beliefs about promises and obligations (Conway & Briner, 2005). Taylor and Tekleab (2004), however, claim that there is little difference in either approach and go on to argue that the focus on promise-based obligations rather than expectations constitutes little change in the conceptualization of the contract.

Still, the literature goes into detailed discussions concerning the differences between promises and expectations versus promises and obligations. For example, Rousseau (1990) conceptualized that the psychological contract rests upon promise-based obligations instead of expectancies. Robinson and Rousseau (1994) even argue that the psychological contract refers to beliefs that are fundamentally different from those beliefs associated with general expectations. They claim that all promises involve expectations, while expectations do not necessarily involve a promissory element. In their example, they argue that expectations may be based on a probabilistic belief about future events (such as a future pay raise) or normative beliefs about what should happen (good performance leading to a promotion). Morrison and Robinson (1997) believe that only those obligations arising out of specific or explicit promises can be part of psychological contracts. On the other hand, Conway and Briner (2005) argue that promises are grounded in a contract and that employees build expectations based on what the other party has communicated or how they have behaved. For example, the authors argue that employees may come to expect a pay raise at a certain period in time because others are getting pay raises after a particular length of service. In conclusion, an expectation is a more general belief about what should happen whereas a promise is a much more specific belief about what will happen, when it will happen, and why it will happen. While employees expectations are based on weaker beliefs that certain things will or will not happen (a raise), once a promise has been made, employees tend to check whether the promise has been kept, foregoing the alternatives, and making sure they're delivered (Conway & Briner, 2005).

In light of these different views, the contents of the psychological contract can be summarized as containing both the promises an employee believes he/she has made to the organisation as well as what the employee believes the organisation has promised in return. Employees agree to make sufficient effort, offer their skills and knowledge, have a concern for quality, and be flexible. In turn, the organisation provides pay, promotion, training, respect, and feedback. It is important to note that the contents of psychological contract are not what employees actually give and get from their employer, but rather the implicit and explicit promises that are understood to exist in association with this exchange with reciprocity at the core of the concept (Conway & Briner, 2005).

Finally, most definitions of the psychological contract share the concept of an underlying relationship which exists between the employer and the employee. However, even this notion is disputed by some researchers who believe a psychological contract does not necessarily involve the perspectives of both the organisation and employee.

The employee versus the employer perspective of the psychological contract. Employees' perceptions of their promises to the organisation and the organisation's reciprocal promises to them are fundamentally important in understanding the psychological contract. Conway and Briner (2005) argue that almost any communication from the organisation or employee might be perceived by the other party as information about the nature of promises existing between them. For example, an employee may perceive the working hours to be flexible because the supervisor promised flexible working hours during the interview. At the same time, a manager may believe an employee has promised to take on a particular role during the job interview (Conway & Briner, 2005). While events occurring inside the organisation may be a factor in shaping/forming employee expectations, most employees bring expectations to the organisation as to what he or she expects from the employer and what the

organisation expects from him or her. Pre-employment experience can help shape the initial psychological contract that an employee develops with an employer as well as how that contract develops in the future. This is especially the case for employees who have had previous experience with redundancies through restructuring or lay-offs. In addition, employees may have their perceptions shaped by a variety of forces outside of the organisation such as the experiences of family members, socialization in the school and community, the cultural context, their socio-economic status, and mass media. These pre-employment experiences are likely to be important influences on the worker's view and expectations of the employer. Employees who have survived a redundancy or have been the victim can develop careerist attitudes from these unpleasant employment experiences. In addition, non-work experiences outside of the organisation can help employees learn the nature and meaning of mutual promises with the organisation. There can also be broader economic, political, and legal changes that, in turn, shape the individual's perceptions of the psychological contract. With these never ending changes, the employee may have developed goals different from that of the organisation over time. For example, the downsizing that is occurring in companies in recent years is a principle cause that has led to a general undermining of the traditional employment agreement and dissolution of the relationship between the employer and the employee (Herriot, Manning, & Kidd, 1997).

One study, in particular, used a method called the "critical incident technique" in which survey participants (both employees and supervisors) were questioned about possible incidents which exceeded or fell below the treatment that each party expected to receive from the other (Herriot et al., 1997). Using this method, the researchers intended to discover what obligations could be inferred from the incidents. They were able to define 12 categories of organisational obligation and seven categories of employee obligation based on the survey's results. Following Rousseau and Anton

(1991), the authors expected differences between respondents to correspond with certain demographic and organisational characteristics. These included hypotheses which stated that women's attitudes would differ significantly from those of men, and that significant differences would exist based on age, length of service, the size of the organisation, and whether or not the organisation was public or private. While the group of employee participants could be broken down into categories based on the U.K. working population as described in the Employment Gazette (Office of National Statistics, 1992), the managers who participated could not be categorized into separate groups. The results of the survey prompted the authors to conclude that there is much consent regarding what makes up the psychological contract. The 19 total categories of obligations accounted for all the critical incidents generated by both parties to the contract. In an effort to discover the differences between employees' and employers' (who were represented by the managers in this study) perceptions of psychological contracts, the researchers found that employees and organisations differ with respect to their frequency of citation of certain categories of obligation, in particular the organisation's obligations to employees. For example, employees are clear about what matters to them: fair pay, safe hours and conditions and a degree of job security, while managers representing the organisation emphasized the provision of less tangible offers: humanity and recognition. Tangibles that they did stress, such as benefits, were less central to the basic transactions of time and money for work and security.

Based on the study's implications, the authors go on to warn that there is a danger of an organisation misconstruing what employees primarily want. In particular, management may seek to maintain a relational contract, perhaps to make up for inadequate basic provisions. Employees, on the other hand, expect the basic transaction of pay and a secure job for time and effort.

In light of these differences, work by Rousseau (1985, 1990) proposes that the two-dimensional framework, which was mentioned earlier in this study, distinguishes between relational and transactional agreements, underlies the psychological contract. Relational contracts, such as those which exist between managers and employees in her previous study, are focused around open-ended relationships in which both parties make considerable investments. Transactional contracts, on the other hand, focus on short-term economically-based exchanges with limited personal investment and a short-term time frame were related to careerist orientation (Rousseau, 1990). Such contracts characterize the relationship between non-management employees and the employer.

Although Rousseau (1995) mentions relational and transactional types of contracts, she suggests it is important to be familiar with different types of contracts. Psychological contract involves individual beliefs concerning terms and conditions of agreement between employee and employer. Normative contract involves numerous employees for the organisation identified in a similar manner with each considering him/herself party to the same contract. Implied contracts include observations by a third party who is not part of the agreement. Social contracts are those regarding shared beliefs of acceptable behaviour in a society. Promises as understood in western societies made it possible for organisations to plan ahead and properly deploy funds/resources in arranging new alliances. Promises are perceptions that involve a mental image of what was seen and what was understood. Employees rely on these models/images of promises and acceptance.

The author gives the example of employees participating in a survey being asked the question of what did you owe your employer five years ago and what do you owe them today? The employees responded uniformly that they received job security and pay for loyalty to the organisation and hard work. Currently, the employees said emphasis was placed on short-term goals caused by contraction in their particular

industry. Meanwhile, managers in the company view the contract as helping the business grow and still offering good salaries. On the other hand, the division manager was under pressure to meet company goals as the managers were warned of job loss if goals didn't meet projections.

In this scenario, timing of hiring was important to the newly hired employees' interpretation of the employment contract. Those hired in difficult economic times viewed their agreement with the organisation similar to that of the division manager – produce or leave. The employees working under this employment arrangement may perceive little employer commitment and look to careerist activities to survive and advance in the organisation. Employees engaged in better financial times considered his/her position close to that of the manager. One of the messages from the study was that the long-term employee didn't appreciate the suddenness/quickness with which the organisation could aggressively respond while pursuing new strategies.

The literature suggests that the psychological contract is formed by external messages and social cues. The organisation through its management gives indications of future activity such as expanding the business or presenting a deferred compensation program. These events can take place at various times during the employment process such as at hiring or when announcing company restructuring. Overt action by the organisation to support promises made is important because it helps employee buy-in to the organisation's actions and proposed intentions (Rousseau, 1995).

The psychological contract as a social exchange interaction. Blau (1964) argues that social exchange theory acts as an underpinning for the evaluation of individual psychological contracts. The formal definition of social accounts are the activities performed by those in charge of implementing change to communicate the reasons for the change to those affected by the change. However, this assumes that such accounts are perceived as sincere in nature, as Bies, Shapiro, and Cummings (1988)

found that employees will be less open to accepting social accounts if these are perceived as insincere. Once the employee develops a mindset of disapproval due to perceptions of insincerity, he or she will have a tendency to tune out communication from the organisation regarding reasons for management decisions. Paying little attention to organisational direction can encourage the employee to go off on his/her own direction and develop goals separate from the organisation. Social exchange theory suggests that relationships in organisations consist of economic and social exchanges (Blau, 1964). In the context of understanding the psychological contract, when an employee receives benefits, he or she feels obligated to reciprocate. However, Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2002) note the lack of research on the concept of reciprocity. What is known from Gouldner (1960) is that people tend to help and not injure those who help them and that what is given in return should be closely related to that received. Guest (1998) notes that workplaces have become increasingly fragmented because of newer and more flexible forms of employment. At the same time, managers have become increasingly intolerant of time-consuming and sluggish processes of negotiation under conventional employment relations systems. Consequently, promises and deals that were made in good faith in the past are quickly being broken owing to a range of market imperatives. With the decline in collective bargaining and the rise in so-called individualist values among the workforce, informal arrangements are becoming far more significant in the workplace. Arising from these contextual dynamics was a series of changes which seemingly called into question many of the assumptions of “traditional” employment relations systems. As a result, the “traditional” employment relations literature is argued to be out of touch with the changing context of the employment world. Given the increasingly idiosyncratic and diverse nature of employment, a framework like the psychological contract, reflecting the needs of the individual with implicit and unvoiced expectations about employment, can easily find

favour as an appealing, alternative paradigm for studying people at work (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006).

However, while the notion of a “contract” implies a legal agreement which is formal, written, and verbalized between two parties, the psychological contract is oriented towards subjective perceptions – or as Rousseau (1995) has stated “agreement is in the eye of the beholder.” For this reason, the potential for reaching such an agreement or finding its “zone of acceptance” is inherently problematic. In addition, a psychological contract is not subject to such contractual restrictions, because it has been exclusively constructed through the individual’s unvoiced expectations and subjective feelings (Rousseau, 1995). As a result, there is very little to prevent it from being casually and secretly changed by either party. The employee could also develop careerist attitudes very quickly and unknown to the employer from a perception entirely that of the employee. This differs greatly from a formal contract which implies that the parties have entered into an agreement freely and equally, and, in legal terms, the agreement cannot be changed without some consent between the two contracting parties. However, when it comes to an employment agreement, this is often a flawed assumption. Employment contracts are rarely made between equals, nor are they explicitly negotiated and agreed upon in the same way as buying a house or a car. When entering into a relationship with an employer, for the majority of employees, it means that they become subordinate to their employers’ power and authority, because it is the employers who control and direct the productive resources of the enterprise (Fox, 1974). In many instances, it is the employers who determine the rate of pay, the pace of work, and what benefits are offered in exchange for the employees’ physical and mental labour. If an imbalance of power is inherent in explicit, legal contracts, the prerogative of employers to direct and distribute resources as they see fit is magnified for an implicit set of expectations that the psychological contract seeks to capture. When one

considers this imbalance of power between management and employees and its implications for how unvoiced expectations are supposed to be communicated and understood, it is perhaps not surprising that authors find increasing contract violation (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). For this reason, as Cullinane and Dundon (2006) argue, it is perhaps time for the psychological contract to be recognized for what it really is - a social exchange interaction.

Types of Psychological Contracts and Commitments

Many market changes, including additional job requirements in response to new technologies and a downsized labour market, have greatly affected the traditionally established psychological contract. In response to changes, companies have become noncommittal to their employees, often offering only short-time or part-time employment contracts or full-time contracts that can be easily terminated. These changes in employment practices negatively affect the foundation of the psychological contract, and as a result, organisations have been put to the challenge to maintain such contracts without a perception of inequality developing among employees. These employment conditions can relate closely to careerist orientation. In fact, the new concept of the psychological contract often requires an organisation to maintain different, but distinct psychological contracts simultaneously (Millward & Hopkins, 1998).

An organisation's ability to create and maintain distinct contracts rests on the dual existence of both relational and transactional contracts (Rousseau, 1989b). As mentioned before, transactional obligations are associated with economic or financial rewards. Employees who understand their employment situation to be transactional usually show less commitment toward the organisation and are simply committed to the organisation for the economic benefits that they receive for the labour or services they provide. These psychological contracts are usually fleeting as they are often based on

short-term employment terms and neither the employee nor the employer has expectations of a long-term psychological contract.

Relational psychological contracts, on the other hand, are not time-bound and take both monetary and non-monetary benefits (such as loyalty and career development) into account. Employees who understand their psychological contract to be relational are often loyal and committed to their employer in return for job status, high pay, and security. Those employees which are granted and maintain relational psychological contracts often belong to the core group of employees recognized in Handy's "shamrock" structure (1989). This senior or core group is normally well-skilled or has long-time organisational experience. Their importance to the organisation's profit and growth often leads to long-term commitment from the organisation.

Transactional contracts, in comparison to relational contracts, assume positions in the "leaves" around the core of the shamrock and often involve ancillary or temporary workers (Handy, 1989). Despite once strong union movements that would have resulted in some blue-collar workers being labelled "core" or relational contract workers, the significant reductions in the number of union workers and memberships have led to blue collar and manual workers being forced into more short-term employment situations, which in turn, lead to their adoption of transactional psychological contracts.

The existence of different types of employees and the different psychological contracts that they adopt as a result of their employment situations make it possible for an organisation, as mentioned previously, to both recognize and maintain different types of psychological contracts simultaneously. For example, employees in professional, managerial, and supervisory positions will be more relational in their psychological orientation while employees in skilled manual jobs will be more transactional in their psychological orientation.

The type of psychological contract that an employee maintains with an employer can greatly affect an employee's understanding of his/her job (Millward & Hopkins, 1998). As Etziones (1961) argues, this understanding relates to moral involvement or an emotional attachment to the organisation and may be dependent upon how an employee interprets the promises embedded in the psychological contract. In the case of short-term contracts, which often result in transactional psychological contracts, promises may function as short-term goals which lead to transient awards (Millward & Hopkins, 1998). Short term goals perceived by the employee could be different in the long run than those of the organisation. Long-term contracts, however, can lead to the development of longer term goals, which can help the employee to develop a feeling of controlling his/her own destiny (Shore & Tetrick, 1991). If the psychological contract contains terms and exchanges comparable to the longer term goals of the employee, which is often the case in a relational contract, the employee may be further motivated and thereby perceive predictability in the long-term career.

Antecedents and Consequences of Relational Components of the New Psychological Contract

A number of years have elapsed since employers began initiating downsizing in an effort to keep organisations competitive and flexible. Cavanaugh and Noe (1999) argue that in response to such changes in employment practices, both academics and human resource practitioners suggest the psychological contract is also changing. Kessler (1994) suggests that a new psychological contract has evolved in which both the employer and the employee have less expectancy of long term agreements. In turn, the days of the employee being loyal to the organisation in return for job security have long gone. Today's employees are becoming more responsible for career development and are committed to their profession and not to the organisation (McLean Parks, 1990). The employee who is working in this job condition could easily consider a current job

as a stepping stone to other employment. Organisations no longer provide job security, but a platform for employees to obtain on-the-job experience, training, and career development activities. In fact, it is the employee's perception of job insecurity that has a tendency to motivate the employee toward participating in development activities as these support future employability (Cavanaugh & Noe, 1999). From the organisation's standpoint, it seems logical and advantageous that employees be involved in development activities to improve their job skills which, in turn, can relate to a better bottom line for the organisation. Ancona and Chong (1996) argues that employees who develop and update skills can provide opportunities for lateral movement and cross training, which result in increased levels of work.

Cavanaugh and Noe (1999) argue, however, that employees who wish to control their own career development are often merely taking advantage of their employer's development programs. These employees often demonstrate high rates of turnover intention; as a result, they are less likely to remain with their current employers since they have increased their employability through the organisation's development activities.

This has resulted in a new trend: the literature suggests that today's employees are now more committed to their professions than to the organisation. This is just one result of the "new psychological contract", which establishes fewer long-term commitments with employees. When it comes to career advancement, the employee understands and accepts responsibility for developing his or her career rather than leaving that development to rest with the employer. In line with this approach, Tett and Meyer (1983) argue that employees who have no long-term commitment from the organisation and who make themselves more marketable by becoming involved with career development activities will be less likely to stay with the current organisation.

Transactional and Relational Aspects of the Psychological Contracts of Temporary Workers

Temporary employees, who are otherwise known as contingent workers, are becoming a main staple of labour in today's global economy (Allen, Freeman, Russell, Reizenstein, & Rentz, 2001). A number of reasons have been put forth as to the cause of the current growth in the contingent labor sector, but the cost-benefit theory seems to be an overriding reason (Lee & Faller, 2005). In this vein, Herriot and Pemberton (1996) argue that an organisation cannot rely on hierarchical structures in today's fast moving business world and must be able to change in order to stay competitive. In response to this, contingent workers allow an organisation to become more flexible and reduce its costs while also mitigating any risks that it may encounter by offering employees permanent employment. This type of temporary employment, which is often provided to an organisation through a brokering or employment agency, keeps an organisation from being saddled with fixed overhead in the form of payroll if business is bad and employees are no longer needed. This arrangement also reduces potential litigation from disgruntled employees wanting to sue the organisation for unfair labour practices (Herriot & Pemberton, 1996). However, Lee and Faller (2005) warn that few studies have been conducted regarding the perceptions and expectations of these temporary employees. With only a short term employment arrangement, the employee could easily look at the current position as training for a better opportunity. Based on the differences between transactional and relational psychological contracts, which were discussed previously, it can be expected that the psychological contract of the contingent worker varies from that of the full-time employee. The contingent worker will generally be employed for a specific time period, usually shorter and more finite than the full-time worker. This would normally lead to the contingent worker's adoption of a transactional psychological contract. If, however, the employment agreement is

renewed, becomes open-ended, or is extended, Lee and Faller (2005) argue that the psychological contract of the temporary worker can in fact become more relational in nature.

McLean Parks, Kidder, and Gallagher (1998) go on to suggest that while temporary workers may be less likely to be offered contract renewals, conversely, employment agencies may work on and build a long-term arrangement with increased support from the host organisation, especially if the scope of the temporary worker's employment is important to the organisation. Lee and Faller (2005) suggest that this type of support may also lead the temporary worker to begin to adopt a relational psychological contract.

In addition to the age of the employee, Bergmann, Grahn, and Wyatt (1986) suggest that part-time employees have different expectancies from the organisation than those working full-time. Because part-time employees spend less time at work, they have a tendency to give importance to other areas of their lives such as family and leisure than do full-time employees who devote more of themselves to their jobs. As a consequence, the authors argue that these employees develop less of a personal identity with their jobs and are therefore less affected by employment promises that are not met by the organisation.

Social networks and the strength of employer obligations. Gargiulo and Benassi (2000) argue that members of an interconnected group cooperate with each other through relationships which are built on trust and solidarity. These ingredients help create mutual obligations among group members, which can result in rewards and coercive power (French & Raven, 1959). It is often for this reason that employees who are members of such interconnected groups offer more to the organisation in terms of doing a better job and making a substantial contribution. In turn, the organisation often reciprocates with greater obligations to this employee as compared to an employee who

is of a lesser position or who is not a member of the group (Ho, Rousseau, & Levesque, 2006).

In addition to this, Lazega and Pattison (1999), who compared advice and friendship networks, note that friendship networks often involve affective experiences shared by employees in the organisation, but that these are often merely social in nature. Ibarra and Andrews (1993) went on to find that advice network activity is less frequent, but that it is a fast way to transmit information on an informal basis. Based on the types of information relayed in the different networks, Ibarra and Andrews come to the conclusion that individuals participating in the advice network receive information that is more critical to the organisation and which adds more value than the friendship network offers. Also, the organisation should be aware that these employees in the advanced network could use their contacts and information to an advantage of advancing in the company using non-traditional means.

However, in an organisation where trust and mutual support exist, the friendship network can fulfil the communication role even better than the advice network, especially in times of organisational crisis (Krackhardt & Stern, 1988). If action is facilitated through friendship networks, employees will not only have access to information that is important to and can benefit the organisation, but they are more willing to cooperate and trust each other, which leads to the more effective functioning of an organisation (Ho et al., 2006).

However, the friendship network can also lead to the exploitation of those who are not “in the loop”. For example, Burt (2000) suggests that structural holes exist when two isolated individuals or groups are connected by an individual who often derives benefit over other employees who aren’t in a similar position. Individual employees also participate in connected networks. Therefore, employees who broker links between structural holes and connect networks occupy an elevated position that can add value to

the organisation. For this reason, these employees will have a tendency to perceive that their employer is more obliged to them than to those employees who are less connected.

Perceptions of the psychological contract based on employee age and type of employment. Guest (1998) argues that the modern workplace has become fragmented due to more flexible forms of employment. It is not uncommon for organisations to make promises today that they cannot keep tomorrow (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006). These changes in the employer/employee relationship, which often involve a transition from relational psychological contracts to transactional contracts, have been experienced first hand by many older employees (DeMeuse, Bergmann, & Lester 2001). Older employees were often hired under employment contracts at a time when relational psychological contracts were the employment agreement of choice. However, as business conditions began to change, these employees began to experience organisational changes, often including lay-offs, pay-cuts and fewer benefits, which often left them feeling less valuable to the organisation. In turn, they developed less of a sense of long-term commitment to the organisation. As a result, these older employees began to adopt more transactional psychological contracts with the employer. Because these changes happen gradually over a worker's lifetime, older employees who experience a transition from a relational to a transactional psychological contract will have more of a tendency to perceive this change over time (DeMeuse et al., 2001). Drastic organisational changes can be especially threatening to older employees who have based their perceptions of the organisation on relational psychological contracts over a long period of time.

At the same time, the younger generation has generally only had exposure to the transactional psychological contract and therefore do not often differentiate between relational and transactional contracts. In response to the weak commitments that younger employees receive from their employers, they look for more immediate work

rewards such as flexibility and quality of life (Hiltrap, 1995). In addition, they may consider a careerist job as a stepping stone to better employment. For these reasons, an employee's age can have an effect on their understanding of their employment agreement and how they react to changes in the organisation (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006).

Perceptions of the psychological contract over time. Initially, an employee agrees to a psychological contract that, over the working years of the employee, is updated and revised over time (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Unless employees' initial perceptions of the psychological contract are reinforced, employees will not automatically maintain the contract (Lester, Kickul, & Bergmann, 2007). For this reason, psychological contract obligations that remain unfulfilled (a promised promotion, salary increase, etc.) may cause employees to change their perceptions of organisational support. Also, the employee could perceive a lack of support and develop different goals than that of the organisation. Therefore, on-going fulfilment of obligations by the organisation will create credibility and confirm employees' perceptions of relational psychological contracts (Rousseau, 2001).

Employers make promises to employees that imply different levels of significance. For example, if the employer considers a promise as important and long term in nature, the employee will perceive a relational contract. In turn, employees viewing their contracts as relational will feel more secure in their employment situation and more open to organisational decisions or social accounts concerning job changes (Lester et al., 2007).

Transformation of the Psychological Contract

Continuing with the theme of changes and perceptions of psychological contract over time, this study now discusses the transformation of the psychological contract. Breach or violation of psychological contract is a special case of transformation of

psychological contract and has been empirically researched in detail. In fact, breach or violation of psychological contract has emerged as a field separate from the nature of psychological contract. Because breach of psychological contract is still a part of the psychological contract literature, a brief overview of research on breach of psychological contract will be provided. However, this is a huge field in itself and is not a focus of this research.

As mentioned before, Rousseau (1995) suggests that time is an important concept when considering the transformation of individual psychological contracts. For example, in a study conducted with MBA graduates who compared psychological contracts over time, Robinson, Kraatz, and Rousseau (1994) found that employees often considered their own level of contribution to the organisation to be the basis for their interpretations of future contract terms. Recently hired individuals had expectancies of employer obligations which included training, job security and advancement through the organisation while they themselves were willing to offer loyalty, the acceptance of company transfers and remaining with the organisation for a minimum length of time. A comparison of these MBA graduates' psychological contracts with those that they reported two years later found that five out of eight employees' obligations declined over time while three out of seven employers' obligations increased. These included advancement, higher wages and merit pay.

In addition to these changes which result over time, Rousseau argues that employees' needs also change as many accept additional responsibilities of marriage, children and caring for elderly parents. These newly acquired adult roles bring along time demands often beyond the control of the employee. Caring for family may affect the manner in which the worker approaches his or her job. For example, a contract which includes flexible working hours can be very important to a working mother with

young children. This flexibility in working hours may be less important to an older or tenured fellow worker who has fewer off-the-job obligations.

An unprecedented number of changes in today's organisations are also causing an extreme transformation in the psychological contract between employer and employee (Rousseau, 1995). As discussed before, common reasons for change can involve a company crisis or the need to act on forthcoming changes in the market place. Product development and new technologies also have materially affected employment around the world. Changing the way employees work also has an effect on the terms of their contracts. Employees are being asked to make adjustments to existing contracts so the organisation can stay competitive in these ever-changing surroundings. These changes in the employment contract being requested by the employer could serve as reason for the employee to develop careerist tendencies such as moving up the organisational ladder using non-traditional means. While there are many reasons for such change, an organisation should always maintain a confirmed reason for the changes that affect the psychological contract.

Bartunek and Franzak (1988) argues that to be transformed, current psychological contracts must be challenged to the point where employees adopt new contracts that take the place of old ones. This should be done in a way that reduces any disadvantages of creating a new contract. Transformation is unlikely to be successful if accompanied by an "accept or else" threat. Employers must remember that trust is an important item in employees' acceptance of change and that employees often question whether change can actually occur if past attempts have been unsuccessful (Bartunek & Franzak 1988). Defender or niche firms are often very change resistant organisations. Niche companies often doubt that change will ever happen, while change resistant organisations continuously attempt change without being successful. Rousseau (1995) argues that to be successful, the constant change company needs to see the attempted

program through. This is especially important as employees working for these firms begin to question management's commitment to change, which can consequentially affect psychological contracts. This change could involve a different organisational direction from those organisational goals perceived by the employee.

On this note, Herriot and Pemberton (1997) argue that a number of "management fads" have resulted in increased feelings of insecurity, inequity and powerlessness among employees, as well as decreases in risk-taking and commitment to their organisation. They go on to propose an alternative framework that allies the concept of the psychological contract as defined by Argyris (1960) to the process of legal contracting, and which is intended to emphasize the reciprocal nature of the employment relationship.

The authors note that, although the variety in contracts is immense, there are some things that all have in common. The process of contracting, which is by definition a social process, has one such commonality, and it is in this area they believe the most theoretical and practical value can be found. They argue that unknown differences in various parties' perceptions of the psychological contract can be avoided through an explicit process such as that of legal contracting. While the explicitness of each contract may vary, the vital result would be that the psychological contracting process results in each party having the same perceptions of the deal.

Their proposed model features four steps in the stages of psychological contracting: 1) inform, 2) negotiate, 3) monitor and 4) renegotiate or exit. The model is noteworthy in the sense that it is iterative by nature and that recommencement is possible if changes in conditions or environment occur. It requires both parties to be aware, at least partially, of what it wants and what it is willing to offer before communicating them to the other party. In this way, two parties have the opportunity to discover whether their wants can be matched by the others' offers. How either party

responds to the proposed contract, which can be either transactional or relational, is dependent on their perceptions of its equity and whether the contract has been honoured. It can lead to any number of outcomes, including exit from the contract or renegotiation of the contract. These opportunities for negotiation do not exist in the case of the psychological contract. Though Herriot and Pemberton's model does not feature power, situations would surely exist in which one party might be more successful at negotiating beneficial terms, or imposing them on the other. Their model also does not address the importance of trust between the two parties, nor does it specify the bases on which inequity might be perceived.

In a study in which the authors test their model in a major organisation in the United Kingdom, they note three of its advantages over the traditional psychological contract: first, the model served and would continue to serve as an example of the working relationship the company desires to have with its employees. Second, the model was not considered as another "management fad" by the workers, and third, employee self-esteem can be further developed by getting involved in the process. One caveat issued by the authors was that the trust gained could be quickly lost if agreements made were not delivered soon.

What this particular study demonstrates is that the acceptance of new terms and conditions in an agreement is critical to seeing through organisational change. Also, employees will have a higher tendency to 'buy-in' to a new psychological contract if a newly executed document is in place or the transfer is within the same organisation. Allowing employees to have a choice in the new arrangement facilitates the acceptance of change as does the creation of an agreement understood by a large number of fellow workers. Such accommodation plays an important role in the employee adjusting to change. If contract changes can be made with consent under the current agreement, continuity of the contract will result. Good faith relationships are influential in

developing accommodation and parties to the negotiation do not look for contract breach (Rousseau, 1995).

At the same time, fairness is a key ingredient for accommodation to be successful. Simply put, one party should not profit from another's loss. For example, cutting the wages of employees can be viewed as fair on the one hand and conversely unfair and opportunistic. Employees who have been asked by management to work for reduced wages, so the owner or management can take more income personally, can be considered exploitive. This could be perceived by the employee as dishonest. The employee could reciprocate with similar dishonest behaviour which is careerist in nature. On the other hand, if the reason for lower compensation is to help the company stay in business, this reason could be viewed as doing the right thing.

In conclusion, contract transformation becomes most important when new contracts are formed for any number of reasons. The changing global picture forces companies to conduct alternatives that affect both wage earners and management. While transformation involves executing a new agreement in place of an existing one, a successful transformation should ideally result in a new contract with no violation. Nonetheless, the literature does suggest that a fine line exists between psychological violations and transformations.

Breach and violation of the psychological contract. Contract transformation becomes more important when new contracts are formed for any number of reasons. The changing global picture forces companies to conduct alternatives that affect both wage earner and management. Stated earlier, transformation involves executing a new agreement in place of an existing one which hopefully results in a new contract with no violation. However, oftentimes, the new contract is perceived as a breach or violation of the existing psychological contract.

According to Conway and Briner (2005), breach is probably the most widely discussed concept in psychological contract theory as it is the main way of understanding how the psychological contract affects the feelings, attitudes, and behaviours of employees. Breach is seen as occurring relatively frequently at work because of the many factors that can affect the employment relationship.

The idea of a breach of the psychological contract is a metaphor taken from legal contracts where a breach is considered to be a less than perfect performance by one of the parties. Robinson and Rousseau (1994) argue that a breach occurs when one party perceives another to have failed to fulfil promised obligations. Researchers used the term “breach” and “violation” interchangeably until Morrison and Robinson (1997) made a key distinction that is now accepted by most researchers. They now describe “breach” as a cognitive comparison of what has been received and what was promised and “violation” as the extreme affective or emotional reaction that may accompany breaches. An employee whose employment agreement has been violated may have reason to develop goals different from the organisation and view the current job as a stepping stone for a better employment setting. Compared to research which has been done on the nature of the psychological contract, much more research has been carried out on psychological contract breach.

While contract violation can run the gamut from subtle misperceptions to stark breaches of good faith, in organisations, violated legal contracts are at the heart of many lawsuits brought by employees (Bies & Taylor, 1993). In general, researchers believe that psychological contract breach can also have serious consequences for employees and organisations, viewing breach as an important way employees evaluate the state of their psychological contract. Empirical studies have found breach to be related to lower employee well-being and negative attitudes towards the job and the organisation. These work attitudes, which are defined as positive or negative evaluation judgments of one’s

job, can include: low job satisfaction, lower job performance, reduced levels of organisational citizenship behaviours, turnover intentions, and an early exit from the organisation (Conway & Briner, 2005). Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) suggest that these attitudes result from the fact that employees do not exhibit immediate rational responses to negative events at work, but instead demonstrate negative emotional responses. The literature posits that psychological contract violations can cause frustration and anger, while Raja et al. (2004) argue that breach increases the feeling of violation. Mistrust is another affective reaction to breach which can be a dominant component when negative events materialize (Young & Daniel, 2003). Although many empirical studies look at mistrust differently from violation when breach occurs, employees can become skeptical of the organisation's integrity and become hostile against organisational directions. Regardless of the negative response, these outcomes of breach can cause high costs to the organisation and have a negative effect on business operations.

In another study, Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, and Bravo (2007) carried out a meta-analysis and found an average effect size of $-.45$ for the relationship between psychological contract breach and job satisfaction across 28 studies. Looking at the relationship between psychological contract breach and turnover intentions, the average effect size was $.34$ across 22 studies. The authors found an average effect size of $.05$ for the relationship between psychological contract breach and actual turnover across 5 studies. For the relationship between psychological contract breach and OCB, the average effect size was $-.11$ across 21 studies. Lastly, for the relationship between psychological contract breach and in-role performance, the average effect size was $-.20$ across 16 studies.

Despite so much evidence supporting the negative impacts of psychological contract breach, Rousseau (1995) contends that contract violations can be survived

notwithstanding possible harm to reputation and career. She argues that most contracts undergo some inadvertent violation during the life of the agreement and that there are various ways that contracts can be breached. In a corporate setting, a new employee may be promised opportunities that never develop. Managers have been known to promise one thing but fail to deliver. As promotions or demotions take place, employees whose supervisor has been affected by the change may be left with unfulfilled promises. In some cases, contracts are known to fail from reduced communication and not from contract breach. For example, the problem of contract breach can take place in human resources with mixed messages and different promises being made by and for different people.

Although violation may be common among contract holders, there are familiar scenarios where breach has a strong tendency to occur. Lack of trust in the organisation and a history of contract breach on the organisation's behalf can lead to a greater frequency of breach. Employees who find themselves in no-win situations or who see no value in the employer-employee relationship will have a greater tendency to breach agreements (Rousseau, 1995). With these no-win issues facing the employee, he/she could be seen to exhibit careerist tendencies such as establishing goals which are different from the organisation. Conversely, strong rapport with the organisation, supervisors and colleagues, and an on-going employment relationship will provide a stronger culture and more reliable work setting, thereby reducing violations.

Although management would like to maintain relationships that work in their favour – strong employee loyalty without the burden of offering a job guarantee or employer commitment, unfortunately, does not work that way in the real world. Trust in one's employer is all but gone and those jobs which are often available are usually only based on short-term contracts. Employees who feel that their employment contracts have been violated have the right to voice their opinions to their supervisors. If this is

ineffective, an employee still has the option of voicing the problem to human resources, filing a grievance or even speaking to another superior.

Changes in circumstances involving employer-employee relationships can be dramatic. Unfortunately, unpredictable business and global demands can create settings in which sudden and dramatic changes occur. These can force organisations to react by terminating employees and thereby breaching the employment contract. Employees who survive these types of organisational decisions may develop careerist tendencies on the current job or in a subsequent position. In comparison, a more gradual change or 'drift' occurs when contract adjustment takes place over several years. Drift can be positive for the organisation and the employee. For example, as the organisation goes through changes over time, drift creates flexibility in answer to these changes. Relationships change, especially when lasting over an extended period of time. For these reasons, not all change can be considered a breach of contract. However, it should be the goal of all employees to work toward continuity and the common good while recognizing that change will naturally occur over time (Rousseau, 1995).

Possible reasons for change. External events such as company profit/loss for example, can have a direct effect. The contracting parties will have a tendency to change over time. A contract executed and agreed upon by younger workers may contain terms and conditions that could be less attractive as the employee grows older. These changes often affect the employer and the employee's understanding of the terms and conditions of the agreement.

The changing work business climate causes organisations to react in ways that change the psychological contract which in turn could lead to employee to careerist activities. These external changes are noticeable in a number of situations. Employees who work for companies like IBM that offered lifetime employment look more to employability now than before. Various types of employment contracts in the same

company is a departure from 'one size fits all' (Handy, 1989). A company that did everything internally and now outsources a majority of its functions except for a core employee group is not in the minority among multinationals as it once was (Handy, 1989). Strong union activity in some industries is becoming less so in today's world markets in favour of combined labour-management developments (Kelly & Harrison, 1992). Job functions in past years were individualistic in nature while teamwork is stressed as a better way forward (Handy, 1989).

Product development and new technologies have materially affected employment around the world. Although technology should be beneficial to the organisation, it also can be detrimental as employees exhibiting careerist orientation may use these same technologies to their personal advantage. Changing the way employees work also has an effect on the terms of their contracts. Employees are being asked to make adjustments to existing contracts so the organisation can stay competitive in these ever-changing surroundings. Accommodation plays an important role in the employee adjusting to change. If contract changes can be made with consent under the current agreement, continuity results. Good faith relationships are influential in developing accommodation and parties to the negotiation do not look for contract change (Rousseau, 1995).

Fairness is a key ingredient for accommodation to be successful. Simply put, one party should not profit from another's loss. For example, cutting the wages of employees can be viewed as fair on the one hand and conversely unfair and opportunistic. Employees who have been asked by management to work for reduced wages so the owner can take more income personally can be considered exploitive. On the other hand, if the reason for lower compensation is to help the company stay in business, this reason could be viewed as doing the right thing.

Measurement of the Psychological Contract

In the past research, psychological contract has been measured through survey questionnaires. One of the widely used scales to measure the nature of psychological contract between the employer and employee was developed by Rousseau (2000). Several studies used different scales to measure psychological contract (Mowday et al., 1982; DeMeuse et al., 2001; & Lee & Faller, 2005). Given the prevalence of these scales, this study provides a brief overview.

In a Psychological Contract Technical Report, Rousseau (2000) received 630 Psychological Contract Inventory questionnaires of which 492 were from Western Pennsylvania, U.S. Of the respondents, 424 had worked previously before responding to the survey and 68 were previously employed outside the U.S. In the U.S., 33 members of the University of Pittsburgh Executive MBA program had at least seven years job experience before completing the survey. The Asian study included full-time employees taking evening classes. They ranged in age from 19 to 62 with an average age of 32. The average years worked by this group was 9.3 years with 3 different companies.

Rousseau (2000) created the Psychological Contract Inventory (PCI) to assess the generalizability of the psychological contract in organisational research and as a self assessment device for professional education. The PCI can be etic in nature that focuses on generalisable features as well as emic in nature which focuses on local content. Research in the past was linked with emic assessments while characteristics of the employment agreement are etic in nature (Rousseau, & Wade-Benzoni, 1994; Rousseau, 1995). The psychological contract is based upon the belief that promises have been exchanged (Rousseau, 1989b).

Promissory agreements can take many forms. MacNeil (1985) suggested that contracts can be transactional/short-term or relational/open ended. Rousseau and Wade-Benzoni (1994) suggested that contracts can be relational, balanced/hybrid to relational

and transactional, transactional, and transitional reflecting organisational change. Certain types of these contracts can provide reasons for the employee to develop careerist orientation. Rousseau (1990) posits that transactional psychological contract can be related to careerist orientation.

The PCI instrument is structured to record the employee's obligation to the employer and the employer's obligation to the employee. Each question used a scale from 1 (not at all) to 5 (to a great extent). A sample question was "Consider your relationship with your employer. To what extent has your employer made the following commitment to you?"

Regarding the scale mentioning employer obligations, "To what extent do you believe the commitments your employer has made to you are the responsibility of the following; a) your co-workers/work group, b) your boss/manager, c) senior management, d) the organisation generally, e) other(s).

Respondents to the PCI survey totalled 492 in the U.S. and 138 in the Far East. The respondents had various work experience. Different economic conditions from those in the U.S. prevailed in the Far East during the survey process. Eastern culture is often part of a collective society rather than an individualistic one.

The results of scale observation were separated into six sections:

- 1.) Identification of Four-Item Scales – Four items were selected from the original five items which were based upon item total correlations and initial factor analysis. Several scales did meet standards for convergence and reliability (Cronbach .70). A three-item version did meet reliability standards.
- 2.) Item Level Factor Analysis – Was carried out on both the U.S. and the Far Eastern population. The results indicated that the U.S. sample was highly consistent with the total sample but the Far Eastern sample implied certain divergent patterns. A possible reason for the difference may be due to cultural differences in interpretation or possibly

due to variation in HR strategies and psychological contract forms used in Far Eastern organisations.

3.) Hierarchical Factor Analysis – This analysis attempted to identify relationships in obligation scales using PCI for employee and employer. Transition scales were different obligation measures while balanced and relational were inter-related in the employee examination. For the employee analysis transition measures were found to be different from obligation measures while relational and balanced scales were highly related.

4.) Descriptive Statistics and U.S./Far Eastern Mean Comparisons – The results indicate that the U.S. sample scored higher on obligations for both employee and employer plus higher levels of fulfilment for employee and employer when compared to the Far Eastern sample. The low organisation commitment among Far Eastern workers may have resulted from the shortage in the Far Eastern labour market.

5.) Correlations and Multiple Regression Analysis – Correlations were presented and regression analysis was carried out. Reliability of employee and employer fulfilment was .84 and .74 (Cronbach's alpha). The findings note that there may be comparability between employee and employer in levels of obligations that can develop a sense of psychological contract fulfilment for transactional obligations.

6.) Exploratory Analysis of Responsibility Measures – Employees responding to the PCI in the Far East rated fellow workers more responsible than did U.S. participants. The U.S. respondents rated senior management significantly higher. Those who place their manager highly responsible score lower in employee and employer mistrust. The data posits that those considering the employer's commitments belonging to the organisation/management have higher levels of relational and balanced obligations and lower levels of transaction and transitional scores.

The analysis signifies that eleven of fourteen PCI obligations scales meet requirement for reliability and viability. Suggestions for revisions are considered. Some evidence has been provided for cross-national generalizability of PCI (Rousseau, 2000).

Using the OCQ 15 item scale (Mowday et al., 1982), Millward and Hopkins (1998) distributed 1,200 questionnaires to employees of four different U.K. based companies. Male and female employees totalling 476 between the ages of 16 to 60 completed questionnaires for a 39.7 response rate. The average age was 33 years old (SD = 12.0). The average hours worked ranged from 1 to 70 hours per week with a mode of 40 and a mean of 38.20 (SD = 2.03). Responses were made on a 7 point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A sample question is “I talk up the organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.” The scale obtained a Cronbach’s alpha of .69.

DeMeuse et al. (2001) surveyed 204 individuals across three generations. Participants were 68 college students along with one parent and one grandparent evenly divided. 88 percent of the college students were under age 25, 93 percent of the parents were ages 41-60 and 99 percent of the grandparents were over age 60. 75 percent of the students were employed and 94 percent of the parents were employed with grandparents mostly retired at 89 percent. 56 percent of all participants were female. Respondents completed a 24 item Psychological Contract survey that asked their perception of the psychological contract in the 1950s, 1960s, 1970s, 1980s, 1990s, 2000, and beyond (Alliger & Williams, 1993; Tsang & Vidulich, 1994). A 5 point Likert scale was used. Questions ranged from 1 (factor is/was not present at all) to 5 (factor is/was present in very large amounts). The survey was to measure socio-emotional loyalty to each other (Eisenhardt & Schoonhoven, 1990). The coefficient alpha was .93 for the 1950s and 1960s, .93 for the 1970s and 1980s, .91 for the 1990s, and .93 for 2000 and beyond.

Lester, Kickul, and Bergmann (2007) distributed 210 surveys and collected 195 for a .93 response rate from employees in the travel/leisure business of which .34 were male and .66 were female with an average age of 38.90 years. The average tenure was 2.5 years. 87 percent were high school graduates and two thirds looked to English as their first language. Robinson and Morrison's (1995) 21-item scale plus an additional 10 items were used. All items were recorded on a five-point scale ranging from -2 (Much less than promised) to +2 (much more than promised). The scales internal consistency was .91.

Conclusion

Psychological contract and careerist orientation are linked by past research (Rousseau, 1990). This study suggests that psychological contract and careerist orientation are related - TPC is positively related to CO while RPC is negatively related. The literature found that employees who perceive that they have no commitment from their employer may have a greater tendency to exhibit careerist behaviour, while looking to advance in the organisation using non-traditional means or being dishonest in dealing with fellow workers. While much of the recent psychological contract literature involves breach or violation, it is often the nature of the psychological contract that drives the employee/employer employment agreement.

The employee who is working under a TPC or short term employment agreement may have to be more aware of other job opportunities and have personal goals different from that of the organisation. On the other hand, employees who have an RPC or long term open relationship with the employer will not often exhibit careerist behaviour. It is often the nature of the psychological contract that will be an antecedent to employer loyalty or careerist orientation.

Careerist Orientation

Introduction - The Concept of a Career

According to Tolbert (1996), in the western world, the notion of a career is one that involves long-term employment with a single employer and movement through a series of interconnected and increasingly prestigious and more powerful jobs arranged within a hierarchy. This traditional definition, which is supported by the work of Weber (1947), involves learning effective strategies of organizing work and accepting bureaucracy as a model for organisations. Over time, this view has come to dominate the contemporary concept of a “career” and is reflected in psychological literature on careers, as well as research in economics and sociology on internal labour markets.

In reality, however, it is not clear that life-long or even long-term employment with a single organisation has ever been the dominant career pattern in the United States. Even if this were the case in the past, the future seems to be headed toward the demise of the popular, traditional career model even in the world of academic scholars (Tolbert, 1996). As organisations become less important for employees in defining their career pathways, the role of occupational identity, rather than organisational identity, will become increasingly more significant.

Background

Early studies. Research on occupations and careers is a relatively recent phenomenon, which was motivated by an academic interest in how industrial systems of production affect social institutions and relationships. The first serious interest in this area centred on workers in a given occupation and this continued up until the post-World War II era, at which point, new interest began to develop in the determinants of the differences between jobs and occupations. The first studies compared differences between occupational groups and their defining characteristics, including occupational persistence, job tenure and shifting between occupational categories. White collar and

skilled workers tended to have more stable careers in traditional single employer/single occupation situations, than did semi-skilled and unskilled workers. The research also demonstrated that career shifts were more likely to occur within manual or non-manual occupations, rather than involving a cross-over from manual to non-manual occupations or vice versa. However, self-employed people were the most likely to bridge this gap. A third finding was that the likelihood of upward mobility was affected by both the employee's own educational achievement and the occupational status of the employee's father.

More recent research. Research of the 1970s involved debates over determinants of career outcomes concerning the relative importance of individual characteristics such as social class compared to the level of education completed (Tolbert, 1996). As the 1970s came to an end, there was a resurgence of interest in the notion of separate and distinct markets in the United States. Bibb and Form (1977) examined structured economic divisions as determinants of individual career outcomes positing that there are two different systems of employment relationships, each associated with correspondingly different labour markets and individual skills. In one system, jobs were arranged in ladders with well-defined maps of skill progression (DiPrete & Soule, 1988; Osterman, 1984; Rosenbaum, 1984). These employment relationships were seen to be orderly and predictable. In the other systems, jobs were seen to be largely unconnected and not requiring special skills or training. Such jobs often had a short tenure and involved disorderly and unpredictable job sequences.

Short term occupations. It is important to note, however, that certain occupations have always tended to involve the type of work that is based on short-term or project-specific contracts, which often involve different employers. Film crews and studio musicians are two examples of such professions, and agricultural and construction workers share a similar history. As increasingly turbulent economic

conditions, increased competition in product markets, and rapid changes in technology make limited-term employment more commonplace, these types of occupations characterize something that is now a recent and growing trend for many professions. Even professions which have been known throughout history for stability and long-term employer-employee relationships are beginning to follow this trend. In academia, for instance, only 12 percent of all full-time university faculty claimed to have “temporary” or non-tenured positions in 1984, but by 1992 that figure had risen to almost 20 percent, while only 15 percent of the institutions reported that they had not experienced a decline in the number of temporary academics. Science, engineering, computer systems analysis and registered nursing are other occupations in which a “temp” position status was considered an important element of the profession, although, temporary workers have become common today.

Career Development

As this study will discuss later, this changing concept of career has also introduced changes in the perception of the ways in which one can enhance career growth. Although a precise definition of career planning depends on whether it is viewed from the individual or the organisational perspective, much of the literature on careers has focused on the individual view in which career management is defined as a process by which individuals develop, implement, and monitor career goals and strategies by and for themselves. A broader perspective would treat the wider environment—professional, organisational, and cultural—as a reference point for individual career aspirations (Baruch, 2004).

Individual versus organisational needs. At the same time, balancing individual and organisational needs is the goal of many organisational career models. Despite the fact that Gutteridge, Leibowitz, and Shore (1993) made a case for career development changing from the employee’s responsibility to the employer’s

responsibility in the early 1990s, there again seems to be a shifting back to an individual orientation of career management. This follows a general trend in western societies to emphasize individualism rather than collectivism. At the organisational level, the need to satisfy and comply with individual and organisational requirements has long been established, and individual aspirations are developed within organisational contexts and career systems.

While at one time, individuals would have assumed to be employed by a particular organisation for their entire working lives, in many cases they now only expect to work for an organisation for a short period of time which may only entail a period of two to three years.

Planning horizons have shortened, the future needs of organisations have become less clear, and as a result, both individuals and organisations struggle to redefine careers and the role that each should play in employees' career development. The crux of this shift has been from career paths that offer secure employment for everyone to those that provide opportunities for individual career development. Sullivan (1999) has identified two streams of research in career studies in response to this trend. The first involves developmental stage theories and the second discusses the boundaryless career – a phenomenon which emerged during the late 1990s.

Job change. As a result of the changing concept of career, employees view changing jobs as a way of career growth. While moving from one job to another within or outside the company, it is important for the employee to develop the skills to adapt and learn the new position in a timely manner. Feldman (1988) argues that skills and performance evaluations are important to the task employee. Feldman and Brett (1993) found that new hires were usually given time to adjust along with sufficient training in order to become profitable to the organisation. Those transferring from another department or organisation were expected to be at a higher level of performance without

as much assistance and in a short period of time. Predictors of the employee's getting up to speed is related to organisational support and perceived amount of change between the prior job and the new one.

Settling into a new job setting can be stressful to the new employee, especially during the period in the approval process. Defined trend outcomes from stress can be poor physical health, emotional anxiety and burnout. Attribution theory refers to procedures followed by new employees in order to ascertain what important job function to focus on and the organisation's response to these decisions. The newly hired employee must learn how and what to study. A supervisor or experienced co-worker can provide valuable support and direction (Fisher, 1985). Organisations can be influential in the employee's decision making process through rewards for good performances and chastisement for those who don't do well. Skuterud (2005) suggest that the procedure of changing careers takes into account influencing variables, decision situations and decision-making implementation – while considering personal idiosyncrasies and differences.

Problem recognition. Problem recognition involves employee decisions to correct the discrepancy gap of career dissatisfaction. Discrepancy is the gap between the ideal state of the employee's career role and the actual or current career position. If the employee makes a decision in an attempt to change or reduce the discrepancy, he/she can change the current state of affairs with the current job, lower expectancies in the ideal career role, or tolerate the level of dissatisfaction in the gap between the two roles. Work and non-work roles may be differentiated by different variables such as personality, disposition, or age. A number of factors could alter the level of fulfilment with the current job such as family issues, advancing age and incompatibility of employee goals compared to employer goals.

The literature suggests that individuals play many roles throughout their lifetime with varying importance. Levinson (1976) argues that different stages of an employee's career such as early adult, mid-life and late adult can involve periods of transition where both mobility and stability are examined. Super (1957) argues that the degree of difference between career expectation and career roles should be minimized to enjoy career satisfaction. If there is a perceived discrepancy sufficiently large enough to generate feelings of career dissatisfaction, this often results in problem recognition.

Ideal state. Changes in the ideal state or career role expectations can initiate problem recognition. External factors can influence the ideal state employees who experience a discrepancy between current job and ideal state. These employees must often decide whether they will continue to tolerate this situation or not. Some employees may be better suited to tolerate uncomfortable situations than other co-workers. External events such as family or personal crisis, poor job review or health issues often hasten problem recognition. Some employees are forced to live with discrepancies due to external factors. For example, a single mother with little education in a dead end job may not be happy in her current environment but external factors leave her few alternatives. Most employees during their career experience a discrepancy between what they have and what they would like to have.

After the employee comes to the conclusion that it is time to seek alternatives, he/she has to come up with a plan of action. Initially, preliminary information is gathered and processed to determine a future course of action and whether other external factors have occurred that may affect going forward – such as getting an unexpected promotion, or receiving a new job offer.

Internal/external search. Generating employment alternatives to consider and review can be done internally or externally. An internal search may offer more control over the process as the employee is more familiar with organisational procedures and

fellow workers. An external search may be more risky, costly, and time consuming. Once the information is collected and digested, the employee can evaluate the alternatives. In making the choice (based upon an evaluation process), he/she can choose by making a minimum standard, listing attributes by order of importance and applying a minimum level to each attribute. After the decision is made to accept an alternative, the change is carried out initiating a transition period. These transition outcomes can result in actual job changes and changes can result in satisfaction and commitment (Skuterud, 2005).

Career Flexibility

Alternative employee arrangements. Today's employers face a highly competitive global market. Flexibility has become essential to coping with continually changing trends and positions. To meet these demands, employers recruit and select people who possess multiple competencies. Commitment is still important, as is loyalty, but such employee sentiments now tend to be toward the profession, the team or the project, and not necessarily toward the organisation. Non-traditional workers, people who work in alternative employment arrangements such as on-call workers, independent contractors, temporary workers, agency workers, or contingency workers, now make up an increasing proportion of the workforce. While some of these individuals personally opt for non-traditional paths, others feel they have no choice but to take on one of these types of jobs due to a lack of opportunity in the full-time sector. One clear trend that is developing is the rising proportion of people who are forced to work multiple part-time jobs because they cannot find full-time employment (Baruch, 2004).

Evolution of the organisational career. The need for organisational flexibility has also spawned growth in the temporary or "temp" service sector. While this may benefit employers, it has had many adverse consequences for their staff. Generally,

temporary employees tend to receive less training, lower pay, no job stability, and ambiguous job security compared to permanent workers.

Since the Industrial Revolution, the organisational career evolved as the norm, even though the traditional organisational career was never applicable to all.

Redundancies, which started in the late 1980s, became frequent and began to take place on a large scale. Even in Japan, lifelong employment was promised, but only provided by those large firms which employed one-third of the nation's workforce. Still, this remained the role model for a "proper" and desired career. Success was defined by progression up the hierarchy in these individual organisations. Employees' expectations, or what they anticipated to receive from the organisation and their career, were derived from these long-term relationships. Over time, as employment relationships weakened, individuals began to take on the role of managing their own careers and this neutralized the organisation's role as a partner in career management (Baruch, 2004).

Employability

Arthur and Rousseau (1996) argue that employment today focuses upon cultivating and enhancing employees' skills and capabilities. This is critical today as organisational structuring has done away with job security. Today's employee must rely on him/herself. Burack and Singh (1995) note that new technology in industry make today's employee both expendable and key to organisational growth and profit. To be successful going forward, the organisational management must balance and manage this paradox.

Kanter (1989) suggests that employers offer a new form of security, that being, employability security. In other words, skills obtained in today's job will build the employee's value for further employment. The build-up of capital skills will provide a good foundation for future job opportunities. Hall and Moss (1998) argue the new

employment contract involves the organisation providing employment opportunity for the employee to develop portable skills. The authors posit that today's employment agreement in the current job market is transactional in nature. Core employees especially, are provided job opportunities to develop their career that translates to employability. So, notwithstanding differences of goals between employer and employee, employability security can benefit both parties. Career growth opportunities are then important for employees in a competitive work place. Bedeian, Kemery, and Pizzolatto (1991) report that employees in an organisation that is not providing adequate growth opportunities will cause them to consider leaving early.

The literature suggests that many employees who desire career advancement and who participate in opportunities provided by the employer for skill development may also hold the beliefs that characterize careerist orientation which underlies the importance of examining the concept further. Although there may be differences of goals between employer and employee, employability security can benefit both parties. Chay and Aryee (1999) argue that employers do not offer job opportunities today but can provide career growth that in turn can result in employability security for the employee. Kanter (1989) suggests that organisations will be required to invest in their employees in order to maintain their skill level thus staying competitive in the job marketplace.

Overview of Careerist Orientation

The concepts of career, career development, and increasing emphasis on organisational flexibility have led to changes in the mindset of employees in terms of career advancement. In view of the changing concept of careers over the last three decades, an important concept that has gained research attention is careerist orientation. Careerist orientation encourages career advancement through non-performance based means. The literature suggests the new careerism may have negative implication for the

organisation in the long run (Feldman, 1985). It would be expected that the careerist employee would be looking for other job opportunities while still at the current job. In this setting, employees may have fewer interpersonal relationships with coworkers and exhibit impression management to give an outward appearance of prosperity and accomplishment. Non-performance-based activities include the use of social relationships with co-workers, supervisors, and other organisational mentors. Feldman (1985) argues that careerist orientation lends itself to increased employee turnover.

Specific aspects. Feldman and Weitz (1991) list seven beliefs about a careerist orientation to work:

1. It is difficult to advance in organisations through merit alone.
2. It is often necessary to use social relationships with superiors, co-workers, and friends to get ahead.
3. It is important to cultivate the appearance of being successful; the appearance of being successful can be as instrumental in terms of advancement as competence.
4. It is sometimes necessary to engage in deceptive behaviour to get promotions to which one feels entitled.
5. It is important to recognize that, in the long run, the individual's career goals will be inconsistent with the interests of the organisation; therefore, ultimately it is each person for himself or herself.
6. Loyalty to an employer is unlikely to get rewarded.
7. In order to get ahead, it is sometimes necessary to take actions that promote personal advancement rather than those that promote the company's best interests.

Four dimensions of careerist orientation. Consistent with this past research, Feldman (1985) and Feldman and Weitz, (1991) suggest that there are four dimensions

to careerist orientation. The first dimension is dishonesty. An employee with a strong careerist orientation may believe that competence is not enough to advance and therefore resort to devious or dishonest means to get ahead in his or her career. The second dimension is the perceived incompatibility between organisational goals and the individual's goals (Feldman, 1985). For example, employees away from home office control and who are not closely supervised may have a propensity to run a subsidiary or division of the company in their own way rather than keeping in line with the mandates of the organisation. Since such an individual may not identify with the organisation or its goals, he or she is more likely to leave the organisation when a better job becomes available elsewhere (Blau & Boal, 1987; 1989). Long-term incompatibility of personal and organisational goals suggests that a careerist orientation negatively affects work attitudes because it sensitizes individuals both to the current negative aspects of their jobs and potential problems in future career movement.

The third dimension of careerist orientation is that individuals tend to look out for themselves in pursuing their careers. Many of these employees believe achievements have to be ratified by publicity (Lasch, 1979). Similarly, the fourth dimension is impression management. Careerists believe that appearances are important in upward career mobility and that merit alone is insufficient (Feldman & Klich, 1991). This type of employee concentrates on image building more than hard work (Bolino, 1999). Therefore, individuals high on careerist orientation are likely to be active opportunity seekers inside and outside the organisation with the intention of changing jobs. In line with this, for careerists, interpersonal relationships become crucial, the perception of success becomes as important as measurable success, and political behaviour becomes necessary to advance.

Comparison of careerist orientation to protean career. Chay and Aryee (1999) compared careerist orientation to the idea of the protean career as it was

introduced by Hall in 1976. The protean career is a career that is driven by the person, not the organisation, and will be reinvented by the person from time to time, as the person develops and the environment changes. Generally, such a career is driven by an individual's search for self-fulfilment. As a career concept, the protean career is useful because it reflects the transformation of the employment relationship from a relational one to a transactional one and highlights the need for career aspirants to take charge of their careers in an increasingly changing work environment. However, the main difference between the careerist orientation and the protean career lies in the fact that careerist orientation focuses exclusively on non-performance means of career advancement. Thus, the careerist is more negatively related to his/her approach as opposed to the employee who exhibits a protean attitude which is more positive in nature.

Chay and Aryee (1999) believe the cause of the protean and careerist orientations can be attributed to the shift from an employee's perception of job security to one of employability security. Despite many organisational efforts, career growth opportunities offered by the organisation are often insufficient to offset the employee's mistrust of the employer. Despite the limited research on careerist orientation, many other research veins have linked individual and contextual variables with a multitude of career dimensions including career mobility, career growth, salary, and job satisfaction.

Career growth characteristics. There is a strong theoretical rationale which suggests that personality variables should be included in models of career success. Many researchers have tried to identify contextual situations and individual characteristics that lead to career growth. For example, Kilduff and Day (1994) tracked an M.B.A. graduating class for five years to see what effect personality has on career mobility. They divided the students into two groups: high self-monitors (those who are sensitive and responsive to social and interpersonal cues to situational appropriateness)

and low self-monitors (those who are less responsive). The authors found that high self-monitors take their cues from others on how to behave and that they solve their conflicts through collaboration and compromise. As a result, the high self-monitors were more likely to get promotions and to change employers.

In addition to self-monitoring, there is also evidence that proactive individuals approach their jobs and careers differently than less proactive people. Proactive personalities create situations that enhance the likelihood of high levels of job performance and are more likely to manage their careers. Less proactive people react to their environments rather than create them: they maintain the status quo (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999). In their study, Seibert et al. (1999) showed that a proactive personality was significantly and positively associated with the employees' current salary, the number of promotions received, and their career satisfaction.

Antecedents of Careerist Orientation

Changing attitudes. Strategic refocusing, business reengineering, and downsizing in times of a financial crunch have become common events in the face of ever increasing global competition (Sullivan, 1999). As a result, the attitude of the individual employee toward his/her career development has changed over the years where the message seems to be that the employee has to look out for his/her interest and not rely on the possible fruition of a long-term career planning, if any, proposed by the employer. Thus, an employee might form an attitude termed "careerist orientation" that getting ahead in one's career will be best accomplished by non-performance means (Feldman, 1985).

There seems to be a general trend toward an increase in the level of careerist orientation of the workforce in the global economy. While the market forces are affecting every company, ultimately it is the perception of the individual about the

nature of obligations the organisation has toward the individual that would affect the level of careerist orientation of that employee.

Careerist orientation refers to certain kinds of beliefs that individuals hold about career advancement (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). The authors argued that careerist orientation has an adverse effect on work attitudes because the individual is focused on what is missing in the workplace. Since no work place is perfect, any negative incident or the absence of any desirable attribute only reaffirm the negative work attitudes and behaviours of the employee with a high careerist orientation. One of the careerist's central beliefs is that in the long run the individual's career goals and the organisation's goals for the individual are inconsistent and so, the individual has to look out for his/her own interests and loyalty toward the organisation would not be eventually rewarded. As previously mentioned, this belief is similar to the idea of "protean career" introduced by Hall (1976), where the employee is directing his/her career and is not restricted to personal events in any particular company. Hall (1976) suggests that the protean career portrays the employee's job history and quest for self-fulfilment. The author argues that in today's unstructured job setting, the protean career is helpful as it recognizes the change from relational to transactional in the employment agreement. On the other hand, an employee's work attitude can be influenced by viewpoints of careerist orientation. Arthur and Rousseau (1996); Peiperl and Baruch (1997) argue that this change has influenced organisational career arrangements. The authors state that work attitudes are negatively affected by careerist orientation as it makes one aware of the mundane aspects of the job along with negative career advancement issues. Originally considered an aspect of individualistic culture, Shweder and Sullivan (1993) argue that the idea is not restricted to culture.

Early turnover. Goodman, Atkin, and Schoorman (1983) posit that the job is important to the career professional who works hard at his/her job, but who is often

looking for other career opportunities. The careerist looks for promotion or the chance to change jobs which could result from a need for recognition (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). Lasch (1979) found achievement was important to the careerist and should be validated by publicity, as the accomplishment itself may not be a sufficient reward. The author suggests that in some situations, the careerist should consider accepting another position after a short term at the present job before his/her performance can be evaluated, which may not support the image presented in the publicity. The literature relates that the careerist will attempt to make a big impression on the new job and then move on. Landau and Hammer (1986) found the careerist adversely reacts to negative feedback in his/her job setting which may suggest an additional reason for an intention to leave. Alternatively, Louis (1982) found some careerists look to turnover just for the sake of moving on. The author found one of the respondents in the survey who perceived job changes just to look good on the employee's resume.

Many employees consider leaving their current form of employment for another job but never follow through with the transfer. Feldman (1985, 1988) argues that the careerist will be the type of employee who follows through with his/her intention to leave. Louis (1982) observed that the careerist who follows a pattern of actual turnover causes these employees to make career decisions too early, before they have adequate time to know their real interests. Blau and Boal (1987, 1989) suggest careerist orientation is related to job change inside the company and outside the organisation although constant change may result in the careerist making a poor career decision.

Many of today's employment contracts are short term and financially focused, thus making compensation an important discussion point between employee and employer. Feldman and Weitz (1991) suggest employees high on careerist orientation will demand and receive higher compensation than the employee who is a non-careerist. The authors argue that many employees will not change jobs without an offer of salary

increase as most change of employment involves some cost in transaction. These costs could include such items as longer commuting costs, possible training or preparation expense, and moving of household or educational expense for children in different school setting.

Political behaviour. Feldman and Weitz (1991) argue that people with high careerist orientation are also likely to endorse the use of impression management tactics, political, and Machiavellian behaviours. Thus, unlike Hall and Moss (1998) who focus on performance-related factors (e.g., skill acquisition, working hard) for career advancement, Feldman and Weitz conceptualize careerist orientation as emphasizing non-performance-based means. Though performance and competence continue to be somewhat relevant for someone high on careerist orientation, these are not viewed as solely adequate for career advancement and one has to rely on other means to move ahead in one's career. The literature suggests that many people who desire career advancement may also hold the beliefs that characterize careerist orientation, thereby underlining the importance of examining this concept further.

The literature suggests that while ability and career achievement are an important aspect of career success, political behaviour may also play an important role (Pfeffer, 1998). Individuals should not be naïve and disregard office politics when considering career success. Employees should receive realistic information and training to properly manage their career. Past studies indicate that influence behaviour affects numerous HR outcomes (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989) such as job performance ratings and compensation issues. Judge and Bretz (1994) argue that not all political behaviour by an employee in a company setting will be beneficial to him/her in the long run.

One of the underlying themes of careerist orientation is political behaviour, which has been extensively studied in organisations. Political influence behaviour is often strategically designed behaviour to maximize self-interest. This behaviour may be

consistent with or at a co-worker's expense (Ferris et al., 1989). This behaviour is typically unsanctioned, illegitimate, and often in violation of social norms. These tactics are often seen as ingratiation or self-promotion. Ingratiation can be defined as influence behaviour attempts that are intended to increase liking by, or similarity to, a target individual. Jones (1964) identified three types of ingratiation tactics: other enhancement (i.e. flattery); self-presentation (e.g., false modesty, smiling, rendering favours); and opinion conformity (i.e., voicing values and beliefs that are similar to those of the target individual). Self-promotion is the act of bringing to light one's personal accomplishments in order to present oneself in the most favourable manner (Ferris & Judge, 1991). A critical issue in evaluating how particular influence strategies affect career success rests on whether they influence behaviour through affect findings of this study.

Those who seek to use non-traditional means of advancement should tread carefully. Use of the wrong strategy could backfire. Individuals who seek to further their careers by attempting to increase their perceived competence in the eyes of others may be less successful than those who ingratiate (Judge & Bretz, 1994). Research has shown that self-promotion strategies tend to lower affect while ingratiation strategies lead to higher affect (Judge & Bretz, 1994).

Holbesleben and Wheeler (2006) suggest that organisational politics affect employee behaviour which, in turn, can influence organisational outcome. Harris and Kacmar (2005) contend that social support is an important factor for the employee handling stress brought about by organisational politics. Today's job market forces employees to be more self-interested which makes finding support often difficult.

The need for power is a dimension of political control. Valle and Perrewé (2000) suggest the need for power as an antecedent to political perception should be given further study. Ferris et al. (1989) developed a model that focused on employee

perceptions of politics. One of the dimensions that Ferris noted is personality, suggesting, personality traits such as Machiavellian behaviour and self-monitoring are related to organisation politics.

Regarding Machiavellian behaviour, Moorhead and Griffen (1995) suggest that individuals exhibiting these traits are likely to be dishonest to achieve goals and enjoy manipulating fellow workers. Machiavellian behaviour is a consistent relation to perceived politics. Ferris et al. (1989) in their study of office politics note that social adeptness and sensitivity should be related.

Self-monitoring can be defined as employee controlling the images he/she present to fit his/her surroundings. Ferris et al. (1989) notes that employees scoring high in self-monitoring have developed the ability of scanning his/her environment well and is an antecedent to organisation politics. Kirchmeyer (1990) reports that men scored higher than women where self monitoring is related to political activity. Rosen, Levy, and Hall (2006) suggest that it is important to continue the study of self-monitoring as a moderator between perceived organisation politics and individual outcomes.

Witt, Kacmar, Carlson, and Zivnuska (2002) posit that individual differences lead employees to react in various ways to organisation politics. Rosen et al. (2006) suggest that it is important to look to personality characteristics and not personality as a moderator between organisation politics and employment outcomes. Rosen et al, further posit that interactions among various personality traits will moderate relationships between organisation politics and employee outcomes. These combinations of personality variables should allow future research to better describe organisation politics/employee outcome relationships. The literature mentions that the Big Five personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience) interact with organisation politics resulting in work outcomes.

Witt et al. (2002) study indicated a partial support for personality moderating organisation politics and employee performance.

Valle and Perrewe (2000) suggest affective disposition is an antecedent to organisation politics and moderates the relationship between politics and outcomes. Hochwarter and Treadway (2003) found negative affect and positive affect often determines whether an employee perceives organisation politics as a threat or opportunity. Valle and Perrewe (2000) found negative affect and positive affect often determines whether any employee perceives organisational politics as a threat or opportunity. Valle and Perrewe (2000) suggest political environments in organisations present opportunities for employees high on positive affect, thus achieving positive outcomes by actively becoming involved in social functions. Hochwarter and Treadway (2003) found employees demonstrating high levels of positive affect are more influenced by decreased rewards connected with organisation politics.

Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, and Ammeter (2002) note that organisation politics are self-serving activities often detrimental to the company. Ferris et al. (1989) suggests that personality is an antecedent to perception of politics. Ferris also states that behaviour such as Machiavellian and self-monitoring were antecedents to perceived organisational politics. The need for power and locus of control can be antecedents to perceptions of organisation politics. The literature suggests that locus of control was an antecedent to organisation politics. O'Connor and Morrison (2001) also note that external locus of control and perceptions of politics are positively related while a study presented by Andrews and Kacmar (2001) provides additional support.

The political environment of an organisation will influence the employee's expectancies regarding performance reward behaviour (Witt et al., 2002). The employee won't expect a fair reward in a political environment but in a non-political setting the employee will have more confidence as a fair reward for a fair day's work.

Impression management. The concept of careerist orientation also emphasizes the importance of impression management in moving ahead in one's career. There is considerable research on impression management. Ellis, West, Ryan, and DeShon (2002) suggest employees use impression management to acquire new employment and also to enhance their careers. Bolino and Turnley (2003) note that an employee's supervisor ratings can be influenced by impression management. Supervisors rely on schema when making employee observations and evaluations. Schema involves forming generalized impressions and refers to these images when making decisions. Richardson and Vandenberg (2005) suggests employee valuations are based upon in-role behaviour and observations regarding OCB would be viewed somewhat the same way.

Wayne and Ferris (1990) note there are different frameworks of impression management. They mention various impression management strategies that could be supervisor-focused, self-focused or job-focused. Supervisor-focused strategies attempt to make the employee appear considerate. Supervisory-focus impression management or ingratiation behaviour often attempts flattery and praise of the supervisor (Ferris, Frink, Gilmore, & Kacmar, 1994). These tactics often have a positive effect on employee evaluation. Ferris et al. (1994) suggests that supervisor-focused behaviour is close to OCB. Self-focused behaviour attempts to make the employee appear polite and dedicated. These employees exhibiting self-focused impression management have a tendency to work hard when others are looking (Turnley & Bolino, 2001). The authors found those individuals who were seen as dedicated by fellow workers were less likely to be seen as lazy thereby projecting a positive image of OCB.

Job-focused impression management behaviour involves making the employee look more competent in his/her job setting. Job-focused impression management involves attempts to impress fellow employees with job performance information or self-promotion. These tactics entail taking credit for positive performance and playing

down the results of a negative event. However, Judge and Bretz (1994) suggest that job-focused tactics have a negative effect on career advancement.

Schlenker (1980) suggests impression management behaviour attempts to influence a group to perceive the employees in a certain way. Kacmar and Baron (1999) posit organisational politics involves furthering self-interest while disregarding other employee's well-being. Ferris et al. (2002) and Valle (1997) note that impression management has been found to be related to an employee's perception of politics.

Melburg and Tedeschi (1989) suggest a typology of impression management tactics with one being assertive tactics that are implemented to create a certain reputation with a target group and may be self-focused (Wayne & Liden, 1995). An employee will initiate self-promotional impression management if chances are good and a worthwhile reward will result (Zevinska, Kacmar, Witt, Carlson, & Bratton, 2004). Success or lack of it will be judged by those making a determination of the employee's efforts (Eastman, 1994; Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewé, 2005).

Consequences of Careerist Orientation

Trust negatively related to careerist orientation. Aryee and Chen (2002) conducted a study that involved a survey of employees of a listed Chinese household appliance manufacturer located in Shunde City, Guangdong Province, People's Republic of China. The company employed approximately 1,000 employees, the vast majority of whom were production employees. Having implemented the employment contract system, the management of this company had the authority to layoff employees. At a scheduled seminar for supervisors, Aryee and Chen were given an opportunity to explain the general purpose of the study. Following Konovsky and Pugh (1994), Aryee and Chen (2002) argued that to the extent that trust is a manifestation of social exchange and social exchange underpins the organisation's support and concern

about the welfare of its employees, trust would mediate the relationship between organisational justice, career growth opportunities and careerist orientation.

Consistent with these social exchange underpinnings, Aryee and Chen's 2002 study hypothesized the influence of trust in an employer's ability to counteract the development of a careerist orientation in employees. They argued that no organisation can function without some employees being psychologically attached to it and behaving as organisational citizens. Given this, it becomes necessary to understand how organisations can counter a careerist orientation on the part of employees. Organisational justice and career growth opportunities underline the organisation's trustworthiness, which, in turn, serve as mechanisms through which these factors counter careerist orientation.

Trust in one's employer has been found to underpin a myriad of employee work attitudes and behaviours (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Robinson, 1996). Robinson (1996), for example, reported that a lack of trust in an employer can lead to reduced performance of civic virtue and in-role performance. On the other hand, Rhoades, Eisenberger, and Armeli, (2001) reported that employees who perceive their organisations as being supportive (and therefore trustworthy) reciprocate with commitment to the organisation. In general, the authors found that procedural and distributive justice, and career growth opportunities were positively related to trust in employer and trust in employer was negatively related to careerist orientation and fully mediated the relationship between careerist orientation and its hypothesized antecedents. The growing dependence on employees as a source of competitive advantage stems from these positive work attitudes and their behavioural outcomes (Pfeffer, 1998). The negative influence of careerist orientation on these work attitudes suggests the potentially negative influence of careerist orientation on organisational effectiveness.

Trust influences attitudes. Konovsky and Pugh (1994) and Robinson (1996) suggest that an employee's trust in his/her employer often influences work attitudes. Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) note that trust by the employee in the employer is contingent upon unmonitored action by the employer which will be beneficial to the employee. The literature suggests that organisations that show support have an employee who, in turn, gives commitment to the organisation (Rhoades et al., 2001). The authors note that organisations that offer career growth and organisational justice give employees visible evidence of support thus counteracting careerist orientation. Konovsky and Pugh (1994) in their study found that trust will mediate the relationship between organisational justice, career growth and careerist orientation. The authors suggested further examination of the influence of careerist orientation on in-role and citizenship behaviours, absenteeism and actual turnover.

Staw and Feldman (1979) suggest that the careerist can exhibit traits of negative attitudes even though the features of the job may be positive. The careerist is often alert to parts of his/her position that may hinder career advancement in future years notwithstanding good job conditions (Feldman, 1988). Feldman and Weitz (1991) argue that the careerist often demonstrates low motivation toward his/her job but whose performance is at a level which is satisfactory, thus allowing time for other careerist activities. Luthans (1988) found that managers most often promoted spent less time on job required activities and more time on socializing and self-promotion. Feldman and Weitz (1991) suggest that the employee exhibiting high levels of careerist orientation will demonstrate high levels of self promotion. The careerist's motivation is to not invest in the current job according to Feldman (1965, 1988), but to look at the present position as a stepping stone. Blau and Boal (1987, 1989) termed careerists as lone wolves who had high turnover intention and didn't identify with the goals of the employer although the job itself was important to them. The authors also concluded that

absenteeism would be high when the careerist employee is pursuing career related goals especially before job transfer or turnover.

Prior Studies on Careerist Orientation

There is limited empirical research on careerist orientation defined as advancing in the organisation by non-traditional means (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). There were three research studies reflected in this thesis; actual case studies in three diverse populations. The literature suggests that an employee exhibiting CO may have some success in organisational advancement, but in the long run was found to be detrimental to the employee (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). In their study, the authors distributed 1,000 questionnaires to randomly selected participants from a business school in a large university who were members of the classes of 1973, 1975, 1983, 1986. Of these surveys, 227 were returned and found useable for a response rate of 22.7%. Responding were 61 from 1973 (.24), 45 from 1978 (.18), 75 from 1983 (.30), and 45 from 1986 (.18). Thus, there was a fair representation of employees with different levels of work experience. Since the length of work experience of graduates from a university would also be related to the positions in the organisational hierarchy and possibly, salary, this method of sampling provided a good representation of employees in companies that hire business school graduates. The majority of respondents had majored in marketing, finance, and accounting, the main areas of specialization in a business school (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). The authors used their full 23 item scale that was developed from a procedure for scale development suggested by Nunnally (1978). As mentioned earlier, it was the same Likert-type scale where the responses were on a five-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The scale mean was 2.71 and standard deviation 0.59.

In another study, 650 questionnaires were distributed to professionals/employees working full-time in Singapore with 249 returned and usable for a 39 percent response

rate (Chay and Aryee, 1999). The employees were primarily in the banking, insurance, electronic and information technology sectors. The authors used a six-item reduced scale from Feldman and Weitz (1991) that showed a reliability of 0.81 (Cronbach's alpha). This scale follows the Likert format with response options to the questions ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A sample question is "In the final analysis, what is best for you in your organisation is not going to be consistent with what is in the organisation's best interest" (Chay and Aryee, 1999).

Aryee and Chen (2002) distributed 180 questionnaires to production employees of an appliance manufacturing plant in China of which 158 were returned but 9 were deemed unusable giving a response rate of 83%. The survey was in Chinese but was cross-checked and cross-translated to make sure both versions were consistent. A five item reduced scale from Feldman and Weitz (1991) was used with a scale reliability of 0.72. A sample question was "I do not think of myself as an organisational man/woman." Demographic variables were statistically controlled for in all these studies.

As compared to the other significant study by Chay and Aryee (1999), the authors (Feldman & Weitz, 1991) used their full 23 item scale that was developed from a procedure for scale development suggested by Nunnally (1978). Although all of these studies were conducted in diverse populations, the research seems to indicate a common thread among employees exhibiting careerist orientation.

Conclusion

Careerist orientation is a construct that has not been extensively researched in past literature. The review in this chapter indicates that certain outcomes of careerist orientation are known, but little research has been done on certain outcomes of careerist orientation. Thus, this study attempts to add to the literature on careerist orientation by

examining the role of careerist orientation and examining organisational citizenship behaviour as an important outcome.

Feldman and Weitz (1991) content that the employee exhibiting careerist orientation may perform at a satisfactory level in order to maintain his/her job, but demonstrates low motivation regarding the job. Another outcome of careerist orientation according to Feldman and Weitz (1991) is that the careerist often considers the current position/ job as a stepping stone and will not put effort into the current job. An outcome of careerist orientation according to Blau and Boal (1987) is that a careerist is a lone wolf who does not identify with the goals of the organisation. Rhodes et al (2001) reported that employees who perceive that the organisation is offering support will reciprocate with extra effort. The careerist may currently be in an enviable position in the organisation but still demonstrates a negative work attitude (Staw & Feldman, 1979). Pfiffer (1998) contends that the growing dependence on employees by the organisation in order to have a competitive advantage in the global market is a result of employee position work outcomes. The literature suggests that the employee's trust in the organisation is related to commitment by the company to the worker. Trust is a manifestation of social exchange which underpins organisational support of the employee. Therefore, trust counteracts the development of careerist orientation. Trust mediates organisational justice, career opportunities, and careerist orientation. Organisational justice and career growth opportunities underline organisational trustworthiness which counteracts careerist orientation.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Introduction

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) refers to individual behaviour that is discretionary and not recognized by the organisation's reward system (Organ, 1988). Employees who display OCB tend to "go the extra mile" in completing their required job duties. Organ (1988) argues that OCB improves organisational efficiency and effectiveness. This is a relatively new area of research since it's only been approximately 30 years since the term "organisational citizenship behaviour" was coined by Dennis Organ and his colleagues (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) although the roots of this concept go back to Chester Barnard's "willingness to cooperate." This research has impacted fields such as human resources management, international business, and leadership and continues to expand to other disciplines such as marketing, hospital and health administration, community psychology, economics, and military psychology (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Employees exhibiting careerist orientation which is negative in nature are less likely to exhibit OCB or to benefit the organisation in the long run (Feldman, 1985).

Types of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Podsakoff et al. (2000) separated citizenship-like behaviours into seven categories for his review of research in this field: (1) Helping Behaviour, (2) Sportsmanship, (3) Organisational Loyalty, (4) Organisational Compliance, (5) Individual Initiative, (6) Civic Virtue, and (7) Self-Development.

Helping behaviour. Helping behaviour refers to assisting co-workers as well as those individuals (e.g., customers or suppliers) who are outside the organisation. When it is directed toward external constituents, it can often improve the company's image and its ability to attract outside resources. Employees exhibiting careerist orientation on

the other hand are more self-centred and looking out for number one. Selected kindness toward these outsiders usually has a positive effect on influencing their feelings toward the organisation. This activity may help in enhancing loyalty from the organisation's customer base and possibly attracting future employees. An ongoing process of offering a helping hand by many employees should prove advantageous for the organisation over time (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006).

A type of OCB that was one of the earliest to be discussed in the literature is altruism (Smith et al., 1983), which is similar to helping behaviour because it relates to selfless behaviour on the part of the employee. It may be directed toward a specific co-worker, supervisor, or customer. An example may be assisting an overworked fellow worker or a worker new to the job just learning the ropes.

Sportsmanship. Sportsmanship is a form of citizenship behaviour that has received less attention in the literature. Organ (1990a) has defined sportsmanship as “a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining.” However, his definition seems somewhat narrower than what the label of the construct would imply. For example, Podsakoff et al. (2000) believe that “good sports” are people who not only do not complain when they are inconvenienced by others, but also maintain a positive attitude when things do not go their way, are not offended when others do not follow their suggestions, are willing to sacrifice their personal interest for the good of the work group, and do not take rejection of their ideas personally.

Organisational loyalty. Organisational loyalty consists of staying committed to the employer by spreading goodwill and protecting the organisation (George & Jones 1997; Graham 1989a, 1991) and endorsing, supporting, and defending organisational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997). In other words, organisational loyalty implies promoting a good image of the organisation to outsiders, protecting and

defending the organisational image against external threats. Thus, employees displaying OCB can be instrumental in building and preserving the organisational image.

Organisational compliance. Organisational compliance has been studied under different names and titles in the literature. It has been called generalised compliance by Smith et al. (1983); organisational obedience by Graham (1991); OCB-O which are behaviours that benefit the organisation in general by Williams and Anderson (1991); following organisational rules and procedures by Borman and Motowidlo (1993); and also contains some aspects of Van Scotter and Motowidlo's job dedication construct (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Organisational compliance appears to capture a person's internalization and acceptance of the organisation's rules, regulations, and procedures, which results in a strict adherence to them, even when no one observes or monitors employee behaviour. The reason that this behaviour is regarded as a form of organisational citizenship behaviour is that even though everyone is expected to obey company regulations, rules and procedures at all times, many employees simply do not. Therefore, an employee who religiously obeys all rules and regulations, even when no one is watching, is regarded as an especially "good citizen." Employees scoring high on careerist orientation often have personal goals inconsistent with that of the organisation which may be detrimental to the employer in the long run. Compliance to the organisation's regulations may not have the immediate effect of helping a specific person, but contributes in a more impersonal and generalized fashion to the group, department, or organisation. For example, punctuality in arriving at work or a meetings, exemplary attendance (i.e., very low absenteeism), and refraining from unnecessary breaks and idle conversation do not appear to help an individual but it does, at least indirectly help the manager (Organ et al., 2006).

Individual initiative. Individual initiative is another citizenship behaviour studied by researchers. This form of OCB involves engaging in task-related behaviours

at a level that is far beyond what is minimally required or generally expected. Thus, in order to be considered OCB, a behaviour of an employee has to be extra-role and not what is generally expected as part of normal role. Individual initiative includes voluntary acts of contributing new ideas aimed to improve one's task or the organisation's performance, persisting with enthusiasm to accomplish one's job, volunteering to take on extra responsibilities, and encouraging others in the organisation to do the same. This dimension is similar to Organ's conscientiousness construct (Organ, 1988). Other labels of this type of OCB used by past researchers include: personal industry and individual initiative (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997); taking charge at work (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) and some aspects of Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) job dedication construct. Organ (1988) indicated that individual initiative is among the most difficult to distinguish from in-role behaviour, because it differs more in degree than in kind.

Civic virtue. Civic virtue is defined as a commitment to the organisation as a whole. Employees demonstrate a willingness to participate actively in organisational governance by attending meetings, engaging in policy debates, expressing one's opinion about what strategy the organisation ought to follow. These workers keep up with changes in the industry that might affect the organisation and look out for its best interests by activities such as reporting fire hazards and locking doors. This dimension has been referred to as civic virtue by Organ (1988, 1990b), organisational participation by Graham (1989b), and protecting the organisation by George and Brief (1992). As a kind of OCB, organisational participation in questioning and reviewing company policies and practices might be thought of as the conscience of the organisation (Graham, 1989b). In contrast, employees exhibiting careerist orientation often look to the current job as a stepping stone and use short cuts in carrying out their everyday job (Feldman & Wertz, 1991).

Additional Characteristics Relating to Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Self development. Self development is another key attribute of OCB. This includes the voluntary behaviours that employees engage in to improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities. George and Brief (1992) argue that this could involve finding advanced training courses that give the latest developments in the field and possibly learning new skills. Self development of employees could be beneficial to their co-workers and organisation and is therefore, an indication of being a good organisational citizen. Careerists on the other hand engage in self-development, but for personal gain and not to necessarily help their fellow employees.

Courtesy. Courtesy is mentioned by Organ (1988) as an addition to the seven categories of OCB. It is also an identifiable and recognizable form of OCB. It is different from helping behaviour discussed earlier. While helping is closely related to mitigating or problem solving facing a co-worker, courtesy involves the employee taking action that will help prevent those problems from occurring. Thus, while helping is a reactive behaviour, courtesy is proactive.

Cheerleading and peacemaking. Cheerleading and peacemaking are two other types of OCB that don't fit clearly in the classification of these seven types of OCB. There is little empirical research on these behaviours. Cheerleading includes celebration of fellow workers successes thereby providing positive reinforcement for their contribution to the organisation. Peacemakers, on the other hand, get themselves in the middle of a possible conflict allowing fellow co-workers the chance to cool off and rethink their positions thereby helping the combatants save face and finally help other fellow workers to consider impersonal issues (Organ et al., 2006).

To conclude, there are several kinds of OCB, but they all share the common characteristic of being extra-role behaviours that are neither mandated nor explicitly rewarded by the organisation. All such behaviours have potential benefits for co-

workers, supervisors, or outside constituents and are therefore, desirable for the organisation. Thus, it is important to review the research on factors that influence the occurrence of OCB and the consequences of OCB.

Levels of Engagement

OCB by an employee is determined by how much he/she wants to become involved. Some of the reasons the employee may want to become involved could be for the good of the employee, for the good of others, and for the good of the organisation itself. It may be difficult to determine early on if the employee exhibiting careerist tendencies is becoming involved for the good of the employee which is detrimental to the organisation. The employee may also want to engage in OCB for strictly personal reasons such as building organisation-based self-esteem and having the desire to become involved in helping others. Another reason could be to receive recognition or rewards for such behaviour. Getting others to like them could be another reason for engaging in OCB (Organ et al., 2006).

Another example is an employee who feels he/she ought to exhibit such behaviour by extending himself/herself and become involved. This could include feeling personally responsible to others as the employee feels he/she has a moral obligation for such action, or considers that this behaviour is expected of him/her. These beliefs are based upon social norms that this behaviour is expected from them.

Antecedents of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

A basic premise of OCB is that employees engage in such behaviours only when they define their employment relationship as one based on social exchange (Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1990a). The very definition of OCB assumes the existence of an employer-employee contract (Rousseau, 1989b). A sign of the linkage between OCB and the employee-employer contract is the notion of reciprocity and equity (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997). Employees engage in OCB to reciprocate their

organisation for equitable treatment, withholding such behaviours when their employer provides unsatisfactory outcomes (Organ, 1988, 1990b). An organisation exhibiting unacceptable behaviour toward the employees could cause them to initiate careerist orientation. This implies that the nature of the relationship between employer and employee affects OCB.

Research on organisational citizenship behaviours goes back nearly 30 years and has focused on four major categories of antecedents: individual (or employee) dispositions, task characteristics, organisational characteristics, and leadership behaviours (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Individual dispositions.

Dispositional variables. Studies have reported relationships of dispositional variables with different types of OCB. Conscientiousness, agreeableness, and positive affectivity have the strongest relationship with OCB. Conscientiousness and agreeableness are related significantly to both altruism and generalized compliance; and positive affectivity is related positively to altruism. Among the Big Five personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and extraversion and openness to experience) which will be discussed further in this research, openness to experience ~~or~~ and intelligence are not related to OCB. Neuroticism and extraversion are not as strongly related to OCB as are agreeableness and conscientiousness.

Researchers argue that dispositional factors, such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, positive affectivity, and negative affectivity incline people to act in certain ways toward their co-workers and managers (Podsakoff et al., 2000). These dispositions might also increase the likelihood of receiving treatment from co-workers and supervisors that the employees could perceive as satisfying, supportive, fair, and worthy of reciprocation. On the other hand, employees scoring high on careerist orientation would exhibit attitudes more negatively related to OCB. Thus, these

dispositional variables could be seen as indirect contributors of OCB, rather than direct causes. In other words, individual dispositions may lead to employees being treated in pleasant ways such that the employee would like to reciprocate with useful behaviour (OCB) toward the organisation.

Trait predictions. Organ et al. (2006) make the case as to why some personality traits may predict an employee's OCB, as well as, provide the reason for why OCB can be better predicted by personality traits as compared to predicting core task performance. The authors argue that their interpretation of OCB focuses on its discretionary character as opposed to core job duties and task performance that are required acts. OCB, by definition, involves contributions to the organisation that are not required by the job description and are not rewarded. OCB has been thought of in terms of continual contributions, even if mundane, over a certain length of time. When compared to the completion of many core job tasks, OCB is less often constrained by job design, technology that makes the work process possible, the employee's ability on the job, or from direction and orders of the employee's immediate superior.

'Strong' versus 'weak' work situations. The current stance in social psychology is that personality dispositions play a role in weak work situations (Lee, Ashford, & Bobko, 1990; Monson, Hesley, & Chernick, 1982). The personality variables do not predict behaviour well in situations marked by strong incentives, societal norms, or pressures to behave in a particular fashion. "Strong" situations are often uniformly interpreted, producing smooth expectancies and presenting strong incentives for positive performance. In such situations, people conform to expected norms with less influence of their dispositions. OCB then might be referred to as conduct occurring in weak work situations and not strong work situations (Organ et al., 2006). It could be expected that employees exhibiting careerist orientation would have more opportunity to demonstrate these tendencies in weak work situations. Nor do

attitudes or individual traits score well in predicting any one specific behaviour in a single time and place. They do much better at predicting cumulative patterns or trends of behaviour (Epstein, 1980) over time, in situations in which external compulsions on behaviour are weak or ambiguous. Thus, Organ et al. (2006) have a reason to focus on personality. Researchers have invoked numerous attitudinal concepts as plausible explanations for what people do on the job—how hard they work, how much they achieve, whether they vote for a union, how frequently they miss work, whether they look for another job, etc.

Big five traits. McCrae and Costa (1987) developed the Big Five framework of personality which include 1) agreeableness, 2) conscientiousness, 3) neuroticism, 4) extraversion and 5) openness to experience. The following will discuss how the Big Five framework of personality relates to character traits relative to OCB.

Agreeableness. The Big Five framework of personality (McCrae & Costa, 1987) contains personality traits that are relevant for OCB. Agreeableness is a trait that relates to friendliness, and the ability to get along with others in pleasant relationships. Employees scoring high on this item are probably amenable to think of customers, co-workers, and colleagues in a positive manner. Hypothetically, these employees may be predisposed to offer help if the situation presents itself, to look ahead and anticipate the needs of others, and not be easily offended. Agreeableness relates to OCB which includes behaviours such as helping, courtesy, and sportsmanship.

Organ and McFall (2004) argue that an employee who exhibits low levels of agreeableness may help a fellow worker with a problem. However, the reason for the employee helping the co-worker may vary. In addition, the employee exhibiting low levels of agreeableness may initiate and fulfil the flow of required work. The person demonstrating agreeableness may look to lessen the suffering of a friend. Not all forms of support are exhibited in the same way as a co-worker's style of helping may differ.

The less agreeable employee may act in an unfriendly manner, while the employee with agreeable tendencies may be more outwardly cheerful, and positive towards his/her fellow worker. So, one may draw the conclusion that disposition is closely related to the reasons for and styles of helping instead of the frequency and consistency of the OCB.

Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness is another Big Five personality trait cluster that includes dependability, self-discipline, and perseverance. These characteristics relate to types of OCB such as generalized compliance and civic virtue. Conduct falling into the category of civic virtue such as being on-time, showing good attendance and following corporate procedures could be thought of as conscientious behaviour.

Neuroticism and extraversion. The Big Five factors of personality also include neuroticism and extraversion. As an example, individuals who are emotionally unbalanced are often focused on their own personal problems that could be real or imagined. These individuals are unlikely to be involved with the problems of others and have a tendency to be less involved in assisting fellow workers than would be a more emotionally stable individual.

Relative to characteristics relating to OCB, extraverts are often responsive to social interaction and have many friends and associates. As a result, compared to an introvert, the extravert may have additional opportunities for providing support to co-workers and supervisor. By providing support, the extravert often receives much personal pleasure from doing so (Organ et al., 2006).

Openness to experience. Openness to experience is often related to eagerness to learn (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and a willingness to try new ideas. Burke and Witt (2002) suggest that openness to experience and emotional stability can be important traits in the employee's performance on the job. An employee who exhibits these behaviour patterns may have a better chance of performing better in a new job location

and with less familiar co-workers. Salgado (1997) posits that openness to experience can help the employer predict an employee's training proficiency. The author suggests that there is a strong correlation between openness to experience and the ability to learn.

Job satisfaction. The attitude that has figured prominently in OCB research is job satisfaction. The almost invariant finding is that measures of satisfaction with specific elements of the job correlate positively and substantially with each other, so researchers frequently sum the specific satisfactions to construct a measure of "overall satisfaction" (Organ et al., 2006). One of the most well replicated findings is that a positive relationship exists between organisational citizenship behaviour and job employee satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Puffer, 1987; Witt, 1991).

Predictors. Organ and Ryan (1995) in a quantitative review of 55 studies found that the employees' job attitudes and satisfaction are good predictors of OCB. This relationship of job satisfaction to OCB is more substantial than the relationship between job satisfaction and in-role performance among non-managerial and non-professional groups. The literature suggests other attitudinal measures along with satisfaction correlate with OCB at approximately the same level. Compared to dispositional traits, job satisfaction has a much stronger relationship with OCB. Many studies report self-ratings of OCB. Since job satisfaction is almost always self-reported, the association between self-reported OCB and job satisfaction can be inflated in such studies. Thus, the source of data is a useful variable to examine as a moderator in a meta-analysis of correlates of OCB. One of the issues with self rating exhibited by an employee with careerist tendencies is dishonesty. The employee could be completely untruthful in self-reported response. Accordingly, in their meta-analysis, Organ and Ryan (1995) found self-rating versus other rating of OCB appears to be the most notable moderator.

Role perceptions. Regarding other job-related attitudes, role-perceptions have important relationships with some kinds of OCB areas. However, they are less significant compared to the effect of job satisfaction. Role ambiguity and role conflict have been shown to be negatively related to altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship. On the other hand, role ambiguity and role conflict are not negatively related to conscientiousness and civic virtue. However, both role items have been shown to be related to job satisfaction, which, in turn, is related to OCB. Thus, the relationship between ambiguity and conflict and OCB may be mediated by job satisfaction.

Indeed, one often sees instances in which this term is used almost interchangeably with the phrase job attitudes, because job satisfaction is usually defined as the weighted aggregation of attitudes toward various aspects of the job domain. Some measures of job satisfaction simply ask the respondent to make a general assessment of how good the job is; others distinguish between satisfaction with the work itself and satisfaction with extrinsic benefits (such as pay, benefits, perquisites) derived from the job; still others have the respondent evaluate such differentiated aspects of the job as the supervision, co-workers, pay, and promotion.

Not restricted by ability. If one considers OCB as a concept that is different from task performance, then why is a non-quantitative construct like OCB related to job satisfaction? Organ et al. (2006) suggest that OCB involves contributions not restricted by situations or ability. On-the-job performance is the result of skills and ability of the employee. One cannot rule out effort which contributes significantly to employee performance. However, a worker with average ability will not often achieve a quantum leap in productivity just because this individual has a positive approach to the job and organisation. Ironically, it is the careerist who believes that ability alone is insufficient to advance in the organisation (Feldmen, 1985). The employee is looked upon to perform a certain level of productivity in order to keep his/her job. From the employee's

perspective, this job may not be considered one of great interest, but under the circumstances it could be the best job available. On the other hand, an employee can not usually out-perform his/her skill and ability level, work flow, or technology limits. By carrying out requirements of the job description, the employee may be governed by strong situations. In that event, not much variance is left to job satisfaction (Organ et al., 2006).

Organ et al. (2006) argue that OCB is less restricted by ability. Employees, regardless of their level of skill and ability have the capacity to offer various forms of assistance to co-workers. These authors note that most employees ultimately develop site-specific knowledge, even if unspoken, and can use this knowledge in the future to assist co-workers. Compliance and involvement in company regulations usually do not demand a high level of skill. OCB is placed in a viable position as a means for showing positive job attitudes. Opposite to this, the employee may participate in a minimum effort to demonstrate OCB and can be left with the option to hold back. Withheld effort may not provide job satisfaction, but it may be necessary to keep the current position (Organ et al., 2006). The above mentioned scenario establishes the basic conditions for job satisfaction to be highly related to OCB. The authors suggest that OCB carries a better chance of correlating with attitudes than task performance because employee attitudes may influence their behaviour but just to the extent that this behaviour is not restricted by ability or external forces.

Reciprocity. Reciprocity is another condition that Blau (1964) suggests is often considered. If an individual receives a benefit from another, he/she will often feel the obligation to reciprocate. The individual who receives some sort of benefit often fulfils the obligation which is unspecified as to form, degree or time to return the favour. This payback is in the hands of the receiver of the obligation. Blau (1964) posits that over a period of time the giver and receiver have exchanged benefits with neither one keeping

tabs on parity. As to whether the net balance favours one over the other is often difficult to determine. The careerist worker is always looking out for himself/herself first and may never consider reciprocity. Blau (1964) argues that the reciprocity is based upon trust. Each party has a sufficient level of confidence and trust in the other that over time benefits and contributions will be reciprocated with no possible enforcement by a third party.

Fairness. Important to the employee is his/her understanding that the organisation operates in an atmosphere of fairness (Organ et al., 2006). The literature considers employee efforts and inputs to include core task performance, and compliance with understood and enforceable rules set down by the organisation. These efforts are in addition to the employee contributions associated with OCB. The perceived outcomes of the employee's efforts and inputs involve tangible and visible rewards. Outcomes of the employee's performance-based activity can take the form of pay and benefits along with intangible rewards that are derived from recognition and status in the employee's working group. If an employee has given much to the organisation in the form of OCB and additionally believes that fairness is not prevalent, then he/she, in all probability, would be motivated to lessen his/her inputs. Reducing task performance or compliance with the organisation's enforceable rules can put the employee at risk – especially to a person who, for personal reasons, needs to secure the job, avoid reprimand, and qualify for any forthcoming salary increases. By reducing OCB, and not task performance, the employee places him/herself in a less dangerous position.

Social exchange as it relates to Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

Remaining to be reviewed is the logic for examining social exchange as it relates to potentially greater correlations. OCB is based upon the concept of social exchange as presented by Blau (1964), Adams (1965), and Rousseau and Parks (1992).

Blau (1964) argues that a large part of the exchange between the employee and the organisation, or among individuals in the organisation, takes place in the context of social exchange. The author suggests various conditions of social exchange. One condition is individual voluntary action enhanced by an expected response. Blau notes these responses can be intrinsic or extrinsic.

However, not all employment relationships, or even the full measure of any particular relationships, take the form of social exchange. Some organisations aspire to, and perhaps approach, a pure market form of exchange, in which a full set of specific benefits are explicitly and formally promised for a specific set of explicit performance criteria (Graham & Organ, 1993; Rousseau & Parks, 1992). In such an exchange, the nature and timing of what the parties exchange are not left to discretion; they are operationally defined with some precision. However, no expectation exists for either benefits or contributions beyond those made explicit. Moreover, trust plays a minimal role; either party has recourse to a third party (such as an arbitrator) to enforce the agreements. Finally, the duration of the exchange relationship is finite, and both parties maintain vigilance in search of better alternative relationships when the stipulated period of exchange expires.

Leadership. Organ et al., (2006) suggests that leaders can take steps to influence employees to exhibit OCB and can also structure the work environment to create OCB opportunities. For example, a manager can use his/her leadership role to select employees who already exhibit OCB for work tasks. The manager can enlist their help in organisational training sessions to influence employees lacking in OCB to possibly help develop these traits. The careerist exhibiting impression management may be selected by the manager who is fooled by the careerist, who may negatively influence fellow employees. The training sessions are important especially for those individuals who lack the OCB skills.

Verbalisation. A thought process that may affect OCB in a number of ways is verbalization. This action can make activity regarding goal accomplishment appear significant and important as it illustrates how work behaviour blends into a bigger picture. Verbalization can also establish a feeling that the company is progressing by showing direction of the organisation and how it will get there. Job satisfaction should then be increased through a leader's verbalisation while the employee's motivation and efforts should be directed toward identified goals. Leaders should be able to motivate employees through verbalisation by providing a clear perception of their role in accomplishing the organisation goals. If the goals are reasonable in the eyes of the employee, the leaders are likely to be trusted. The literature suggests that a leader who is liked and trusted may be able to increase the employees' enthusiasm and motivation to give extra effort in accomplishing the goals (Organ et al., 2006).

Leaders have been shown to enhance OCB in various ways. A traditional manner of enhancing OCB by leadership participation is to establish a work environment and expectations of accepted work behaviour. This often encourages the employee to feel he/she ought to exhibit OCB.

Leaders or managers of an organisation are often in a position to encourage employee behaviour in core responsibilities or in a supportive role. A leader can initiate motivation through verbalization, which, in turn, can determine how hard the employee will try. Organ et al. (2006) found that some employees may want to engage in OCB while others feel they ought to. Leaders or managers can do much to influence an employee to exhibit OCB.

In addition to employee participation in OCB, company leaders can also become involved. These leaders can make it possible for employees under them to become involved in OCB. These leaders can pick employees who exhibit OCB based upon

dispositional characteristics of that employee. Some employees do not have the skill set that may enable them to exhibit OCB.

Leadership behaviours. Leadership behaviours are important and can be divided into transformational leadership behaviours (articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, and intellectual stimulation), transactional leadership behaviours (contingent reward behaviour, contingent punishment behaviour, non-contingent reward behaviour, non-contingent punishment behaviour), and behaviours identified with either the Path-Goal theory of leadership (role clarification behaviour, specification of procedures, or supportive leader behaviour), or the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory of leadership.

The heart of transformational leadership is the ability to get employees to perform above and beyond expectations, and this extra effort may show up in the form of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Transformational leadership behaviour had significant and consistent positive relationships with altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Supportive behaviour on the part of the leader was strongly related to OCB.

The two forms of transactional leadership behaviour were significantly related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue; one positively (contingent reward behaviour), and the other negatively (non-contingent punishment behaviour).

Of the Path-Goal leadership dimensions, supportive leader behaviour was found to be positively related to every form of OCB, and leader role clarification was positively related to altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship. The leader-member exchange was positively related to altruism and "overall" citizenship behaviours.

The extent to which an employee exhibits organisational citizenship behaviour or any behaviour is a function of the employee's ability, motivation, and opportunity. What can a leader do to influence an employee's motivation, ability, or opportunity to engage in OCB? Motivation determines how hard an employee will try to engage in the behaviour, and the combination of ability and opportunity determine whether the employee can successfully exhibit the behaviour.

Cultural context. Cultural context may affect (a) the frequency of different types of OCB, (b) the strengths of the relationships between OCB and its antecedents and consequences (i.e., the moderating effects), and (c) the mechanisms through which citizenship behaviour is generated, or through which it influences organisational success.

Cultures throughout the world vary in their nature and makeup. Masculine cultures include Latin, English-speaking and Japan while feminine societies include Scandinavian and Dutch. A good example of a risk-taking society is the U.S. while German-speaking and Arab cultures attempt to avoid uncertainty. Latin and Asian cultures demonstrate a higher level of power/distance dimension while English-speaking cultures are low to medium on power/distance (Hofstede, 1984).

Individualistic or collective. The literature suggests that culture can have an effect on OCB depending upon whether the society is individualistic or collective. The careerist who is often self centred and has goals different from that of the organisation may have difficulty advancing in a collective culture which is more group oriented. Most English-speaking societies are individualistic while Asian cultures demonstrate collectivist tendencies. Managers of individualistic societies consider going the extra mile as an additional part of the job or OCB. Managers in a collectivist society often determine OCB as part of the job or in-role behaviour.

Farh, Earley, and Lin, (1997) examined the different types of OCB observed in Taiwan and the potential moderating effect that traditionality and modernity had on the relationship between organisational justice and citizenship behaviour. They argued that although three of the OCB dimensions in Taiwan were similar to those found in the United States, two other dimensions that emerged appeared to be specific to the Taiwanese culture. In addition, they found that both traditionality and modernity moderated the relationship between perceptions of justice and OCB.

Individuals in the United States often are members of separate and sometimes overlapping groups. This means that an individual's identity is not attached to any particular "in-group". In the event of conflict occurring in an organisation, it is not likely to escalate. If disagreement in this type of situation occurs, the organisation often tolerates some level of conflict. On the other hand, China does not have an infrastructure for free-market. Their business is done with those that are known and trusted. It is important to belong to an "in-group" as one's identity is associated with it (Organ et al., 2006).

Group characteristics relating to Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

The literature suggests that group characteristics can influence OCB. Examples of group characteristics that may influence OCB are group cohesiveness, the level of relationship among group members, the strength of the group, and team support.

Characteristics of group cohesiveness. Group cohesiveness is related to OCB. Group cohesiveness involves group members who are attracted to the other members, have trust in each other, and have a strong desire to stay with the group (Shaw, 1981). Employees exhibiting careerist orientation may have difficulty performing in the setting as careerists often move on just for the sake of moving. George and Bettenhausen (1990) interpret group cohesiveness as a relative property of the group that explains the extent to which the group hangs together. In their meta-analysis, Podsakoff,

Mackenzie, and Bommer (1996) found that group cohesiveness was significantly related to the five types of OCB. The literature describes group cohesiveness as group members who are in accord with each other and wish to remain included in the group.

Group attraction. Groups that are highly cohesive are known by group attraction, cooperation and positive feelings regarding group task completion (Jans, 1982; Shaw, 1981). These members also enjoy being part of the group and place value on their membership. Cohesiveness may be positively related to OCB for a number of reasons. Cohesive groups have feelings of attraction for group members while other groups do not exhibit this level of mutual attraction. The group demonstrating higher levels of cohesiveness would therefore have some members on-hand to pitch in when other members need support. Cohesive groups also have an on-going desire to be part of the group and doing so should demonstrate sportsmanship and loyalty to other group members. Cohesive groups exhibit a strong sense of group identity over those groups that lack cohesiveness. These tendencies help form the mindset to defend the group from outside intrusion. Cohesive group members have a tendency to trust each other more than the tendency among individuals who are members of a less cohesive group. As a result, members in a cohesive group are more likely to demonstrate OCB.

Consequences

Although the majority of the early research efforts focused on the antecedents of citizenship behaviour, more recent research has devoted an increasing amount of attention to the consequences of OCB. More specifically, recent research has focused on two key issues: (a) the effects of OCB on managerial evaluations of performance, and (b) the differences across levels of hierarchy in OCB.

Performance evaluation.

Value to managers. Smith et al. (1983) argued that managers are grateful for OCB from the employees because this activity builds effectiveness and efficiency, in

turn making the manager's job easier. These tasks are unenforceable and managers are unable to promise incentives for carrying them out. MacKenzie and colleagues (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter 1991; 1993; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997) note reasons as to why OCB is considered of value to organisation managers. The research continues to find that the form of performance is as important as the actual work completed itself, suggesting that in-role and extra-role performance could possibly dovetail when management concludes its decision-making process.

There are a number of explanations as to why a manager in the organisation would choose to consider OCB in an employee's performance evaluation. It could be sufficient for a manager to identify an employee who is exhibiting impression management and use these skills for his/her benefit and not for the good of the organisation and fellow employees. These reasons could be the result of conscious or non-conscious observations. Examples of conscious processes, for example, are using OCB as a sign of employee commitment, reciprocity, and fairness while unconscious observation would involve behavioural distinctiveness and attributional processes. Company managers may place a value on OCB especially if in their minds these employee traits enhance organisational effectiveness. Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie (1997) suggest ways in which OCB could enhance organisational effectiveness. For example, OCB may help increase fellow employee productivity and assist in strengthening cooperation between co-workers. OCB toward outsiders could also attract the interest level of qualified people as future employees with the company. These efforts help the company to adjust to various external changes that may face the organisation. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) suggest that OCB, along with positive efforts on the job, support and makes better organisational operations as it helps shape the organisational process. If the manager considers that the effects of OCB help the organisation operate more efficiently, then employees who demonstrate higher levels of

OCB will be graded more favourably in performance appraisal situations (Organ et al., 2006). Considering different types of OCB, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) argue that employees exhibiting helping behaviour are often overrated while those showing civic virtue are underrated in relation to their real effects.

Job requirement. Some managers believe that OCB is an essential component of an employee's job description. Research by Morrison (1994) and Pond, Nacoste, Mohr, and Rodriquez (1997) are consistent with the general overview that some employees feel OCB is part of the job. Lam, Hui and Law (1999) argue that some managers take the position that OCB should represent a portion of the employee's job description. Morrison (1994) found that scores from participating managers who considered OCB an important area and imminent portion of the job ranged from 32 percent to 88 percent.

Employee advancement. Shore, Barksdale, and Shore (1995) suggested that the organisation through its managers could use OCB as an indication of the employee's commitment to the company. The reasoning for this approach was that OCB involved constructive behaviour that was not required or compensated. These behaviours were construed by management to mean that employees showing good job performance plus extending their efforts for the company had a high attachment to the organisation. OCB played a large part in the employee's advancement within the organisation along with positive reaction to financial increases for the employee (Organ et al., 2006). The careerist on the other hand uses non-traditional means to advance in the organisation such as dishonesty. Unfortunately, many managers are faced with employees that they would rather not employ. Some of these employees have few options of other employment. The author suggests that employees demonstrating low levels of job performance and reduced OCB may signal to management that the employee has to stay because of little or no employment options.

Reciprocity. Several scholars (e.g., Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1961; Organ, 1977, 1988) noted that when managers conduct periodic review of employees, they may favor those individuals exhibiting OCB over other co-workers. This decision may result from feelings of reciprocity and fairness toward an employee who has made an extra effort to engage in constructive behaviours. Lowin and Craig (1968) argued that when a manager notices an employee contributing to the organisation beyond what is expected of him/her, the manager will often attempt to increase the desirable results the employee receives. The adage of “scratch my back and I’ll scratch yours” seems to fit in this situation. Organ (1988) posits that OCB can be positively related to managerial and organisational success. In return, the employee may receive positive on-the-job ratings out of a sense of fairness from his/her supervisor. The author gives an example of a manager mentoring a recently hired co-worker by showing him/her “the ropes” and how to work in an efficient manner. Once learned by the new employee, the manager/supervisor will be freed up to devote more time and effort to important duties. Similarly, a supervisor can spend sufficient time on important areas of his/her job if an employee does not complain about small negative aspects of the job (Organ et al., 2006).

Task characteristics and performance. All three forms of task characteristics included in the literature (task feedback, task routinisation, and intrinsically satisfying tasks) were significantly related to various types of OCB such as altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Task feedback and intrinsically satisfying tasks were positively related to OCB. Task routinisation was negatively related to OCB.

Hoffman, Mischel, and Mazze’s (2007) study sought to investigate the construct validity of the OCB–task performance distinction by providing a quantitative review of the OCB literature. They extended previous meta-analytic reviews of the OCB literature

to (a) investigate the dimensionality of OCB, (b) examine the distinction between OCB and task performance, and (c) examine the relationship between a latent OCB factor and task performance and attitudinal variables. The results support a single factor model of OCB that is distinct from task performance but both are correlated. In addition, results show that OCB consistently relates more strongly to attitudes than does task performance. The latent construct approach may be contrasted with the aggregate approach, which is typically used in the OCB literature. In contrast to the aggregate approach, which entails averaging items taken from multidimensional OCB scales to form an overall OCB measure, the latent construct methodology involves treating existing OCB dimensions as imperfect indicators of a single construct. Job characteristics could play an important role as a moderator of the relationship between OCB and performance (Organ et. al., 2006).

Examining OCB from this perspective allows for estimation of the relationship between the communality among OCB dimensions and other variables, such as attitudes. Thus, this approach represents a more accurate estimate of the relationship between OCB and other variables. This study has several implications for our understanding of OCB. This reinforces previous findings that current operationalisations of OCB are best viewed as indicators of a general OCB factor. As such, there is likely little to be gained through the use of separate dimensional measures as opposed to an overall composite measure.

Allen and Rush (1998) note in their study similar findings that OCB influences employee ratings and rewards. They found that liking strongly mediated the relationship between OCB and employee ratings. Johnson, Erez, Kiker, and Motowidlo (2002) found somewhat similar results regarding helping and rated behaviour.

In terms of differences in OCB-performance relationship across levels of hierarchy, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Paine, (1999) found that OCB had a greater

effect on performance among managers than agents. In their study, OCB accounted for significantly more variance in the performance of the management group than in the agent group. It could prove to be more difficult for an agent to exhibit CO as his/her performance is usually based entirely on the number of roles transacted and a very identifiable and exact measurement.

Levels of hierarchy.

Value to senior management. Results of previous research indicate that OCB is more important at the managerial level than among the lesser paid jobs for a number of reasons. It is sometimes difficult to nail down the specifics of a manager's job. Managers must get the job done through people thereby making OCB an important factor.

Teams. OCB can be especially important to the employees who work in teams and are interdependent on each other as opposed to functions performed by independent individuals. Job characteristics could play an important role as a moderator of the relationship between OCB and employee performance (Organ et al., 2006).

Organ (1988) argued that OCB increases in importance as an employee reaches more senior management levels. The reason for this is as follows. As an employee moves up in organisational hierarchy, the task increases in ambiguity and uncertainty. It becomes progressively difficult to clearly define the scope and details of the job as one moves to senior management levels. Thus, it would be in the interest of the organisation to encourage its employees to engage in all possible constructive behaviours as it is difficult to outline the expectations clearly. The organisation is more likely to appreciate senior level employees expanding the scope of jobs as compared to lower level employee doing so. This is because the level of autonomy is higher for senior level employees and the organisation is more likely to trust their judgment.

Prior Studies

Sources of information. Much of the research on OCB has used field surveys with employees in real settings (as opposed to laboratory experiments with college students) (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; MacKenzie et al., 1999). This design is good for external validity. Studies differ in terms of the sources of information for OCB – the dependent variable most of the time (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983; Organ, 1988, 1990a). While some sources have used self-reported measures of OCB, others have sought survey responses from supervisors on OCB shown by their subordinate employees (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Allen & Rush, 1998). Using alternate sources of information strengthens the research design by avoiding the self-report biases that lead to inflated correlations between variables included in the survey completed by the respondent. Supervisor-rated OCB is perhaps the best option given the fact that objective measures of OCB are not feasible the way objective (e.g., financial, accounting) measures of performance are. OCB has been measured using various scales (e.g., Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983; Moorman & Blakely, 1992, 1995).

Insurance agents. Various types of work groups have been divided in past research. Usually one study has focused on one population. While collectively, the literature provides evidence of generalizability, most of the studies have individually focused on one population. An exception is MacKenzie et al. (1993). Three studies were done by MacKenzie et al. (1993). In the first study, the population used in the study was full-time insurance agents as opposed to part-time agents or college students. Surveys were given to the sales people and collected through their managers at regional meetings. The research design followed prior studies that give data of the actual content where the phenomenon took place compared to a laboratory setting. MacKenzie et al. (1993) collected ratings of 261 full-time multi-line insurance agents who worked throughout the U.S. The employees were agents servicing and maintaining company

insurance customers. The majority of the sales force were male (81.8 percent) with a bachelor's degree or more advanced degree (66.2 percent). The agents had been with the company an average of 4.1 years and worked with their respective sales manager an average of 2.25 years. In measuring sales performance, managers were requested to measure overall sales performance and OCB. Commission income and sales are important criteria in evaluating a salesperson. The authors used a 17 item scale from MacKenzie et al. (1993). The scale performance was measured by a 7 point Likert format with response options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A sample question is "Willingly gives of his/her time to help others."

Industrial sales staff. In a second study, a survey was collected from 204 industrial sales individuals employed by a large oil company. Most respondents were male (93 percent) while 79.6 percent had completed college. Their average time with the company was 5.7 years and time with their manager was 2.7 years. Each respondent/sales person was rated by the individual's sales manager using a 7 point Likert scale with survey options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A sample question is "Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters."

Pharmaceutical sales staff. In a third study, a survey was collected by 32 national sales managers from 108 district sales managers employed by a multinational pharmaceutical company. The national sales managers rated the district managers on their overall performance and OCB. A Likert scale was used with respondents choosing from option 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A sample question is "Turns in budgets, sales projections, expense reports, etc. earlier than is required."

Conclusion

Organisational citizenship behaviour is a phenomenon of importance to researchers and practitioners. The review done in this chapter indicates that several antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour are known. However, not much

research has been done on the role of careerist attitudes in organisational citizenship behaviour. As a result, the current study aims to add to the literature on organisational citizenship behaviour by examining the role of careerist orientation and identifying mediator variables such as turnover intention and life satisfaction.

While organisational citizenship behaviour involves going the extra mile for the organisation by the employee with no reward system or recognition by the company, careerist orientation relates to negative attitudes and behaviours by the worker. These negative traits exhibited by the careerist can be detrimental to organisational performance. For example, Organ et al., (2006) mentions that organisational managers and leaders can motivate enthusiasm in fellow workers, however there may be a careerist among the employee group who is negative toward the job and the others. This negative influence by the careerist makes the managers' job more difficult. Feldman and Weitz (1991) posit that the careerist often creates the appearance of being successful as a basis for advancement in the company, but is not necessarily competent. This careerist behaviour could incorrectly have a positive influence on management's perception of the employee, who may then place the wrong person/careerist in a key job, which in the long run, can be detrimental to organisational performance. Feldman (1985) contends that the careerist often exhibits self promotion which may be interpreted by management as being enthusiastic about the job. Management could again misinterpret this deceptive behaviour and promote this employee in place of someone more deserving. The employee in fact was not furthering the good of the organisation, but was promoting himself/herself deceptively. For some of the reasons mentioned above, careerist orientation most always has a negative effect on organisational citizenship behaviour.

Mediators

This study hypothesizes the role of several other concepts also in relation between Psychological Contract, Careerist Orientation, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. These concepts will serve as mediators. The following provides a brief overview of past research on turnover intention and life satisfaction highlighting their importance for organisational behaviour research.

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention describes the attitude of an employee who is considering leaving his or her present position for another job inside or outside of the organisation. The literature suggests a difference exists between intention to turnover and actual turnover. However, they are strongly correlated. Employees usually develop tendencies of turnover intention before actually leaving the company. Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner (2000) found that employees intending to turnover were a good predictor of actual turnover. Various circumstances can influence the employee to initiate actual leaving or being content to stay. For example, an employee who is looking to leave the organisation because he/she was overlooked for a raise in compensation subsequently receives the raise. This increase in salary could solve the employee's financial issue and who could now be more satisfied with his/her present status. On the other hand, the employee could have other problems such as personality difficulties with his/her supervisor and must decide to make the best of a bad situation or actually leave. The employee in this circumstance may have a greater tendency to leave as the future with the present employer may offer little upside potential. The literature has often focused on turnover intention as an outcome variable. Therefore, this study provides a brief description of antecedents of turnover intention along with the discussion of how they affect turnover intention.

Leadership member exchange. Griffeth et al. (2000) found certain variables negatively related to turnover intention such as leadership member exchange (LMX). In a meta-analysis regarding LMX, Gerstner and Day (1997) found LMX negatively related to turnover which could be expected to mean a positive supervisor/employee relationship resulting in lower turnover. Maertz, Bauer, Mosley, Posthuma, and Campion (2004) found decreased turnover would result from a supervisor's positive efforts with high potential employees. On the other hand, the literature mentions that the strong leadership member exchange (LMX) relationship between supervisor and employee may be actually too good. After a certain point, even where LMX is negatively related to turnover, the incidence of turnover can increase mostly due to the employee's added training and increased possible job availability. Harris and Kacmar (2005) argue that the high quality employee is probably more visible after a certain point and has increased ease of movement.

Age. Finegold, Mohrman, and Spreitzer (2002) posit that turnover can be related to age. Structuring employment agreements to accommodate both younger and older employees who are at different stages in their respective careers and with various employment preferences can be challenging to today's human resource professional. The authors argue that an employee who accepts an organisation's goals, extends effort for the company, and who continues organisational membership, will be more involved in the organisation. Mowday et al. (1982) note that employees can change as they age and their priorities shift. Veiga (1983) found that individuals cross over various stages that can influence employment choices. Age may affect what an employee wants from his/her job. For example, it could be expected that a younger employee would be looking for career growth and opportunities while an older employee may want stability of employment along with evidence of retirement income. In addition, the closer the employee gets to retirement, he/she may be forced to stay on because other employment

opportunities may be reduced or marginalized at best. Scandura and Lankau (1997) suggests that employees in the same company who enter the job market in different eras may have dissimilar attitudes and preferences.

Trust. The key goal of the organisation, notwithstanding the previously mentioned problems, is to retain competent workers. Spreitzer and Mishra (2002) suggest the organisation will have a better chance of securing these employees if they believe there is trustworthy management, empowerment and justice.

Trust is defined in a number of ways but one's consent to be at risk sums it up. By placing their trust in management, the employees are vulnerable to changes imposed. Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1996) argue that employees signalling confidence in management can help transcend the organisation through good times and bad.

Downsizing. Downsizing by an organisation often means a surviving work force has the responsibility of maintaining output with fewer people. Employees that remain have issues such as turnover and can be in a state of shock at times and wondering, if they will be affected in the event of future layoffs. Those remaining employees who are highly employable may look to greener pastures if the surviving work force is faced with unpredictability, longer work hours to make up for dismissed employees or that a friendly manager/supervisor did not survive and the new management is unacceptable. An additional variable that might be considered is the job market. In depressed financial times, job opportunities may be in short supply and just having a job could be a blessing.

Life Satisfaction

While the research on life satisfaction is extensive in the psychology literature, this study's goal is to highlight past research on life satisfaction in organisations. Subjective well-being refers to a broad category including satisfaction with one's life and experience (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). Life satisfaction is a component of

and is highly related to subjective well-being. Employees need their day at work, which is necessary to provide financial support for their personal life needs.

Conrad (1988) found that employees spend approximately 1/3 of their waking hours on the job. The employees' work life is often interrelated with his/her personal life therefore stress created at work along with that from personal conflicts may result in emotional or health related problems. Work related stress can cause conflict among co-workers and aggression in the workplace (Neumand & Baron, 1997). This behaviour can affect the organisation in negative ways such as increased absenteeism and less productive employees. Well-being can be influenced by numerous antecedents on the job (Cooper & Marshall, 1978). Haring, Stock, and Okun (1984) in a meta-analysis, found men scored higher on well-being than women. A possible answer might be placed in the multiple roles of women today – homemaker, wife, mother, and full or part-time employee.

General conceptualisation. Subjective well-being can be described as an ideal condition, but can differ among various cultures. Employees exhibiting life satisfaction tend to demonstrate a positive outlook. Tellegen (1982) suggests that an employee exhibiting a positive outlook will override negative effects that may be prevalent in the employee's personal and employment situation. Positive affect demonstrates excitement and enthusiasm while negative affect involves mood swings such as anger, disgust and depression. Warr (1990) found that affective well-being is correlated with good health and relates to not being ill.

Trait Positive Affectivity involves being positive and enthusiastic while Trait Negative Affectivity relates to anxiety and maladjustment. It is interesting to note that Watson and Pennebaker (1989) suggest that trait negative affectivity can be correlated to certain physical ailments.

Much research on well-being has been conducted, but some results have been inconsistent (Danna & Griffin, 1999). For example, self report inventories should be carefully reviewed as common method variances may exist in the relationships among respondents (Fried, et. al, 1984). Steffy and Jones (1988) report that objective measures in well-being can often be used in stress related research. However, variation in measures can be caused by variables such as genetics, health habits, diet, exercise, measurement procedures, and the research equipment (Fried et. al., 1984).

Antecedents to well-being. Peril in the workplace is of increased concern as it relates to well-being. Today's employee is faced with understanding newer technology, increased production quotes and more overtime as organisations are reluctant to add additional staff to accommodate added production and capacity (Berry, 1997).

Work pressures also affect these employees who work at home. McClay (1998) reports that up to 43 million people work from home in the US resulting from new IT technology. This trend is expected to continue.

Ganster, Fusilier, and Mayes (1986) suggest that social support has a direct effect on well-being and can act as a buffer between employees exhibiting stress behaviour and well-being (Seers, McGee, Serey, & Graen, 1983) although some scholars posit the buffer effect is less clear in the results. Conversely, low social support was related to low well-being. Karasek and Thearell (1990) suggest that stress is not a single consequence as it affects an individual, but results from a complex situation. Stress has also been depicted as a lack of fit between an individual's needs compared to the demands of the environment. Although some scholars posit that job stress is related to negative health consequences, others report the evidence might be sufficiently lacking. However, Ganster and Schoubroeck (1991) suggest these resulting negative well-being outcomes are not easily explained, except by other factors.

Danna and Griffin (1999) found that the lack of career development could be a source of job stress which may have resulted from company mergers or downsizing. The literature mentions that job characteristics such as individual income and control are related to well-being (Adelmann, 1987).

The literature suggests that there are consequences to low levels of well-being. These negative factors concerning well-being can severely affect the bottom line of an organisation (Cooper and Cartwright, 1994). Karasek and Theorell (1990) report that it costs US organisations \$150 billion to deal with and pay for the costs of stress. Employees claim that job pressures and stress resulted in a variety of health and mental issues suffered by workers (Boyd, 1997). In addition to direct costs, Neville (1998) posits that there are indirect costs associated with negative well-being such as increased health insurance costs and low productivity. Also, organisations are faced with potential law suits which can result in large company pay-outs along with the organisation paying for the costs of defending plaintiff's claims even if the organisation is not at fault.

Conclusion

Psychological contract and organisational citizenship behaviour are linked by past research (Newton, Blanton, & Will, 2008). This study suggests that careerist orientation and organisational citizenship behaviour are mediated by turnover intention and life satisfaction.

Careerist orientation relates to organisation advancement using non-traditional means which in the long run has a negative affect on both employee and employer (Feldman, 1985). Organisational citizenship behaviour on the other hand relates to positive efforts by the employees to go the extra mile for the organisation that usually enhances company performance (Podsakoff, 2000). Turnover intention relates to an employee looking to leave his current position for any number of reasons. Feldman

(1985) contends that employees demonstrating careerist orientation are always looking to move on whether they are in a good working situation or a bad one. Turnover often has a negative effect on organisational citizenship behaviour as the remaining employees must carry the responsibilities and work load of the departed employee until a replacement is employed, if at all. As mentioned earlier, turnover occurring in critical business cycles, in certain industry sectors, can adversely impact the organisational performance and bottom line. For example, an accountant leaving an accounting firm during the height of tax season would affect both fellow employees and the organisation. Life Satisfaction relates to an individual's acceptance and satisfaction with his/her current and past life experiences (Organ, 2006). An employee who is satisfied with his/her personal and family situation should carry over to a positive attitude in the work environment. This attempt to maintain a satisfactory life existence with everyday stresses may be easier said than done. In order to maintain their life style and standard of living, most employees need jobs to meet these obligations. Much of an employee's waking day is spent at work; therefore a positive attitude with satisfied life experiences can be important factors in providing the proper setting for the employee to go the extra mile for the organisation. The goal of management in most organisations is to motivate employees and build a competitive organisation. Motivation can be better accomplished in a positive atmosphere thus providing the best opportunity for employees to exceed expectations. Cooper and Marshall (1978) contend that life satisfaction can influence job activity. The literature suggests that employees demonstrating a positive outlook will override other negative influences on the job (Tellegen, 1982). If the employee is positive about carrying out job functions, this positive attitude can spill over to the job. The employee's positive influence can carry over to co-workers which in turn could negate various in-office conflicts. Many job settings today can cause employee stress, which in turn, can lead to aggression in the

work place among co-workers. These stress related activities/behaviours can affect an employee's work effectiveness and diminish his/her capacity to go the extra mile for the organisation.

Chapter Three

Research Questions

The first research question examines the nature of psychological contract (transactional and relational) in the level of careerist orientation exhibited by the employee. This research question addresses the concept of careerist orientation in organisations and aims to enhance our knowledge of careerist orientation by examining the role of psychological contract as its antecedent. Secondly, this study seeks to examine the role of mechanisms and mediators that link psychological contract (transactional and relational) and careerist orientation to organisational citizenship behaviour. Specifically, the research identifies turnover intention and life satisfaction as two possible mediators in the relationship between psychological contract and careerist orientation to organisational citizenship behaviour. This study examines and compares the relationships within two diverse populations; expatriate and non-expatriate employees.

To restate this study's position, it is proposed that the nature of the psychological contract is an important antecedent of careerist orientation which in turn will have an effect on organisational citizenship behaviour. In addition, this study proposes that the mediating mechanisms of turnover intention and life satisfaction will affect the relationship between psychological contract and careerist orientation on organisational citizenship behaviour. The differences and strengths of the relationships among these variables from the expatriate and non-expatriate participant groups will also be examined.

Hypotheses

This study proposes the following eleven hypotheses to help inform the research question of the study.

1. Transactional Psychological Contract and Careerist Orientation

Transactional psychological contract is based upon short-term and financial relationships. The literature supports the contention that short-term employment fits the careerist who is financially driven (Rousseau, 1989b). If the employee's perception of the organisation is that the company is not interested in the long term and not likely to chart a plan for career development for the employee, the employee is likely to conclude that he/she will have to look out for his/her own interests both within as well as outside the organisation (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). Herriot and Pemberton (1995) found that managers utilize the career development opportunities as and when they arise in organisations. However, as psychological contracts become more short term and the employees move away from long-term employment, such internal opportunities for career development become less and the career paths become multi-directional, wherein people look for opportunities elsewhere (Cappellen & Janssens, 2005). Roberts and Friend (1998) argue that organisations today look to add more flexibility to the work place thereby adding elasticity to the psychological contract. However, this increase in flexibility for the organisation is accompanied by an increased flexibility for the employee who is more likely to be actively seeking opportunities outside the organisation. Careerists are regarded as free agent managers (Mirvis & Hall, 1996) willing to go anywhere (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1996). Suutari (2003) found that global managers actively search for international assignment possibilities in or out of the organisation.

The feeling of trust toward the employer is unlikely to be developed in a situation when the employee perceives a transaction-oriented employment (Morrison &

Robinson, 1997). As a result, the employee may not hesitate to cut corners and use non-performance based means in order to move ahead in his/her career (Feldman, 1985). Employees favouring a transactional psychological contract in the long run will often develop tendencies toward a careerist orientation.

Careerist orientation involves employees moving up the corporate ladder using non-traditional mean. The question of what comes first – does TPC drive CO or does CO cause TPC is difficult to answer. It could be argued that the employer who gives no commitment to the employee and offers only a short term employment arrangement might be setting the stage for the employee to view the present job as a stepping stone for a better assignment. The employer offering a short term psychological contract can expect little more from the employee than a ‘day’s work for a day’s wages’. If the job gives leeway or flexibility to the employee, such as taking short cuts or misrepresenting reports, the employee may have little to lose or for that matter, may be encouraged to do so. CO has been shown to be negative in nature and harmful to the employee in the long run (Feldman, 1985). The careerist may be at an advantage in the short run but not over the long haul.

Hypothesis 1 Transactional psychological contract will be positively related to careerist orientation.

2. Relational Psychological Contract and Careerist Orientation

Relational psychological contracts are based upon long-term, open-ended relationships where both employer and employee make considerable investments (Rousseau, 1989b). If the employee perceives that the organisation is committed to a long-term relationship and career development, the employee will often conclude that the employer is looking out for the employee’s well-being (Rousseau, 1995). As a result, the employee often develops a feeling of trust in the organisation and gives long-term commitment to the company in return for job security (Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron,

1994). Long-term commitment could be expected to reduce the likelihood of careerist orientation.

Commitment by the company may involve a provision of extensive employee training while commitment by the employee involves the development of company specific skills and long term career development (Rousseau, 1995). For example, the organisation may send the employee for executive education programs and industry conferences that may enhance existing training and development programs, all of which involves an investment in the employee's future. The employee who finds the employer's interest in the employee's career growth will not have as strong a reason to look for opportunities elsewhere nor to follow tactics such as impression management and dishonest methods.

Much of today's work scenario involves employees working at their job at the whim of the organisation and the organisation is at the mercy of market conditions that affect the company. However, one of the levels of organisational hierarchy that is not as affected and receives more organisational support is senior management. Unless the company has extremely poor results, where a company scapegoat is needed to place the blame, senior management positions are somewhat secure in many industry sectors. These individuals often have longer term employment contracts and commitment from the employer. The company often provides these individuals perks such as higher pay, excess bonus arrangement, club membership, employee benefits that are much richer than that of the average employee, use of the company jet, and the list goes on – tangible support that the organisation has commitment to the senior level employee. Employment contracts and golden handcuffs can help keep the employee goals and the employer goals consistent. Employees who are selected to be on the organisation's fast track for promotion do not usually exhibit careerist tendencies such as dishonest behaviour. They are usually under the corporate microscope and any observed misdeeds

by these fast trackers would be detrimental to their promotion. These above mentioned individuals in most cases should not be expected to exhibit careerist orientation, but instead, to be very much the company person.

RPC implies employee loyalty to the organisation in return for organisational commitment to the employee. RPC involves an arrangement of trust between employee and employer. On the other hand, the careerist is one that has little trust in the employer, looks for advancement in the organisation by using methods that may benefit the employee, but not necessarily the employer. The approach to the job by the employee exhibiting RPC would be different from the employee looking to advance using non-traditional means.

Hypothesis 2 Relational psychological contract will be negatively related to careerist orientation.

3. Transactional Psychological Contract and Turnover Intention

Transactional psychological contract relates to a short term employment contract between an employee and his/her employer; who in turn perceive the employment arrangement to be financially driven – a day's work for a day's pay. Turnover involves an employee's intention to leave his/her present job for another. An employee who perceives that he/she is on a short term work assignment will often be looking to leave for the next job. It stands to reason that if the employee will be terminated or be leaving sooner or later, he/she would naturally be alert for other job opportunities.

The literature suggests that if the employee perceives that the organisation has not made commitments to employee, he/she usually does not reciprocate (Rousseau, 1990). Today's job climate has evolved from the traditional long-term relationship to a more short-term arrangement. Short-term employment encourages more job mobility. For example, new hires in an organisation who believe the job is a stepping stone are positively related to transactional psychological contract (Rousseau, 1990). Fairness and

trust serve as mediators between contract fulfilment and turnover (Clinton & Guest, 2004).

Employees' attitude to job and employment can be influenced by the effects of good luck and increased financial settings. These outside forces can cause work efforts and attitudes to change over time. A happy worker who has an RPC with the employer and a content home life could change with external forces such as pressures to pay for a child's university education or the responsibility of caring for an elderly parent or relative. These non-work pressures can spill over to the employee's job which in turn may cause tension among fellow workers.

It is interesting to note that today's job market is becoming global, but upon closer inspection, much is local. In the Western world, organisations are influenced by Wall Street where business is profit driven with lesser concern for the employee. This is especially true with companies that are publicly owned and whose managements' compensation is based upon company results. The majority of the information technology work force may accept the job with the understanding that the employment arrangement would be short term. It seems that the IT sector, coincidentally, is generally not one of long term employment, especially among the technicians. Their goal often is to stay current with the latest technology and employable. Many of these types of employees look to other opportunities if those jobs became available. The employee who is hired on a short term arrangement with focus on better job possibilities and better pay can be expected to leave early if the proper job opening presents itself.

Hypothesis 3 Transactional psychological contract will be positively related to turnover intention.

4. Relational Psychological Contract and Turnover Intention

Relational psychological contract involves long-term and open-ended arrangements between employee and employer (Rousseau, 1989b). Turnover intention

is an employee's consideration of leaving his or her current position for another. The literature suggests that an employee who has commitment from the company is not likely to look elsewhere for employment and often will reciprocate (Rousseau, 1989b). Cropanzano and James (1990) found that those employees committed to the organisation and had long-term job expectancy scored lower on turnover intention. Push-pull factors may affect an employee's decision to turnover. Push factors involve careerist attitudes and behaviours (Feldman & Weitz, 1991) whereas pull factors (Allen, Meyer, & Smith 1993) refer to organisational benefits and rewards. Turnover can often be dependent upon the level of employment opportunities in various employment sectors (Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 1999). Turnover intention can be prevented by the quality and quantity of organisational opportunities (Mueller & Price 1990). Employees re-evaluate mutual benefits between employee and employer in an on-going basis (Herriot and Pemberton, 1996) which can be shared by fellow employees (Rosenfield, 1992) and generate turnover discussions (Mano-Negrin, 1998). In addition, relational psychological contract was positively related to an employee's tenure in the company (Rousseau, 1990). The literature suggests that an employee with a relational psychological contract will not demonstrate a high intention to leave.

Notwithstanding efforts by the organisation or attitudes of the employee, availability of job markets in the world can be a major factor in one's decision making. Even an employee exhibiting careerist tendencies and who considers the current job as a stepping stone for something better may maintain status quo if the job market has nothing to offer.

Hypothesis 4 Relational psychological contract will be negatively related to turnover intention.

5. Transactional Psychological Contract and Life Satisfaction

Transactional psychological contract involves a short-term financially driven arrangement between employer and employee (Rousseau, 1989b). Life satisfaction pertains to one's satisfaction with his/her life's position and experiences (Diener et al., 1999). Work and personal lives become interrelated. Workers don't leave the job when they leave the work site for home. The literature suggests that today's employee has much to balance between personal, work, and home obligations. Guest and Conway (2004) found that the growing work/life balance issues plus flexibility and fragmentation of the work force should serve as reasons for a new analytic framework. The employee who has a short-term employment arrangement often lacks job security which can lead to greater anxiety about the future for self and dependents.

Organisational downsizing and company redundancies often make it difficult for employees to have a long term employment agreement with their employer. Many arrangements between employee and an employer in today's job market are transitional and short term in nature (Rousseau, 1989a).

As the world becomes smaller, the ways of doing business and life styles around it often collide. There is even pressure on smaller states and countries to align with larger nations to better carry out business and defend themselves against a number of threats (Foreign Affairs, 2010). David Rockefeller's Trilateral Commission of the 1960s which included a one world government theme had many constructs that were previously rejected but find themselves reappearing. In the West, the Wall Street style - doing business for profit at any cost, can conflict with the collective societies of the East. The collective society protects its fellow members while the Western cultures are more individualistic. The employees of Western societies often look out for themselves first, not the group. At the same time, the Western organisation is primarily interested in the bottom line, not the employee. It could be expected that Western culture employees'

employment arrangements would be more short term. An employee on a short term arrangement is often considering other job opportunities and may not be able to enjoy or be satisfied with other aspects of their lives. Staying employed provides support for the employee and his/her family's standard of living. Short term employment arrangements often cause the employee to be worried about landing the next job – after the current job runs out. In addition, Rousseau (1989b) suggests that employees demonstrating high levels of transactional psychological contract would be negatively related to life satisfaction. It could be expected that employees in this employment setting would not exhibit high levels of life satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5 Transactional psychological contract will be negatively related to life satisfaction.

6. Relational Psychological Contract and Life Satisfaction

Relational psychological contract involves the employee committing to the organisation in return for job stability and security (Rousseau, 1989b). Subjective well being is highly related to life satisfaction which refers to satisfaction with one's life experience as a whole (Diener et al., 1999). Life satisfaction involves satisfaction with life in general whether it be past, current or future (Diener, et al., 1999). The literature suggests an employee spends a large portion of the day at work both at work and at home. The quality of working relationships between workers and supervisors in the workplace is related to well-being. Well-being at work can spill over into personal/home life and vice versa (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Baker, Cesa, Gatts and Mellins (1992) found a significant heritability for negative environmental effects and assortative making influences for positive effects. Headley and Wearing (1989) found that people eventually return to a base line of disposition. People who are happy at work should be happy at home (Diener & Larsen, 1984). Subjective well being/life satisfaction can fluctuate over time and can be influenced by fortune and adversity.

Both husband and wife are employed in many families today. This arrangement is often necessary to maintain a standard of living that both have bought into. Sometimes these individuals live beyond their means. At other times additional income is needed to fund certain commitments such as educational loans, support an elderly family member, purchase a home or build retirement funds. These goals can relate to life satisfaction. Life satisfaction for the family can result from this extra effort. These goal-related efforts can have the effect of the employee staying on the job until the financial commitments mentioned previously have been completed. Paying university fees and supporting elderly parents may be a long term process. During this period, the employee could consider the job as a longer term arrangement regardless of what condition the employer has put in place, but because of his/her need for the job, the employee may look to the employment arrangement as long term. The employee perceiving a long term arrangement could be expected to be a satisfied employee.

Hypothesis 6 Relational psychological contract will be positively related to life satisfaction.

7. Careerist Orientation and Turnover Intention

Careerist orientation lends itself to perceived incompatibility with organisational goals (Feldman, 1985). Turnover intention describes the attitude of an employee who is considering leaving his/her position for another one inside or outside the organisation. Given the findings of past research, a careerist employee is not likely to stay long-term with the organisation (Feldman, 1985). Careerist attitudes and job prospects affect turnover behaviour. Newly hired employees exhibiting careerist orientation believe their position in the organisation is a stepping stone in career advancement (Rousseau, 1990). Company changes can have an effect on an employee's staying with the organisation (Cooper, 1999). Careerist orientation is associated with higher job mobility, both in and out of the firm (Blau & Boal, 1987).

The literature suggests that opportunities in the job market are an important factor for the employee with careerist's tendencies to consider when deciding to leave or stay with the organisation. Employees who are just starting a new position with the organisation and who are demonstrating careerist orientation can look at this new job as a stepping stone in order to secure another position with a current organisation or with another company. Along these lines, the part-time employee is becoming a larger part of the job market. Employers often favour these employees as they can be terminated on short-term notice. These workers are usually not provided any type of company benefits. With no long term job prospects in place, these contingent workers often look to turnover for other opportunities.

Hypothesis 7 Careerist orientation will be positively related to turnover intention.

8. Careerist Orientation and Life Satisfaction

Employees exhibiting careerist orientation have a tendency to look out for themselves first, not the organisation or fellow employees (Feldman, 1985). Past research suggests that stressors may originate for the employee from conflict between work requirements and family roles (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Pressures from work make life away from the job more difficult (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Concentration upon career advancement can have a spill-over effect into personal life. Work and personal lives are interrelated and have reciprocal effects on the other (Coudron, 1997). People who are happy at work could be expected to be happy at home (Diener & Larsen, 1984). The careerist often finds it difficult to balance work, family, and life demands is highly mobile (Feldman, 1985) and involved in career advancement. Therefore, it is likely that the careerist who is highly involved in furthering his/her career will not find sufficient time for other life/family requirements.

Careerist orientation is negative in nature. Negative behaviour demonstrated on the job by the careerist can spill over to negative behaviour at home. Those individuals exhibiting negative behaviour along with attempting to advance within the organisation by using non-traditional means are often negatively related to life satisfaction. The careerist often looks to find something negative about his/her job even though the job can have many good attributes.

Employees exhibiting CO are usually looking to move up the corporate ladder. They spend much time on work related matters and often less on family and personal issues. The careerist exhibits a number of traits which can be negative in nature that are used to advance within the organisation. The goals of the careerist employee often differ from that of the organisation. For example, an employee who was hired by an organisation has certain expectancies from the organisation and vice versa. Certain aspects of the job can appeal to the newly hired employee. The employee may have looked at the position as one that enhances his/her career but early on or midway into the job finds that a number of things may have happened to change the employee's approach to the job. For example, a new management team could have been brought in that takes the company in a different direction or has changed organisational goals which may be different from those when the employee started. The organisation may have been the target of a corporate takeover whose new philosophy and business approach may have changed from that of the original owners/management. In today's job climate, these change scenarios are somewhat common. Companies must stay competitive in the global market place and implement change in order to keep up. The fallout/victims of the change could well be the employees. Events happening to the company may in turn affect the employee, which could result in changes for the employee. These changes for the employee could cause a development of careerist's

orientation to the position/job and a new career direction, different from that of the employer.

Leaving for the sake of leaving, looking out for one's self, making dishonest choices from time to time are tendencies of the careerist that aren't usually the attributes of someone settled in and satisfied with life's experiences and directions. The careerist may not allow sufficient time to recognize the benefits of living a satisfying, balanced, and normal existence. Age and experience may help the careerist develop wisdom in becoming acquainted with what life has to offer beside work related issues. Many events can affect the employee over the years on the job – some good and some not so good. It would be hoped that an employee who is devoting his/her life to a job and not being rewarded as expected, would sooner rather than later recognize this problem and make adjustments accordingly.

Hypothesis 8 Careerist orientation will be negatively related to life satisfaction.

9. Careerist Orientation and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Employees exhibiting careerist orientation believe that ability alone is insufficient to advance in the organisation and use non-traditional means to climb the corporate ladder. OCB involves an employee on his/her own making extended efforts for the organisation without any company reward. The employee who goes the extra mile can be expected to be somewhat loyal to the organisation and what it stands for. The careerist on the other hand is looking out for himself/herself first before considering the organisational needs or those of fellow employees. It could be expected that the careerist employee would not go the extra mile for the organisation.

Hypothesis 9 Careerist orientation will be negatively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

10. Turnover Intention and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The literature suggests that if the employee perceives that the employer has made a commitment to his/her career, the employee will often reciprocate and not be interested in leaving the company. However, the opposite is also true. OCB is behaviour by an employee who goes the extra mile for the employer without recognition or reward. Organisational citizenship behaviours can be the result of the employee reciprocating long-term employer commitment. Turnover intention can be the result of short-term arrangements with the organisation. Turnover intention could be expected to be negatively related to organisational citizenship behaviours.

As mentioned previously, the literature suggests there is a difference between an employee considering leaving his/her current position with an organisation and actually following through. A number of situations may be in place to cause the hesitation. In a tight job market, the availability of job opportunities may be limited or in an up market, the specific job sought by the employee may not be available. In any case, the employee may have developed an intention on leaving. Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie (1997) posit that an employee who is considering departure from his/her job often doesn't go the extra mile for the organisation, especially during the period when he/she is actually looking. Time is usually spent during working hours arranging job searching appointments, time on the telephone coordinating matters for new employment, and actually leaving the post for interviews, new job site reviews and the like. During this pre-job period for the new position, the employee divides his/her time and job focus between the present employer and the new position. This diversion of focus takes away from and often makes it impossible for the employee to go the extra mile for the company. This situation could have a knock-on effect for a company that is understaffed. The employee who is considering leaving puts pressure on his/her fellow workers who have to carry the work load of the departing employee. These events

which occur during peak work load times can affect the organisation's financial results. Organisations can be, for example, in a specialist industry that requires specialized training and education. It may be difficult for the company to replace a highly trained employee on short-term notice. It could be expected that an employee leaving the organisation would not go the extra mile for the organisation.

The employee who is committed to by the employer often reciprocates in some manner with positive work related behaviour that benefits the organisation. Turnover Intention can result from a number of reasons. It can be introduced entirely from the employee, or be the result of circumstances among fellow employees or decisions by the employer that adversely affects the employee. Generally the employee who has been made to work extra hours with the same pay may not be happy with this arrangement and want to look elsewhere. He/she may have had little/no intention of leaving before the action of the employer. The employee could be affected by unfair behaviour by new management. The company may have been acquired or merged with another organisation with different management and new rules and/or regulations. The employee may have survived a merger, but now may have increased responsibility at the same pay level. He/she could have been happy with the job before the latest occurrence. On the other hand, the employee could have a good job, but as a careerist, is looking to move on. In the first two examples, the employees exhibited careerist tendencies after being the subject of fellow employees and employer mistreatment. In the third example, the employee was a careerist from the start. The literature suggests an employee exhibiting careerist attitudes will be less likely to go the extra mile for the organisation.

Hypothesis 10 Turnover intention will be negatively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

11. Life Satisfaction and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Life satisfaction refers to satisfaction with one's overall experiences and is highly related to subjective well-being (Diener et al., 1999). OCB involves an employee that goes beyond what is expected of him/her without recognition by the company. The literature suggests work and personal lives are interrelated and have reciprocal effects of the other (Coudron, 1997). Working relationships between workers and superiors can be related to well-being. Companies that initiate content-based programs to assist employees who have stress from work and non-work activities, found these programs positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Conflicts between home and job can lead to lower performance at work and less life satisfaction. Employees who perceive the organisation to be trustworthy, are likely to remain loyal and productive, notwithstanding high stress levels at home and at work (Siegel, Brockner, Fishman, & Garden, 2005). Supervisor support and sensitivity for an employee who is extending extra effort while meeting stresses on the job and at home will exhibit positive life satisfaction (Siegel et al., 2005).

An employee who goes the extra mile for the organisation with no visible reward for doing so is usually satisfied/happy with some part of his/her life. The old saying, 'all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy' is more true than fable. Podsakoff et al.(1997) mentions the spill-over effect of an employee whose happiness/satisfaction outside the job is often highly related to carrying the same mind set on the job. The employee, who has a happy home and private life, could be expected to be happy with his/her position in the organisation. This individual is often one of the dependable employees that looks to help fellow workers in the department, someone who doesn't complain about matters not going right, is available to support new employees and is seldom absent from work or late to meetings. It could be expected that an employee

who is satisfied with his/her life experiences at home and at work, would do more for the organisation than is required without reward.

OCB involves a number of factors/items that are highly correlated to life satisfaction. An employee who likes what he/she is doing in one area or activity often carries over to others. Attitude and disposition seem to relate to better chances of satisfaction. The ability to apply a positive approach to life and business pressures/stresses often put the employee in a better position to respond/do good for the company and co-workers. Those individuals who like what they are doing at work can more easily set an example for co-workers and encourage them to go the extra mile for the company. Employees exhibiting OCB extend themselves in various ways to benefit the organisation. Some of these employee characteristics don't immediately benefit the organisation but overall, have a positive effect in the long run.

Hypothesis 11 Life satisfaction will be positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Conclusion

This chapter attempted to provide support for hypotheses regarding the relationships between psychological contract, careerist orientation and organisational citizenship behaviour with the mediating factors of turnover intention and life satisfaction. In the next chapter, this study will review the methods used in this study.

Chapter Four

Methods

Participants

Data were collected from employees who worked in the US and employees who were on an overseas assignment. Questionnaires have been used to obtain data from employees who have responded to a cross sectional survey. This study used questions in the surveys that have been tested in prior studies (Rousseau, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1997; Feldman & Weitz, 1991). This analysis of the data considered the characteristics of two different type employees – the employee who worked in a home country environment/non-expatriates and the employee who is assigned to a location away from home/expatriates. The expatriate works among employees who are usually strangers initially, who possibly speak a different language, and exhibit other cultural differences. The expatriate could have difficulties interacting with this new group, have difficulty developing new relationships among these foreign individuals or lack the adjustment flexibility required to effectively carry out his/her new assignment. These issues are often not faced by the non-expatriate. The study was designed to accommodate both groups. The questionnaire was concerned with identifying and measuring variables for both groups that could accommodate either one so that a worthwhile comparison could be made.

Age. For example, age was a demographic control variable that could be an influencing factor in the way the respondents answer the questionnaire. Younger employees often look to gain experiences with the current employer and be available if other employment opportunities present themselves. The older employee often looks more to stability and safety in the job setting with a possible an eye on retirement. The survey indicated that expatriates are a younger group (average age 42) as opposed to the non-expatriate group (average age 54). Most international companies post employees to

overseas positions during their mid career stage rather than at the end. The international experience is usually part of a management development career path. As the world becomes smaller, many multinationals consider that experience gained beyond the home country to be valuable. By understanding how other countries/cultures conduct business can be important when the manager/employee reaches a decision making position (if not already) and the organisation is conducting business with that country. Many business transactions have been successful or have failed because of the employee's understanding of (or lack of) the unwritten rules of the game in another culture. These experiences shared by the expatriate employees who are younger in age than the non-expatriates could therefore affect the manner in which the respondents complete the survey.

Education. Education was another demographic control variable that might affect the respondents' outcome. Most, if not all, expatriates were university graduates as opposed to non-expatriates where some respondents were not. This could be expected as most expatriates were middle or senior level management with multinational companies. These organisations could be expected to have selected university graduates for the management training program of which overseas experiences may be required. However, some expatriate workers possessed a particular technical skill which required training most often outside a university setting. For example, these workers could be computer maintenance personnel or field workers in the energy sector without having attended university. After completing the international posting, the expatriate employee may be approached by other organisations looking for this type employee – someone at the mid or senior management level with international experience. These managers often have university or advanced degrees to go along with their international experience. By being more visible in their respective field, the expatriate often has opportunities not available to the non-expatriate. These

opportunities can lead to job offers from other organisations which in the end can lead to turnover. The experienced expatriate can find himself/herself in a strong bargaining position with various/multiple job offers on the table. These overseas experiences combined with higher levels of education can influence the manner in which the expatriate responds to the survey. The expatriate belongs to a group that may be different in various ways when compared to the non-expatriate.

The experience of the respondents should have an influence on the manner in which the employee completes the survey. The international experience is important to many executives who are aspiring to a higher level position, especially in a multinational organisation. The US expatriate can initially be somewhat restricted in his/her international experience by having never travelled outside the US. Incidentally, only 10% of US citizens have a passport. However, some US individuals during their university years often travel and work in countries beyond their own borders. In doing so, they learn to be fluent in one or two languages beyond their own and are exposed to different cultures.

The US expatriate with English as his/her only language and never having been outside the US can be at somewhat of a disadvantage when moving with family to an overseas location. This move can be traumatic to the trailing spouse and children who often receive little support from the organisation. Thus, the international experience gained during university can be important later years in adapting to cultures and traditions not often encountered in the US.

An expanded horizon is often experienced by the expatriate group during their overseas posting which can influence the employee in decision making. Therefore, the international experiences gained, in turn, can influence the manner in which the expatriate respondents completed the survey.

Gender. Gender was another control variable tested among the two groups.

The overseas experience can be very challenging to women who have a management position especially in a country where females are not accepted on the same level as males. In these situations, women managers often have to work twice as hard as their male counterparts - just to be accepted and then, to do the job they were hired to do.

Only 15% of expatriate managers are women. If not handled appropriately by management, the expatriate woman executive could be placed in a no-win situation in some overseas postings. For example, by being placed in charge of a group of men in the Middle East or in China could prove to be very difficult. The net result could well be a failed posting and possibly causing a negative attitude in the female employee.

The woman executive could well lose trust in the employer possibly perceiving that the employer did not commit to her when needed nor was truthful about the position being offered. In this scenario, the female employee could be seen to develop careerist tendencies – looking to turnover and join an organisation, more committed to its employees. As the result of being placed in a difficult management position, a careerist attitude could be evidenced in the women executives' survey response which may be much different from a woman manager who holds a similar position back home in the US. The women in home territory are possibly in an employment surrounding that very well accepts female management. This percentage of women expatriate managers has been fairly constant over the years. Away from the job, the women expatriate executive may lead a lonely existence, especially if there is no trailing partner or she is on the assignment by herself. She usually does not socialize with the secretaries or support staff, nor go drinking with the boys. So, she often works extra hours at the office as going back to the apartment to be by herself has few challenges. These experiences will undoubtedly affect the employees' attitude toward the job and lead to possible differences in survey responses when compared to women who stayed home to work.

Participants for this study were non-expatriate employees in the US who had never worked overseas and US and UK expatriate employees currently on assignment in an overseas posting. Participants were recruited from the US and the UK. Of the 520 people who were recruited to participate in this study, 442 returned completed surveys (84% response rate). Of these, 210 were non-expatriates and 232 were expatriates.

Overall, there were 351 males and 91 females. The average age of the participants was 42 for expatriates and 54 for non-expatriates. Additional demographic information is presented in Tables 2 and 3. Age, gender, marital status and education were used as a control variable in later analyses.

Non-Expatriates. For the non-expatriate group, questionnaires were given to a survey coordinator who was well known in the business community and who personally hand delivered them to business owners and industry managers in the Western Pennsylvania area. The researcher asked the survey coordinator to randomly distribute the questionnaires among this group of business employees. The coordinator then personally distributed the surveys to various employees. The surveys were placed in individually sealed envelopes along with a letter of instruction indicating that participation was voluntary and anonymous. Once completed, the surveys were physically handed back to the survey coordinator. The questionnaires were then personally collected by the researcher from the survey coordinator. The average for the non-expatriate group was 54.

Expatriates. For the expatriate group, the researcher asked a centre of influence in an expatriate community in the UK to identify and distribute surveys to expatriate individuals. The researcher had known the centre of influence who was married to an expatriate business acquaintance. The participants'/respondents' lived in the Cobham/Surrey area, a community of middle/upper class residents. These individuals whose average age of 42 placed them in middle to upper management. Many were

married with children generally in teenage years. The survey coordinator had been a teacher at the International Community School in Cobham/Surrey for over 20 years. The researcher asked the teacher to act as the survey coordinator and to randomly distribute the surveys to expatriate employees. The school had been a high school/university preparatory institution for grades 9-12 for students looking to attain the international baccalaureate. The surveys were enclosed along with a letter of instruction in a sealed envelope advising participants that the survey was anonymous, confidential and entirely voluntary. A large expatriate population was located in the Cobham/Surrey area where many children of expatriates attended the school. The teacher/survey coordinator had known many of the expatriate parents of children in the school. The coordinator also had known many of the expatriate residents who were employed by various business organisations in the UK. The teacher/survey coordinator personally distributed the questionnaires to the expatriate employees. Upon completion, the surveys were physically handed back to the survey coordinator who then returned them by hand to the researcher.

Questionnaire

All questions contained in the survey were constructed as closed end. An advantage of this type of question is that all participants who respond review similar questions. The information collected can be compared among groups who are participating.

Reliability Importance

The literature suggests that scores from structural equation modelling (SEM) be reliable and valid (Kline, 2005). Reliability involves the degree that scores are free from random measurement error such as clerical mistake in reading of the scores. Reliability is estimated which in turn are known as reliability coefficients whose symbol is $\check{r}_{xx}$ ranging from 0-1.00. For instance, if $\check{r}_{xx} = .70$, then .30 is estimated as due to random

error. A negative reliability coefficient is interpreted as a 0 value but often raises a question concerning the scores.

Although there are various random errors, Cronbach's Alpha is the most frequently used estimate of reliability that measures internal consistency/reliability. Other types of score reliability are test-related reliability that concerns re-administration of the same group for a second time. Alternate forms reliability evaluates the stability of scores of various versions of the same test. Reliability coefficients can range from .90 excellent, to .80 very good, to .70 adequate.

Measures

Questionnaire packets were handed out to the respondents along with a cover letter describing the general purpose of the survey. The letter also advised the respondents of confidentiality of their responses, that participation was voluntary, and instructions for the return of the surveys using an enclosed self-addressed envelope.

Psychological Contract. This scale developed by Rousseau (2000) was designed to measure the strength of the psychological contract. This 28-item scale asks the employees to consider their relationship with their employer and the employees' perceptions of the extent to which the employer has made commitments or obligations to the employees. For transactional psychological contract, participants answered items such as, "My employer makes no commitments to retain me in the future" on a 1 (Not at All) to 5 (To a Great Extent) Likert type scale. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) was 0.72. For relational psychological contract, participants answered items such as, "My employer is responsive to my personal concerns and well-being" on a 1 (Not at All) to 5 (To a Great Extent) Likert type scale. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) was 0.83.

Careerist Orientation. A scale by Feldman and Weitz (1991) asks employees to describe attitudes and beliefs regarding the relationship between an employee and

his/her employing organisation. Participants responded to the 23 questions on a 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) Likert type scale. A sample item is, “It’s hard to get ahead in an organisation on sheer merit alone.” The reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) was 0.89.

Turnover Intention. Items on this scale, developed by Cropanzano and James (1990), ask the respondent his or her intention or the likelihood of looking for a job with another organisation within the next year. A sample item from this 3-item scale is “How often do you think about quitting your job at this organisation?” Participants answered on a 1 (Rarely) to 7 (Very Often) on a Likert type scale. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) was 0.88.

Life Satisfaction. This five-item scale, developed by Pavot and Diener (1993), asks employees to indicate their satisfaction of their life condition. Participants answered items such as, “In most ways my life is close to my ideal” on a 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree) Likert type scale. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) was 0.89.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. This scale developed by Mackenzie, Podsakoff, and Fetter (1993) asks respondents to relate how people might engage in various activities in the organisation. There were 12 items and participants answered using a 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) Likert type scale. A sample item was, “I keep up with developments in the company.” The reliability coefficient (Cronbach alpha) was 0.79.

Demographic Variables. The demographic questionnaire asked participants to report their age, gender, highest education level attained, marital status, employment status of spouse, and number of dependent children. In addition, information was collected on the hierarchical level at which the employee is currently working, number of job changes in the past, total years of work experience, functional department in

which the employee is working and nature of industry. Age, gender, marital status and education were included as control variables in the analyses.

Response Rate Importance

Baruch & Holtom (2008) discuss survey response rate level and trends in organisational research and state that the questionnaire is the most often used tool in obtaining quantitative data. Kraut (1996) posits that the questionnaire is used extensively in organisational research. The results from academic research stems from cooperative respondents completing the requisite surveys. Rogelberg and Stanton (2007) note that the response rate for questionnaires used for academic research has declined in recent years. The authors suggest that more credence is often given to studies with higher response rates. On the other hand, Cook, Heath, and Thompson (2000) posit that response representiveness is more critical than response rates. It is ideal however, if both can be accomplished. The literature mentions that a number of alternative technologies/methods have been developed to alleviate low response rate in academic studies but there remains a lack of agreement among scholars concerning these newer developments. Some authors insist that the reviewer of articles bear the responsibility of articles entered into journals and texts to include sufficient response rates. If not adequate, the reviewer should take action to have the researcher follow up with the respondents and attempt to make an increase in the response rate (Campion, 1993). Sullivan, Crocotto, and Carraher (2006) report the importance of response rate and mention there are attempts to hide the return results if they are low. The researcher realizes that reviews and editors often take into account the response rate issue, especially when it is low. Response rates may be low for a number of reasons – the survey given to the wrong target audience is one while respondent hesitation the other. Better preparation in delivering the survey can often result in increased response. Response reluctance is often more difficult to overcome. Weiner and Dalessio (2006)

found that employees in some organisations have been overwhelmed with surveys resulting in response fatigue. The literature suggests that overall response rate was declining but has stabilized in the past few years. Reasons given by respondents for not responding are too busy, survey not relevant and company policy of not to complete surveys (Fenton-O'Creevey, 1996). Cychota and Harrison (2002) found that response rates from individuals were higher on average than responses from organisations. Overall, the literature suggests a stabilization of response rates especially among individuals which should bode well for researchers conducting future studies.

The analyses and results of this study will be reviewed in the next chapter.

Chapter Five

Analyses and Results

Analyses

The analyses were performed in the following steps. The first step was to calculate the descriptive statistics for expatriates and non-expatriates. The second step was to remove differences in key study variables. This step was to examine the bivariate correlations between the key study variables in expatriates and non-expatriates. The third step was to examine the structure of these relationships in the expatriate and non expatriate samples. Path analysis using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was then used to specify two models with which to analyze the two data sets.

Structural Equation Modelling

SEM relates to a host of related procedures and doesn't involve a single statistical technique (Kline, 2005). In general, there are five steps in SEM: (a) model specification, (b) model identification, (c) model estimation, (d) testing model fit, and (e) model manipulation (Kline, 2005). The first step is model specification, where parameters in the model are designated as fixed or free (Hoyle, 1995). The second step is model identification, which involves the association between the number of free parameters and the number of data points (i.e., variances and covariances) (MacCallum & Mar, 1995). In order to be testable, the model must have more observations than parameters that will be estimated (Hoyle, 1995).

Model estimation, the third step, corresponds to the process by which start values of parameters are converged onto the observed population covariance matrix with the goal being to minimize the residual matrix (i.e., unexplained variance). The desired outcome of the estimation process is a fit function that approaches zero; this

indicates that the estimated and observed covariance matrices are the same (Kline, 2005). The following analyses are based on maximum likelihood estimation.

The fourth step involves testing the overall model fit. The overall fit is tested using a chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic. The chi-square statistic can be strongly influenced by violations of assumptions, large sample size (i.e., more likely to be significant with large sample size), and the complexity of the model (Schermmelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Muller, 2003). Therefore, a number of approximate fit indices have been developed to judge the degree of fit in the observed models. Note that these indices do not statistically test the model, but, instead, provide descriptive indicators of the degree of fit. The alternative model fit indices reported by the program Mplus 4.1 include the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (Hu & Bentler, 1995). Good model fit is indicated if the CFI is greater than .90 and the RMSEA is less than .08 (Kline, 2005).

Results

Descriptive statistics. The descriptive information for the key study variables is presented in Table 1. To determine how the variables in the study were related, bivariate correlations among the variables were examined (see Tables 2 and 3). As indicated in the tables, there were a number of significant correlations among the variables, thus providing preliminary evidence that the variables are indeed related to one another. In addition, at a preliminary level, there were a number of relationships that differed between expatriates and non-expatriates, thus suggesting that the associations could be dependent on group membership. The next analytical step took this further by examining these relationships simultaneously within a structural equation modelling framework for each group of respondents.

Associations among key study variables. The results of the single group structural equation model are presented in Figures 1 and 2. The baseline models had all

of the paths constrained to zero, with parameters freed one at a time based on the modification indices. The models, presented in Figures 1 and 2 fit the data well and indicated a number of significant paths. The fit statistics are Expatriates $\chi^2(4) = 9.84$; $p = .04$; CFI = 0.982; RMSEA = 0.079. Non-expatriates $\chi^2(4) = 8.45$; $p = .08$; CFI = 0.983; RMSEA = 0.073. This analysis found a number of paths that were non-invariant across expatriates and non-expatriates.

Results of Tests of Hypotheses

The results are based on significance of the path coefficients shown in Figures 1 and 2.

Hypothesis 1. Transactional psychological contract will be positively related to careerist orientation. Transactional psychological contract was positively related to careerist orientation for expatriates and non-expatriates. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2. Relational psychological contract will be negatively related to careerist orientation. Relational psychological contract was negatively related to careerist orientation for both expatriates and non-expatriates. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3. Transactional psychological contract will be positively related to turnover intention. Transactional psychological contract was positively related to careerist orientation which was positively related to turnover intention. Therefore, transactional psychological contract was indirectly and significantly related to turnover intention for both expatriates and non-expatriates. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Hypothesis 4. Relational psychological contract will be negatively related to turnover intention. Relational psychological was negatively related to turnover intention for expatriates and non-expatriates. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Hypothesis 5. Transactional psychological contract will be negatively related to life satisfaction. Transactional psychological contract was positively related to careerist

orientation which was negatively related to life satisfaction for both expatriates and non-expatriates. Therefore, transactional psychological contract was indirectly negatively and significantly related to life satisfaction, thus completely mediated by careerist orientation. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was supported.

Hypothesis 6. Relational psychological contract will be positively related to life satisfaction. Relational psychological contract was negatively related to turnover intention. Relational psychological contract was negatively related to careerist orientation which was negatively related to life satisfaction for both expatriates and non-expatriates. Therefore, relational psychological contract was indirectly and significantly related to life satisfaction and mediated by careerist orientation. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was supported.

Hypothesis 7. Careerist orientation will be positively related to turnover intention. Careerist orientation was positively related to turnover intention for expatriates and non-expatriates. Thus, Hypothesis 7 was supported.

Hypothesis 8. Careerist orientation will be negatively related to life satisfaction. Careerist orientation was negatively related to life satisfaction for expatriates and non-expatriates. Thus, Hypothesis 8 was supported.

Hypothesis 9. Careerist orientation will be negatively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Careerist orientation was negatively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Careerist orientation was positively related to turnover intention which in turn was negatively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Careerist orientation was negatively related to life satisfaction which in turn was positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. The effect of careerist orientation on organisational citizenship behaviour was directly related and indirectly related by mediators turnover intention and life satisfaction. Thus Hypothesis 9 was supported.

Hypothesis 10. Turnover intention will be negatively related to organisational citizenship behaviours. There was no relationship between turnover intention and organisational citizenship behaviour for expatriates and non-expatriates. Thus, Hypothesis 10 was not supported.

Hypothesis 11. Life satisfaction will be positively related to organisational citizenship behaviours. Life satisfaction was positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour for expatriates and non-expatriates. Thus, Hypothesis 11 was supported.

Chapter Six

Discussion

This study had the following research question: What are the relationships among psychological contract (relational and transactional), and careerist orientation and predictors of organisational citizenship behaviour? More specifically, does careerist orientation mediate the relationship between psychological contract and organisational citizenship behaviour? Additionally, this study examined the roles of turnover intention and life satisfaction as mediators of the relationships of psychological contract and careerist orientation with organisational citizenship behaviour. Finally, this study examined and compared the above mentioned relationships within two diverse populations; expatriate and non-expatriate employees. The hypotheses were tested using survey data from 232 full-time expatriate employees and 210 full-time non-expatriate employees. Using data from two different populations helped this study verify the external validity of the theory. The data were analyzed through structural equation modelling. The theoretical and practical implications, the limitations, and conclusion of this study are discussed in the following sections.

Theoretical Implications

This study included relational psychological contract in the model, previous research did not. Therefore, this study provides a more comprehensive model and helps increase our understanding of the nomological network of careerist orientation.

Regarding the model, the results of this study add to the understanding of antecedents of careerist orientation by showing that transactional psychological contract is positively related to careerist orientation and relational psychological contract is negatively related to careerist orientation. Thus, in addition to possible factors related to an employee's personality traits and prior work experience, careerist orientation is also influenced by employee perceptions of the nature of psychological contract with the

employer. The literature (Sullivan, 1999) suggests that guaranteed employment has been replaced by short-term arrangements (Peiperl & Baruch, 1997). Employers have replaced life-long employment contracts with those financially focused and shorter term in duration (Rousseau, 1990). Because the nature of psychological contract is changing with the times, at a macro-level, an interesting research question is whether the level of careerist orientation of new employees entering the workforce is higher compared to the experienced workforce.

Important outcomes of careerist orientation not studied by previous research are life satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. Careerist orientation was negatively related to life satisfaction in both the expatriate and non-expatriate sample. There is need for more research on the linkages between work domain and other life domains of people. Danna and Griffin (1999) noted in their review of past research on personal well-being in the work place, “Indeed, for a variety of reasons these [health and well-being] issues should occupy a much more prominent niche in mainstream organisational research.” In other words, as the level of careerist orientation increases in an employee, the level of life satisfaction often goes down. A higher careerist orientation implies a negative attitude (e.g., cynicism and willingness to work against the organisational norms) toward one’s job. Attitudes from work context spill over to other domains in life. A stressful situation (if one keeps a negative attitude) only makes for lesser life satisfaction. Also, this study found life satisfaction to be positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour. Podsakoff et al. (2000), notes that the role of life satisfaction has not been examined so far in the organisational citizenship behaviour literature. An employee who goes the extra mile with no visible reward for doing so which benefits the organisation is often satisfied/happy with some part of his/her life. The results of this study are consistent with, Podsakoff et al., (1996) assertion that a happy person is likely to bring a positive attitude to the job.

In order to understand the differences in results, this study reviewed the Chay and Aryee (1999) study, which examined some of the method-related differences. This study used the complete 23-item scale of careerist orientation whereas Chay and Aryee used only six items from the scale. It is not known whether those six items adequately capture the dimensions of careerist orientation. Thus, this study provides a useful replication of some interrelationships (or their absence) between variables using a more comprehensive measure of careerist orientation.

Overall, the findings indicate that psychological contract and other variables are mediated by careerist orientation. Thus, the study adds to the psychological contract literature by examining the mechanism through which certain job attitudes and behaviours such as turnover intention and organisational citizenship behaviour occur. This study indicates that careerist orientation could be an important causal mechanism in these relationships.

Model Results

Most of the hypothesized differences were found true in both expatriates as well as non-expatriates. The research provides a stronger support to some of the relationships in the model because the results have been replicated with a different sample. The fact that many of the relationships were consistent for both the samples indicates that the relationship of careerist orientation with many of the antecedents and consequences could be generalisable across different populations. Therefore, this research design of two independent groups provides stronger support for the model than a single, undifferentiated population of managers and professionals. Not all relationships were consistently supported in the two groups though. Possible reasons for such differences are explored under the discussion of results.

There was a positive relationship between transactional psychological contract and turnover intention that was mediated by careerist orientation for expatriates and

non-expatriates (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). Employees with a short-term orientation would have a greater tendency to leave early and the opposite to be true with long-term employees (Rousseau, 1990). A negative relationship existed between relational psychological contract and turnover intention in expatriates and non-expatriates. Long-term employees will have more time to build relationships and demonstrate loyalty.

There was a positive relationship between relational psychological contract and organisational citizenship behaviour in expatriates, which was completely mediated by careerist orientation and life satisfaction. There was a positive relationship between relational psychological contract and organisational citizenship behaviour in non-expatriates. This research shows that the reasons or mechanisms that explain why psychological contract affects organisational citizenship behaviour are related to careerist orientation and life satisfaction.

For expatriates and non-expatriates, there was a significant relationship between transactional psychological contract and turnover intention suggesting that the relationship for expatriates was indirect, conveyed through careerist orientation. For expatriates and non-expatriates, there was a positive relationship between transactional psychological contract and turnover intention which was mediated through careerist orientation.

Transactional psychological contract was positively related to careerist orientation in the case of expatriates and non-expatriates. The expatriate who is on a short-term employment arrangement, may not have been told that the employer has little employee commitment during the posting period and thereafter. The expatriate in many cases is initially less prepared for the assignment, professionally and socially, and might struggle with the challenges of adjustment. Given the widely available knowledge of documented challenges of many expatriates (Mendenhall & Odden, 1985; Tung 1988; Minter, 2008) an employee who has been asked to go on an expatriate assignment

may perceive that the employer has little concern for the welfare of the employee – especially after having possibly discussed the proposed assignment with unhappy fellow workers who have recently returned. Even though the perception of psychological contract might be transactional for both groups of employees, especially with a company exhibiting no commitment to the employee, an expatriate may be more likely to take this one step further in terms of adopting a careerist orientation.

Relational psychological contract was negatively related to careerist orientation in the case of expatriates and non-expatriates. Non-expatriates who commit to the organisation in return for job security do not usually look to advance in the corporation using non-traditional means. For the relationship between transactional psychological contract and careerist orientation in the case of expatriates, careerist orientation is not dampened. The expatriate may initially perceive a long-term arrangement with the company, but the major changes in adjustment and lack of preparation often required in many of these assignments might prompt the expatriate to change his/her expectations and display a high careerist orientation.

Regarding hypotheses that were significant in the model, careerist orientation had a significant negative direct relationship to organisational citizenship behaviour in expatriates and non-expatriates. One of the explanations for the occurrence of OCB is that employees reciprocate to the organisation by going the extra mile for what the organisation does for the employee (e.g., organisational justice, leader support). Employees scoring high on careerist orientation typically do not believe that either the organisation or the employee owes anything to the other and so, performing behaviour above the normal role expectations has less likelihood. In addition, employees demonstrating careerist orientation pursue goals that might be incompatible with that of the organisation.

This study found a positive relationship between careerist orientation and turnover intention (Feldman, 1985), but turnover intention was not related to organisational citizenship behaviour. While there was a significant negative correlation between turnover intention and organisational citizenship behaviour, the model path was non-significant.

Careerist orientation was positively related to turnover intention in the case of expatriates and non-expatriates. A possible reason might be that expatriates have expanded networks and are heavily recruited which often gives them more opportunity to leave. In the case of non-expatriates, they may be considering leaving and concentrating on other job offers while still with the current employer.

RPC implies a long term arrangement and loyalty to the organisation in return for company commitment to the employee. An arrangement of trust between employee and employer is involved with the RPC. On the other hand, the careerist is one that looks for advancement in the organisation by using methods that may benefit the employee but not necessarily the employer. The approach to the job by the employee exhibiting RPC would be different from the employee looking to advance using non-traditional means.

Another interesting result of this research was that RPC was directly positively related to OCB in non-expatriates. The employee who has a long term and trusting relationship with his/her employer often exhibits relational psychological contract attributes in his/her job. Although organisations today are often forced to offer short term employment arrangements to its employees in order to stay competitive, there are segments of the job market that offer long term relationships – for example, private banking. Private banks usually have long term employees in key customer contact positions in order to keep good customer relations and customer confidence. A strong, trusting relationship is usually built up over time between banker and customer who has

faith in the bank to protect his/her accumulated wealth. Many banking surveys over the years have stated that investment results on the customer's investment portfolio rank second to the customer's confidence in the banker. It is in the private bank's best interest to maintain a high level of employer commitment to these key employees. These employees can add value by keeping a good relationship with the high net worth customer and maintaining the account along with the bank fees that go with it. The employee enhances the bank's financial stability. The competition for the accounts of the high net worth customer is very keen. The requirements of the job over time often require the employee to go the extra mile for the customers which in turn benefits the bank. Thus the benefits of relational psychological contract could go beyond OCB in terms of better customer service and retention of key customer accounts.

Another interesting result was that TPC was marginally and directly negatively related to OCB for expatriates and non-expatriates. For both expatriates and non-expatriates, the relationship was mediated through CO and LS. Going the extra mile for the organisation is highly correlated with behaviour that benefits the organisation. An employee who exhibits TPC on the other hand usually has a short term relationship and may or may not be interested in longer term activity that is helpful to the company. Many organisations today offer shorter term employment arrangements. With this type of short-term employment atmosphere, it may be difficult for an employee to be in a position of wanting to go the extra mile. For example, a recently hired employee may find him/herself in a totally unappreciated situation. The employee might be hired by a sales organisation where much of the incoming new business is controlled and directed by a senior manager who has his/her 'select' team members. These individuals receive special treatment and a large part of the incoming new business is directed to the 'insiders' by the senior manager. It would be assumed that the employee who is not an 'insider' would not look to have a relational arrangement with the organisation. By

having to work harder than the other insider employees, just to qualify for possible pre-selected sales goals/quotas, this employee would probably not go the extra mile for the company under the current circumstances.

The study indicated direct relationships existed between a number of variables but also resulted in certain variables acting as mediators between constructs.

Employees who have long term employment arrangements with their employer often perceive a high level of RPC. Employees with longer term arrangements have opportunity to build benefits and establish reputation over time. In turn, the employer often commits to these types of employees. Results of the study indicate that the relationship between RPC and OCB was mediated by careerist orientation and life satisfaction. That is, people with a high relational psychological contract show a reduced level of careerist orientation and that helps in eliciting organisational citizenship behaviours. Similarly, people with a high relational psychological contract show a higher level of life satisfaction and that promoted organisational citizenship behaviours.

There was a direct negative relationship between TPC and OCB in expatriates. The employee expecting little support from the employer with a short term employment arrangement could be expected to exhibit careerist tendencies and would not likely go the extra mile for the organisation.

There was a negative relationship between TPC and OCB in non- expatriates which was mediated by CO and LS. As mentioned above, the employee would not be expected to go the extra mile for the company while on short term employment and exhibiting a careerist attitude. A relationship between CO and OCB could be affected by the employee's level of LS.

There was a direct positive relationship between RPC and OCB in non- expatriates, but was completely mediated by CO and LS in expatriates. The employee

who has a long-term employment arrangement could be expected to go the extra mile for the organisation without any recognition. However, the employment arrangement may change resulting in the employee exhibiting careerist tendencies which, in turn, could change the relationship between RPC and OCB in non-expatriates.

There was a negative relationship between CO and OCB that was completely mediated by TI and LS in expatriates and non-expatriates. The employee who is exhibiting careerist behaviour, such as using the present position as a stepping stone, would be expected to leave early and not be expected to go the extra mile for the organisation.

There was a positive relationship between RPC and LS in expatriates and non-expatriates which was completely mediated by CO. The employee who has a long-term employment arrangement with the organisation can be expected to exceed the job expectations/description but could change attitude toward the employer if the employment arrangement is adversely affected and a careerist attitude is developed.

Two samples from different populations were chosen as they enabled an additional and stronger test of this study's hypotheses than a study from one population. It is always useful to know if the results from one sample generalize to other samples. These two groups were also chosen because they were likely to differ on the predictor and criterion variables and so, provided greater variance in the data and the opportunity to detect the effect of one variable on another.

Future Research

This study examined two populations – expatriates and non-expatriates. As discussed earlier, these two groups mainly differ on the extent of familiarity of the employee with the job and social context and the level of adjustment required by the employee and his/her family. This lack of familiarity and preparation and the greater need for family adjustment are possibly related to the employee's own desires to accept

the new assignment – notwithstanding the difficulty in balancing work and family demands, and the perception of support from the employer. While in this study, these underlying differences were captured by the dichotomous variable (expatriate versus non-expatriate), it is important for future research to actually measure the underlying differences. Moreover, these underlying differences (e.g., extent of familiarity of the employee with the job and social context and the adjustment requirement) are expected to operate with other groups of workers too. For example, immigrant workers might face a similar (if not more) lack of familiarity and preparation in their new jobs. Comparing attitudes of immigrant versus local workers would be useful. In general, the factors that contribute to the lack of familiarity and preparation and the need for adjustment in the new context could vary across jobs and might be studied as predictors of careerist orientation.

Future research - psychological contract. As organisations worldwide continued a downsizing of labour, equipment and spending, the psychological contract between employee and employer has changed along with it (Rousseau, 1990). The earlier version of psychological contract focused entirely on the perception of the employee – in his/her eyes only. This early description of the psychological contract has changed to accommodate two parties to the agreement – employer and employee (Herriot, Pemberton, & Hawtin, 1996). The literature is well documented evidencing the psychological contract evolving from one of relational/open ended support to an agreement that is transactional/short term and financially focused. Future research might consider a study that investigates a newer psychological contract – one that addresses severe world economic depression where any job is at a premium. A model could be based upon the employees/employer employment relationship in Germany after WW I or that in the U.S. in the early 1930s – severe economic

depression/conditions. This research could provide practical data along with academic interest.

Some parts of the world are potentially emerging financial and global powers. Many businesses are looking past the U.S. and the E.U. onward to the Mideast and Far East as the next areas of growth. Will there be new psychological contracts in these areas of the world that are culturally different from the West? Future research might conduct a study to determine if the psychological contract of eastern collectivist cultures can maintain a more relational model of protecting members of the group as power and greed evidenced in western financial centres possibly overtake this section of the world, thereby introducing a more transactional or another type arrangement.

The ownership of world business is slowly ebbing into the hands of large investment funds, pension funds, and governments (i.e., Russia, U.A.E.). Future research might consider a study involving the management of these funds to determine the type of psychological contract the managers have with companies that they control through fund ownership. It can be assumed that management will focus on financial gain and growth, but can there be a possible more sinister contract of taking care of key investors in the funds to the detriment of the employee? Could a triangular psychological contract between investor, employer and employee be one of the future? The employer is often closely controlled and monitored by the investor(s), especially those in control (51% ownership). The psychological contract has evolved from the contributions of early researchers, through, to the present day. World events helped shape the psychological contract construct and future events may help design a model unthought-of today.

Major companies of the world today are often managed by executives younger than age 50. These individuals are in their peak earning and spending years – mortgage, university costs for children, elderly parent support, high-life style. A future study

might consider determining whether the psychological contract of this generation has influence on the up-and-coming mid-level managers, who in five or ten years hence, will step into senior positions doing the same jobs. What will be the promises and expectancies in this up and coming group between employees and employers?

Future studies should consider expanding research on psychological contract by examining samples of older employees to compare with younger employees (recent graduates and MBAs) who comprise much of the population supporting the current literature. These older employees have often been affected by company and industry changes along with various business cycles thereby having the psychological contract between employee and the organisation possibly changed because of these events. The older, more experienced employees may have developed different contract arrangements toward employment over his/her years in the work force than the younger recently hired and less experienced employees.

This study examined two populations – expatriates and non-expatriates. As discussed earlier, these two groups mainly differ on the extent of familiarity of the employee with the job and social context and the level of adjustment required by the employee and his/her family. This lack of familiarity and preparation and the greater need for family adjustment are possibly related to the employee's own desires to accept the new assignment, difficulty in balancing work and family demands, and the perception of support from the employer. While in this study, these underlying differences were captured by the dichotomous variable (expatriate versus non-expatriate), a future study could investigate and actually measure the underlying differences. Moreover, these underlying differences (e.g., extent of familiarity of the employee with the job and social context and the adjustment requirement) are expected to operate with other groups of workers too. For example, immigrant workers might face a similar (if not more) lack of familiarity and preparation in their new jobs.

Therefore a future study might compare attitudes of immigrant versus local workers. In general, the factors that contribute to the lack of familiarity and preparation and the need for adjustment in the new context could vary across jobs and might be studied as predictors of careerist orientation.

This study examined the nature of psychological contract. Another concept that has been studied widely is the violation of psychological contract. It is likely that this would also be a determinant of careerist orientation where a perceived psychological contract violation may lead to lack of loyalty and adoption of unfair means to get ahead. This is another hypothesis to be examined by future research. Another aspect of violation is voluntary versus involuntary. Involuntary changes involve factors beyond the company's control thereby causing changes to the contract. Voluntary or wilful changes can be brought about unilaterally by the employer. Further studies could gauge the employee's adaptability and acceptance of the change depending upon the type of violation. For example, the employee might better accept psychological contract change if the violation was involuntary (beyond the organisation's control) versus voluntary (wilful, unilateral change by the company). In turn, the employee's level of commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and performance toward the company could be influenced.

The results could have both academic and practical value. Did the spouse/trailing partner have unrealistic expectancies or was it the inability to adjust to the new situation? Further research may attempt to determine whether employees from certain countries of origin have the ability to better adjust to psychological contract changes and establish new promises and expectancies to accommodate a new arrangement. From a practical point of view, HR should find this study of interest, especially if results showed the employee and partner exhibited tendencies that made for a successful transfer – such as adaptability qualities or had a history of international

travel/living experiences. Depending upon the employment grade (senior management, middle management, junior) the cost of an unsuccessful transfer can be very expensive to the organisation – i.e., the cost of employee and family personal expenses plus the employee's premature leaving may have possible effects on the organisation's bottom line.

Future research - careerist orientation. Careerist orientation relates to negative behaviour by the employee to advance in the organisation. The use of non-traditional means for company advancement can be detrimental to the employee in the long run (Feldman, 1985). One aspect of CO is dishonest behaviour while not being truthful with the employee's supervisor or manager is another aspect highly related to CO. The negative aspects of CO reveal a 'dark side' or tendencies regarding the employee's behaviour. A future study might review whether certain aspects of CO leads to or is highly related to certain types of corruption. Just when the news breaks revealing a new scandal, one wonders how another such event can happen. For example, the Madoff case was one where certain high-level employees within the organisation were exhibiting dishonest behaviour while other employees were unaware of this activity. Beenen and Pinto (2009) refer to this type of corruption as a top down phenomenon where top management coordinate corrupt activity that will be beneficial to the company. The coordinator of this dishonest activity was the CEO of the company with select high-level employees also involved. This corruption of \$62 billion of public funds was unheard of – the amount was staggering. Competing companies in the business approached the SEC/Securities and Exchange Commission with evidence that Madoff's investment results were legitimately impossible to obtain. They said a Ponzi scheme was the only way to attain such returns. The SEC turned a deaf ear and rejected the allegations. It is obvious that the Madoff organisation was guilty of corruption. This study also questions whether there was corruption at the SEC of doing nothing over an

eight year period with strong evidence in hand. Beenen and Pinto (2009) suggest that Madoff's type of corruption was collusion among organisation members which, in turn, benefited the company. As owner of the organisation, Madoff obviously benefited from his illegal activity but the company cashed in as well. A future study might research whether certain aspects of CO were related to various types of corruption. For example, is there a time period where an employee exhibiting dishonest behaviour crosses over to corruption? In addition, will the employee involve other co-workers? Pinto, Leana, and Pil (2008) posit that corruption among lower level employees is a bottom-up method. Whether corruption is fostered by a series of successful dishonest events of careerist orientation which in turn leads to corruption or corruption is the initial goal is a question for future study. Feldman (1985) suggests a careerist's belief is that ability alone will be insufficient for organisation advancement.

Another interesting study would be to compare the degree of dishonesty and corruption between cultures. For example, the researcher was involved with a Mid East financial institution who's CEO had embezzled over \$10 million from the organisation to his personal account. The employee was caught 'red handed' with the funds traced to his account. This could be classified as corruption by the individual acting alone for personal benefit (Ashford & Anand, 2003). The employee admitted to the dishonest act and the employer began prosecution proceedings against the employee. The employee hired defence lawyers and declared to the employer that he would go public to the press declaring how lax the employer was in required banking compliance thereby putting current bank depositors at risk. After considering the downside of the bad publicity, the employer dropped all charges against the employee and rehired him to his position as CEO – allowing him to keep the embezzled funds. Obviously, few people know about the occurrence. If this situation had happened in other cultures, (especially in the West) this dishonest CEO would have gone to jail and the funds returned to the financial

institution. What is dishonest and corrupt in one society/culture may be a slight bending of the rules in another – not totally acceptable but not as severe in cultures where a slight dishonesty is overlooked.

Feldman (1985) suggests that organisation goals and the employee career goals may be inconsistent with each other for employees exhibiting careerist orientation. Employees demonstrating careerist orientation are related to turnover intention. Some authors relate that careerists leave an organisation just for the sake of moving on, which sometimes may prove harmful to their own careers. Future research might consider conducting a longitudinal study of employees who exhibit careerist orientation and leave the organisation for other jobs. The study would track these employees for a selected period of time to record their levels of success. The results of the employees who left could be compared to the success levels of comparable employees who stayed with the company over the same time period. Feldman (1985) suggests that employees who move on to other jobs often move up the corporate ladder more quickly than those who stay. The study could determine if this prediction still holds true in today's job market.

Another future study might review various professions to determine whether employees exhibiting careerist orientation advance more quickly in selected professions. The literature suggests employees demonstrating high levels of careerist orientation have a better opportunity to advance in professions like marketing and sales as opposed to engineering and accounting where performance is more measurable. The study could be of interest as individuals who rise to senior management positions, even in the more easily measured professions like engineering and accounting, become less technical and more managerial. Managerial positions don't have as predictable a yardstick for measurement, so careerist orientation could be exhibited even in those more measurable professions. The study, to be effective, should measure senior

positions rather than junior employees – as the less senior employee usually does the measurable work.

Economic cycles include boom times and downturns. Future research might conduct a longitudinal study of employees exhibiting careerist orientation over an extended period of time to include numerous business cycles. The level of success attained by the employees could be compared to the business cycles to determine if there was a tendency of careerist orientation success influenced by business economic patterns or more by the employees' careerist orientation activities.

Future research might consider a study to determine if some professions don't reward behaviour exhibited by a careerist. For example, in the military, a great number of colonels in the army and captains in the navy never become generals or admirals for a number of reasons but one possibility is their inability to conduct themselves properly outside of a structured military setting. Using social relationships to get ahead often goes against the grain of the warrior type in the military. Many combat veterans/warriors have flunked the test of knowing how to properly hold the cocktail glass, exhibit proper table manners, speak proper English or know the nuances to properly navigate the high level military ball or cocktail party. The warrior/decorated soldier could be at a loss in this social setting, but much at home facing the enemy. A longitudinal study following the colonel and captain to see who was promoted to general or admiral grade and who used the influence of friends and contacts (careerist orientation) to advance. It would be interesting to determine whether the senior leaders of our armed services have careerist tendencies to advance their careers.

Following on the suggestions of Feldman (1985), a longitudinal study would be suggested for future research in order to provide greater support for causality. This study partly addressed the call for study of a more diverse population but certainly,

more populations need to be examined before the results on careerist orientation can be consolidated.

Future research might review the effects of cultures on careerist attitudes. For example, eastern cultures are more collectivistic versus western cultures, which are more individualistic. Yet another interesting sample would be the multinational corporations based in countries with individualist culture (e.g., U.S., U.K.) and operating in collectivist societies such as China and Japan. It is likely that employees in global companies in collectivist societies would possibly display higher careerist orientation than the employees in local companies in the same countries. In other words, it would be interesting to find if western influence in business has had any effect on developing tendencies toward careerist orientation. As the concept of careerist orientation was originally used to describe the attitudinal response of individualistic employees to the changing nature of the work relationship, it may appear to be culture bound. From the perspective of cultural psychology, Shweder and Sullivan (1993) suggested that the perception of self constitutes an example of universal mental functioning. They argued that in spite of the emphasis on the group as opposed to the individual in collectivist cultures, the concept of an individuated self or person is not culture-bound, as no society functioned as though its members simply merged with one another. Thus the concept of careerist orientation may constitute a manifestation of the perception of self, through the establishment of personal control in an increasingly unstructured career environment.

Future research - organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour occurs within the context of a unique and reciprocal exchange relationship. Accordingly, research has examined the role of trust and justice in OCB. However, an important concept that has not been adequately researched in relation to OCB is the nature of psychological contract. This study has examined the role of

psychological contract in OCB. A future study might investigate whether any newly discovered types of PC are related to OCB.

There are several other avenues of future research that will enhance our understanding of OCB. Perhaps the most important future research question should be directed at the measurement of OCB. An assumption in most of the research on OCB is that what constitutes extra-role behaviour is clearly defined and the same across employees. Future studies could attempt to determine the boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviour and if it varies from one employment relationship to another. Different employers have different requirements for their employees and employees themselves hold different understanding of in-role and extra-role behaviour. Similarly, managers possibly have a relatively broader notion of performance than the average employee and therefore, managers might view citizenship behaviour as a part of it. Accurate measurement of OCB is an important challenge. Ideally, for every supervisor-subordinate pair, both individuals must identify behaviours (perhaps from a long check list provided by the employee) that are extra-role in order to truly define what OCB is. Within a certain type of OCB (e.g., helping, sportsmanship, initiative), the scores on various items may be aggregated even though individual items (of what is extra-role) may differ across pairs of supervisors and subordinates. Obviously, there are practical limitations associated with this method as a much higher involvement of large organisations will be required in order to conduct quantitative studies. Given this challenge, it is also likely that qualitative research may provide useful insights.

OCB research in teams is relatively new and there are only a few studies that have examined this phenomenon. Therefore, there are several important areas to be explored. While research has found group cohesiveness to be a predictor of OCB, little or no research has studied whether like team members, wishing to remain a team member, have satisfaction with co-workers and trust in co-workers. Future research

might attempt to determine if there is a connection between cohesiveness and OCB?

Attitude toward the team and its members is a component of teamwork and like job attitude, it is possible that several elements of teamwork would have a relationship with OCB. While OCBs are assumed to be extra-role behaviours, in the context of team, the social processes play an important role in influencing team performance. This is because team coordination is often done in informal ways and important processes such as knowledge sharing occur outside formal meetings (e.g., water-cooler chats). Thus, future research must examine the role of OCB in team performance and compare the relative effect of OCB on performance in team tasks versus individual tasks.

There has been prior research on OCB across cultures. Most of the studies have focused on a comparison of collectivist and individualistic cultures on the occurrence of OCB. Future research could investigate other dimensions of national culture (e.g., uncertainty-avoidance, masculinity-femininity). While comparing the differences between cultures, future studies could compare the strength of the relationship between OCB and the cultural dimensions over time. That is, with increasing globalization (e.g., presence of Chinese multinational companies in the U.S. and the presence of the U.S. multinational companies in China) over the last two decades, have the differences in OCB diminished? It is for answering such questions that meta-analyses become very important where time period of study could be an important moderator for observed effects. Another perspective on cross-cultural research is that even though national cultures differ on certain dimensions, there is a large variance across individuals within the same culture. At the aggregate level, the mean values on cultural dimensions may differ. Although the U.S. is highly individualistic, it is possible to find individuals high on collectivism in the U.S. and individuals high on individualism in China. Therefore, there might be some value in using the cultural dimensions as individual difference variables in cross-cultural research on OCB.

The time dimension is also important when we consider the changes in the economic environment faced by organisations today versus the situation in previous decades. Today's management is faced with a mobile job market. Organisational downsizing worldwide causes companies to do more with less in order to keep up with the competition. Few long-term employment contracts exist today. In this difficult environment, employees still want to advance up the corporate ladder. What does this mean for OCB? Future research could investigate whether the employees' focus is on short-term results. Their actions could be guided by self-interest more than in previous years. If so, they may be less likely to demonstrate OCB. Another future study could attempt to determine if employees will use OCB for personal gain such as building relationships and networking inside and outside their organisations. These relationships could be means of personal gain and influence. The networks could be important conduits of information for both company and the individual employee. Also, because of higher competition among employees to keep their jobs, there might be a tendency for higher incidence of OCB in order to manage the impressions on one's supervisor with the hope of better evaluation of performance and consequent rewards.

Future study might consider various employers' reputation and standing in its respective industry to compare the relationship between the employees' OCB and the employer's ranking.

Another part of a future study might include whether aspects of safety had a material effect on the decision to leave. The world is not as safe a place today as it was 20 years ago. Issues such as bombings, kidnappings, drug use among teenagers and children in a strange place surrounded by few friends can put the family on edge. The organisation often does its best to have taken care of some of these problems but many problems today are beyond the company's control. These problems are found in domestic as well as international postings.

An issue facing the transferred employee and his/her family could involve health-related concerns – not just the quality of physician and hospital coverage in the new area, but environmental issues as well. A future study might question whether health is a reason for accepting/rejecting a transfer or similar reasons for leaving early on an assignment. Although the organisation may provide excellent benefits to pay for health related expenses, the question of who's providing the care and support can be important. For example, an executive with an energy company in Houston, Texas, or London, England may be familiar and satisfied with the level of physician and hospital care there, may not be satisfied with the level of care in Williston, North Dakota or Aberdeen, Scotland – both energy towns/cities. So, future research might question whether the employee's decision to accept the transfer can be affected by the health support system in the new location. Additional research along with the health-related survey might investigate whether the age of family members was related to health importance. For example, are employees who have children ages 1 to 10 more likely to be concerned with health-related issues than say those employees who have children ages 17 to 18? It could be expected that most senior managers are of an age where their children are teenagers through college age, while middle and junior managers have younger children.

Future research - turnover intention. Today's employees are working longer hours than was the case a decade ago according to the International Labour Office (2006). With fewer people doing more work, it can be expected that employees will be working longer hours (Sullivan, 1999). Ng and Feldman (2008) suggest long work hours may expand company output in the short run, but it may prove harmful in the long run, especially in positions involving attention to detail. Robinson, Flowers, and Carroll (2001) found that extended work hours could negatively affect the employee possibly resulting in the employee leaving early. Advanced technology enables the

employee to extend his/her normal working hours (Cooper, 1998). Future research might study whether employees working extended hours would decrease the possibility of turnover if spouse/family cared much more about the financial benefits of more work, consequently having the employee be happy with the extended hours.

Career success can be internal or external. Hall (1976) posits that employees who experience internal success are subjectively satisfied with their performance while those whose objective accomplishments are seen by fellow workers involving external success. Roberts and Friend (1998) suggest that employees whose careers are regularly improved with continued growth and success will have a tendency for occupational identity. The employees who focus on their career as a key task could also be expected to stay with the organisation and not be expected to leave early. Future research might consider whether those employees whose job is challenging would turnover after reaching a common age and a number of years employed, or would continue on if the job became less challenging.

Careerist attitudes can be related to turnover behaviours in employees who are found in “firm labour markets” (Althauser & Kallenburg, 1981) or those employed as core employees (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Both types of employment have different career attitudes (Mano-Negrin & Kirschenbaum, 1999). Workers exhibiting high levels of careerist orientation may want to move on to another job – just because they have to move. Future study might investigate what events usually occur that motivate the employee to leave – just to move on.

In periods of downsizing, employees high on careerist orientation will probably not be as affected as those exhibiting lower levels of careerist orientation. The careerist is always ready to move on and if he/she is a survivor in an organisational downsizing, he/she may look to turnover especially if the remaining workplace setting is not to one's liking. Future research might review employees exhibiting high levels of turnover

intention in downsizing employment markets to determine if the importance of keeping the current job in order to support current standards of living for employee and dependents outweigh the need to leave notwithstanding the demands and pressures at work.

Future research - life satisfaction. An important research question is whether employees exhibiting careerist orientation differs in terms of life satisfaction compared to ordinary workers. Employees high on careerist orientation pursue career advancement through non-performance-based means whose aspects are often negative in nature (Feldman & Weitz, 1991) and endorse tactics such as impression management and Machiavellian behaviour. Downsizing in today's work environment causes job insecurity and in turn causes work-related stress (Cartwright & Cooper, 1993). Careerists spend much of their working hours attempting to advance up the corporate ladder using non-traditional means, often never happy in their current job and always moving on (Feldman, 1985). Dow and Juster (1985) argue that subjective well being/life satisfaction is a "state of being" and not a process of "getting to there." It could be expected that employees exhibiting careerist orientation would be negatively related to life satisfaction. A future study might consider whether individuals exhibiting careerist orientation may be less satisfied in their lives as they may not be able to strike a balance between work and family.

Following on to research by DiCieri, Dowling and Taylor (1991), a future study might consider levels of life satisfaction for the male spouse/trailing partner of the transferred female employee. More women are being promoted into senior/decision-making positions in today's job market. Trailing spouses/partners are usually women (not men) who many times aren't employed at the new posting. Their level of satisfaction often is associated with much of what transpired in their social and physical environments (DiCieri et al., 1991). The new study would survey males who are non-

working spouses/trailing partners. As most of the transferred employees are male with the trailing spouse/partner being female, a future study could determine what levels of life satisfaction the males have in this different scenario. It could be expected that the males may have a longer time adjusting to the new environment assuming he wasn't employed. His potential adjustment issues could cause stress in the marital relationship and possibly spill over to affect the wife's/female partner's job performance.

Ng, Butts, Vandenberg, Dejoy, and Wilson, (2006) suggest little research has been conducted regarding certain aspects of organisational behaviour in developing countries. From a practical perspective, new jurisdictions are emerging in the global marketplace with some replacing those that are more established. A future study might measure whether these populations, some which have been or still are tribal in nature, can or will adopt a work ethic that accommodates their lifestyle which is often highly tribal and family oriented with their form of life satisfaction kept in tact. The corporate approach to conducting business may be quite different from their traditional way of transacting commerce. This study could prove to be helpful to HR departments sending employees overseas to these jurisdictions. A current tendency for multinational corporation staffing overseas has been to hire local employees with senior management coming from the home office/headquarters to develop a committed work force, possibly in a jurisdiction where a business attitude of 'mañana' (do it tomorrow) prevails in that work force. This directive could prove challenging for any capable manager. The results of such a study might help determine whether organisational behaviour formed in Western cultures transcend across other societies (Gelade, Dobson, & Gilbert, 2006).

A future study regarding international employment might provide research on the importance of whether the new country/jurisdiction will provide or make available a work permit for the spouse/trailing partner. Many countries in the world provide work permits for occupations that are critically needed such as physicians and engineers but

not for the average employee. The employee being transferred is provided a work permit by the employer organisation but the trailing spouse/trailing partner is usually not as fortunate. Today's dual career professionals often depend upon two incomes to support their lifestyle, many of whom spend beyond their means. By being transferred to a country where just one individual is hired/employed, may result in lower combined income and along with it, a lesser life style. The original agreement between these two individuals may have been that each would be supportive of the other's career – a psychological contract where each promises and has expectations for each other to maintain his/her promise. The partner who puts his/her career on hold (as the unemployed trailing/spouse partner) to further the career of the transferred partner/employee, could find him/herself at a disadvantage in subsequent years by not being as employable upon return thus perceiving a breach of the initial psychological contract. From a practical standpoint, the unemployed spouse/trailing partner may become bitter at being sidelined during the overseas posting and want to return home to be reemployed. This could cause the transferred/employed partner to leave early (to accompany spouse/partner back home) or possibly put pressure/stress on the marital relationship – with a spillover effect of influencing the transferred employee's on-the-job performance.

The future study might consider conducting a longitudinal survey with a questionnaire at the beginning of the assignment for both dual career employees to ask which partner/spouse has the better career growth opportunities and will he/she be supportive of the other spouse's/partner's career. The second survey would be conducted after a period of time following the transfer to the new job to ask if initial promises by each were kept or breached. The results of the two studies could be compared to determine if the initial expectancies of both partners were met and whether there were any violations/breaches in the psychological contract between the dual career

couple themselves or between the organisation and the dual career couple. If violation occurred, the study might attempt to determine the levels of adaptability for the employee and trailing spouse/partner in order to restate/establish a new psychological contract. The results would add to the literature involving psychological contract between dual career spouses/partners.

Much emphasis is given to providing support and training for the employee who is being transferred to a new location within the company or to another organisation. Very few transfers go as smoothly as planned for all family members. No matter how well planned, the employee or family member may question at some time during the assignment, the wisdom of having made such a choice; that being – moving from a stable home environment with family and friends to a new location, almost like starting over again. More than 80 percent of employee transfers involve married employees. Generally the key individual who makes for a successful transfer is the spouse/trailing partner. Many aborted transfers have occurred due to an unhappy spouse/partner. Future research might investigate whether country of origin and past travel experience is related to the ability of the spouse/trailing partner to adjust to and successfully settle into new surroundings. The researcher's experience has been that the Dutch and British are among those who have good records of staying the course when transferred to another work location, while U.S. employees have some of the highest percentages in leaving early and not completing the assignment successfully.

Practical Implications

The findings of this study showed careerist orientation has a detrimental effect on the organisation. For example, careerist orientation was negatively related to organisational citizenship behaviour and positively related to turnover intention. What can be done by the employer to reduce these negative consequences? For the organisation, it would be beneficial to determine ways of detecting individuals who

have careerist orientation especially at the time of hiring. It would be helpful to administer a careerist orientation survey, ask behavioural questions in interviews, and check references from previous employers of the job candidate to assess the proclivity of the candidate toward careerist orientation. In addition to the career attitudes that employees bring with them to a new organisation, this study indicated that transactional and relational psychological contracts are antecedents of careerist orientation. In other words, the manner in which the employee is treated by the organisation may be a reason for an employee forming a transactional psychological contract. Many companies today offer no guaranteed employment and are financially driven and short term in their orientation. On the other hand, if the employer commits to the employee, the employee most often reciprocates with loyalty and low careerist orientation.

Careerist orientation is not beneficial to the employee in the long run as suggested by the negative relationship between careerist orientation and life satisfaction found in this study. Moreover, employee unhappiness in life could have a negative “spill-over” effect on work attitudes/behaviours such as organisational citizenship behaviour. The employer could consider counselling or mentoring programs to initiate discussion and awareness of the problems.

An important dimension on which expatriates differ from non-expatriates relate to the level of familiarity with the work and social context. Within the same organisation, non-expatriates typically work with co-workers, resources, and external stakeholders they are familiar with and live in a familiar social context. On the other hand, expatriates encounter a new environment with demands for adjustment on several fronts.

Human Resources could benefit from being aware of the employees exhibiting careerist tendencies as they could have a negative effect on the organisation in the long run. To reduce these negative attributes, the organisation could do a number of things.

For example, the company could begin by developing procedures for identifying individuals who demonstrate careerist orientation. This process would be especially important during the hiring period. After an employee has been with the organisation for a period of time and has a work history, it becomes more difficult to remove him/her. The courts often side with the employee in these dismissal cases. Some jury awards for termination have been staggering in favour of the employee. In addition, the company must pay legal fees to defend itself while the courts often require the organisation to pay the plaintiff/employee's costs. Following on with the new hiring process, a survey designed to detect careerist orientation and other behavioural patterns could be administered during the interview procedure. If the organisation is offering the newly hired employee a short term employment arrangement, the employee may have a tendency to develop a transactional psychological contract which is an antecedent of careerist orientation. By being forewarned of certain employee behavioural patterns early in the employment arrangement or before being hired may help Human Resources head off employee problems later on. Human Resources could then be more aware of employee acceptance/rejection of organisational policies and procedures. If the employer commits to the employee, the employee often reciprocates with organisational loyalty and 'buying in' to the company process and direction.

The organisation can be benefited by detecting employees demonstrating careerist orientation, but the detection process may benefit the employee as well. The employee may or may not be aware that he/she has these careerist tendencies. For example, careerist orientation is highly related to turnover intention. Some employees exhibiting careerist orientation tendencies turnover just for the sake of turning over. The careerist must always be moving on and may sometimes leave the organisation too quickly – before he/she can determine whether certain career paths or job opportunities are of benefit to his/her career. The organisation's procedure for identifying the

careerist could result in the employee being made aware of this tendency. Some careerists even have a negative attitude toward the job when the position has many positive advantages. The employee could then make a decision to give up these negative work behaviours. The employee would be placed in a position of self-evaluation to decide the best way forward for his/her career development. Counselling and or mentoring someone sponsored by the organisation may serve as an indication of employer commitment. As reported earlier, employer commitment to the employee goes a long way toward the employee exhibiting loyalty and being negatively related to turnover intention.

By being focused on the job and moving up the corporate ladder using non-traditional means, the careerist often takes little time to enjoy other parts of his/her life. This careerist activity often creates a negative attitude with the employee which may have a 'spill over' effect on job related attitudes and work relationships.

Limitations

All of the data are from the same type respondents. Thus, there is possibility of common method bias. This study conducted the Harmon one-factor test (Podsakoff, et al., 2003) to verify if there was a common factor running across all the scales. This study did not find any such overarching (method) factor thereby making it less likely that the observed relations are mainly due to common method variance. The study was a cross-sectional design and so, the causality has to be carefully interpreted by theory. The method does not augment the theoretical arguments. The findings of this study need to be replicated with diverse samples.

It is important that the appropriateness of the model be verified and other results reflected with other samples to assess the generalizability of the findings reported here. A limitation of this study is its focus on the perception of present day employees, as apposed to employees from other time periods. Future research might collect additional

data such as that which represents more cultural variations. In addition, a future study could include data/procedures important to the offshore subsidiary such as employee/personal issues and task requirements to be used by HR to better preface subsequent overseas assignments.

The research relied on self-report data. Such data often fail to yield objective measures. The overall data was limited in time covering less than one year's use of evaluations. A future study could use a longitudinal research design to determine causality and reduce the possibility of common method bias.

The study used the label of nationality (US/UK) instead of being ethnic specific. Diverse ethnic groups usually make up a nationality. A future study could investigate specific ethnic groups within a nationality as they relate to organisational behaviour in an attempt to determine whether the ethnic parties were consistent when compared to each other.

A future study might investigate the adaptability levels of the trailing partner at the new location to determine whether his/her behaviour (positive/negative) was related to the employed partner's work performance. The study could compare the level of adaptability to certain variables affecting employee performance. Future studies should gather data from multiple sources to ensure that the results are not solely the result of shared method variance.

The sample was another possible limitation of this study which was conducted with only employees working in the US and the UK. Although the employees seemed typical of the employee in overseas posting (age, length stay, marital status), future studies should attempt to replicate the findings with employees from other countries. Although 232 expatriates responded to the survey with usable/reportable data, future studies should attempt to broaden the response to improve sample size and generalizability.

Future research could attempt to investigate whether a relationship existed between different marriage patterns (no children, age, teen age children), occupational mobility and opportunities for career development. The literature suggests that non-work issues ‘spill over’ to affect employee performance which in turn may enhance or deter employee outcomes.

The study and results concentrated on mostly men who were satisfied with their work arrangement. Future research could investigate other variables such as those related to divorced men and women, those married couples who are separated, men whose wives have abandon their careers. In addition, future studies could concentrate on other gender issues such as dissatisfied men and women to investigate the source(s) of their unhappiness which could be, job related or possible personal issues, or both.

Internal validity of the study could be enhanced by field experiments involving the effects of some of the variables (i.e. provide support for one group and not another group). Future study could consider other variables not included in the research such as practical information important to the employee, counselling for family members having difficulty, and country specific information.

Careerist orientation is not beneficial to the employee in the long run as suggested by the negative relationship between careerist orientation and life satisfaction found in the study. Moreover, employee and happiness in life could have a negative ‘spill over’ effect on work attitudes/behaviours such as organisational citizenship behaviour. A future study could attempt to determine what levels of happiness accumulate before spilling over to influence OCB. The employer could consider counselling or mentoring programs to initiate discussion and awareness of the problems.

An important dimension on which expatriates differ from non-expatriates relate to the level of familiarity with the work and social context. Within the same organisation, non-expatriates typically work with co-workers, resources, and external

stake-holders that they are familiar with and live in a familiar social context. On the other hand, expatriates encounter a new environment with demands or adjustments on several fronts. A future research could investigate certain variables common to expatriates, difficulties and problems. Human Resource could be made aware of these problem areas in attempt to address them.

Conclusion

This study shows that transactional and relational psychological contracts are important antecedents of careerist orientation. Careerist orientation has a negative effect on life satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. The relationship between careerist orientation and organisational citizenship behaviour is partially mediated by life satisfaction and turnover intention. Careerist orientation is an important mediator of the relationships between psychological contract, on the one hand, and job attitudes/behaviours on the other. Finally, this study shows that there are significant differences between the two different populations in the levels of careerist orientation and some of its antecedents and consequences.

Table 1

Indirect, Direct, and Total Effects for Structural Equation Models

	Group					
	Expatriates			Non-Expatriates		
	Indirect	Direct	Total	Indirect	Direct	Total
Path						
Coefficients						
OCB on						
TI	n.e.	0.04	0.04	n.e.	0.11	0.11
LS	n.e.	-0.31*	-0.91*	n.e.	0.24*	0.24*
CO	-0.10*	-0.28*	-0.38*	-0.04	-0.27*	-0.31*
RPC	0.16*	0.06	0.22*	0.12*	0.24*	0.36*
TPC	-0.14	-0.27*	-0.41*	-0.07*	0.03	-0.04
TI on						
CO	n.e.	0.34*	0.34*	n.e.	0.43*	0.43*
RPC	-0.16*	-0.29*	-0.45*	-0.20*	-0.27*	-0.47*
TPC	0.12*	n.e.	0.12*	0.12*	n.e.	0.12*
LS on						
CO	n.e.	-0.37*	-0.37*	n.e.	-0.36*	-0.36*
RPC	0.18*	n.e.	0.18*	0.16*	n.e.	0.16*
TPC	-0.14*	n.e.	-0.14*	-0.09*	n.e.	-0.09*
CO on						
RPC	n.e.	-0.47*	-0.47*	n.e.	-0.45*	-0.45*
TPC	n.e.	0.36*	0.36*	n.e.	0.24*	0.24*

Note. OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviours; TI = Turnover Intention; LS = Life Satisfaction; CO = Careerist Orientation; RPC = Relational Psychological Contract; TPC = Transactional Psychological Contract; n.e. = Not estimated; * $p < .05$.

Table 2
Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables and Reliability Estimates for Expatriates
 Note. * $p < .05$; Reliability coefficients shown on diagonal.

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Careerist Orientation	2.91	0.50	.86									
2. Transactional Nature of Psychological Contract	2.72	0.67	.42*	.72								
3. Relational Nature of Psychological Contract	3.40	0.73	-.47*	-.22*	.83							
4. Turnover Intention	3.52	1.66	.48*	.14*	-.44*	.86						
5. Life Satisfaction	4.66	1.12	-.30*	-.18*	.29*	-.22*	.88					
6. Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	3.74	3.74	-.46*	-.43*	.31*	-.25*	.45*	.77				
7. Age	42	9.90	-.17*	-.14	.03	-.17*	.08	.05	-			
8. Gender			.02	-.10	-.10	.02	.08	.08	.18*	-		
9. Education			.11	.00	.01	.11	.01	-.21*	.24*	.16*	-	
10. Marital Status			-.03	-.12	.00	-.10	.13	.10	.33*	.04	.19*	-

Table 3
Intercorrelations Between Observed Variables and Reliability Estimates for Non-Expatriates
 Note. Reliability coefficients shown on diagonal.

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Careerist Orientation	2.67	0.62	.91									
2. Transactional Nature of Psychological Contract	2.47	0.76	.34**	.70								
3. Relational Nature of Psychological Contract	3.43	0.99	-.52**	-.34**	.88							
4. Turnover Intention	2.78	1.79	.52**	.27**	-.43**	.88						
5. Life Satisfaction	5.03	1.12	-.36**	-.09	.29**	-.25**	.89					
6. Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	4.19	0.45	-.37**	-.13	.35**	-.20**	.33**	.71				
7. Age	54	11.02	-.20*	.12	.08	-.22*	.14*	.10	-			
8. Gender			.03	.01	-.10	-.08	.03	.05	.12	-		
9. Education			-.02	.04	-.13	.14*	.11	-.06	.16*	.10	-	
10. Marital Status			-.10	.01	-.04	-.03	.11	.07	.13	.26**	.04	-

Appendix A



November 23, 2004

Dear Sir or Madam:

Subject: Research on Career Development

I am conducting research on factors that influence Career Development and am using scales to measure certain individual characteristics. This research has useful implications for a wide variety of organizations as well as individuals and most notable for the human resource management professionals. However, the purpose of my research is purely academic and **NOT** business consulting.

I would greatly appreciate your completing the attached survey. Your responses will remain absolutely anonymous and so, please give your frank response so that the research provides valid answers. Your participation is voluntary and you do not have to answer every question.

If you have any questions about this research, please feel free to contact me.

Thanks in advance for your cooperation in this important research.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'John W. Adams'.

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Appendix B
SURVEY OF PROFESSIONAL AND MANAGERIAL EMPLOYEES’
EXPERIENCE OF THE EMPLOYMENT RELATIONSHIP

Please read each question and answer it according to how you personally feel about it. There are no right or wrong answers. Your responses are STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL.

Listed below is a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by checking a number from 1 to 7 on the scale next to each item.

		strongly disagree					strongly agree
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside of it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I do not feel like “part of the family” at my organization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

				strongly disagree			strongly agree
11. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore I feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. I do not think that wanting to be a "company man" or "company woman" is sensible anymore.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization right now.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization in the near future.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Below are a number of statements each of which you may agree or disagree with depending on your own personal evaluation of your present job. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement by checking one of the response options.

		strongly disagree			strongly agree		
1. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
2. To me, my job is only a small part of who I am.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
3. I am very much involved personally in my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
4. I live, eat, and breathe my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
5. Most of my interests are centered around my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
6. I have very strong ties with my present job which would be very difficult to break.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
7. Usually I feel detached from my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
8. Most of my personal life goals are job oriented.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
9. I consider my job to be very central to my existence.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
10. I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	

Below are statements that describe attitudes and beliefs regarding the relationship between an employee and his/her employing organization. For each statement, indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement by checking ONE of the response options.

		strongly disagree			strongly agree
1. It's hard to get ahead in an organization on sheer merit alone.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. If you do a good job, you'll be rewarded.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. To get promoted, you need to do your job very well.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Who you know is more important in an organization than what you know.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Having a job assignment with high contact with superiors is more important to me than having a challenging job assignment.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Sometimes you have to use your social relationships with your coworkers and bosses to get ahead in an organization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. The key to success is who you know, not what you know.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Looking good to your boss is more important in getting ahead than being good at your job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. In terms of getting ahead in an organization, looking good and acting like a winner can be more instrumental than simply being very competent.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Sometimes you have to act unethically to get the promotions you feel you have coming to you.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. You can't be completely honest when dealing with your boss.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Being completely honest doesn't pay when dealing with your employer.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Occasionally, you have to distort information you give to your employer to promote your own self-interest.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. You should be straightforward and honest in dealing with your employer.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. In terms of managing careers in organizations it is each man/woman for himself/herself.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. You can't count on organizations to look out for your own best career interests.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

- | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 17. When you go to work for a company, you have to remember to watch out for yourself. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 18. In most companies, you really have to watch out that you won't be taken advantage of. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 19. In the final analysis, what's best for me in my career is not going to be consistent with what is in the organization's best interest. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 20. My goals and my employer's goals probably will not be compatible. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 21. Loyalty to one's employer is unlikely to be rewarded. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 22. I don't think of myself as "an organization man or woman." | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
| 23. I feel that the company I go to work for will be fair and honest with me. | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |

Below are statements that describe one's intentions or likelihood of looking for a job with another organization within the next year. For each statement, check ONE of the response options that reflects your opinion.

- | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|----------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-------------|--------------------------|
| 1. How likely is it that you will look for a job outside of this organization during the next year? | ☐ | very unlikely | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | very likely | ☐ |
| 2. How often do you think about quitting your job at this organization? | ☐ | not very often | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | very often | ☐ |
| 3. If it were possible, how much would you like to get a new job? | ☐ | not at all | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | very much | ☐ |

Below are five statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1 – 7 scale below for each item, indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement by circling one of the response options. Please be open and honest in your response.

		strongly disagree					strongly agree
1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I am satisfied with my life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Below are items that relate to how people might engage in various activities in the organization. For each item, indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement by checking one of the response options:

		strongly disagree			strongly agree
1. I “keep up” with developments in the company.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I attend functions that are not required, but that help the company image.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I am willing to risk disapproval in order to express my beliefs about what’s best for the company.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I tend to make “mountains out of molehills” (make problems bigger than they are).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I always focus on what’s wrong with my situation, rather than the positive side of it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I help orient new agents even though it is not required.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I am always ready to help or to lend a helping hand to those around me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. I willingly give of my time to help others.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. I conscientiously follow company regulations and procedures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. I turn in budgets, sales projections, expense reports, etc. earlier than required.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. I return phone calls and respond to other messages and requests for information promptly.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Consider your relationship with your current employer. To what extent has your employer made the following commitment or obligation to you? Please answer each question using the following scale:

	1 not at all	2 slightly	3 somewhat	4 moderately	5 to a great extent
1. A job only as long as the employer needs me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Concern for my personal welfare	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Limited involvement in the organization	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Support me to attain the highest possible levels of performance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Opportunity for career development within this firm	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Help me develop externally marketable skills	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Secure employment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Makes no commitments to retain me in the future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Be responsive to my personal concerns and well-being	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Training me only for my current job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Help me to respond to ever greater industry standards	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Developmental opportunities with this firm	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Job assignments that enhance my external marketability	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Wages and benefits I can count on	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Short-term employment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Make decisions with my interests in mind	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	1 not at all	2 slightly	3 somewhat	4 moderately	5 to a great extent
17. A job limited to specific, well-defined responsibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Support me in meeting increasingly higher goals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Advancement within the firm	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Potential job opportunities outside the firm	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Steady employment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. A job for a short-time only	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Concern for my long-term well-being	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Require me to perform only a limited set of duties	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Enable me to adjust to new, challenging performance requirements	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. Opportunities for promotion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. Contacts that create employment opportunities elsewhere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. Stable benefits for employees' families	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

The following background or demographic information is needed to make meaningful comparison of group results. For each item check (X) ONE of the response options as appropriate.

Citizenship: US ☐ UK ☐ France ☐ Spain ☐ Italy ☐ Germany ☐
Switzerland ☐ Netherlands ☐ Other (please specify) _____
Gender: Female ☐ Male ☐ Age: _____

Highest educational qualification:

Secondary Education ☐
Undergraduate degree BA, BSc ☐
Postgraduate degree/ professional qualification MSc, MA ☐
MBA, PhD ☐

Status: Single ☐ Married / Partner ☐

If you are married or have partner, is he/she employed outside the home?

No ☐ Yes ☐

Are you a parent?

No ☐ Yes ☐

If you are a parent, how many of your children are economically dependent on you?
Please write in _____

Length of employment with present organization?

Years _____ Months _____

How many times have you changed employers since you started working on a full-time basis?
Please write in _____

How many years have you been in full-time employment?

Years _____ Months _____

Job / Functional area

Human resource management / personnel	☐	
Public relations	☐	
Finance	☐	
Accounting		☐
Marketing/Sales	☐	
Production / Manufacturing		☐
IT		☐
Media		☐
Management		☐
Other		

Organizational Level

Senior Management / Professional ☐
Middle Management / Professional ☐
Junior Management/Professional ☐
Other _____

Overseas postings

Have you had an overseas posting with your present organization? Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, how long ago did you return? Years _____ Months _____

Total number of employees in your organization? _____

Total number of employees in foreign entity? _____

Reason for Foreign Assignment

Skill / Technology Transfer	☐	☐
Management Responsibility	☐	☐
Business Development / Marketing Sales	☐	
Provide Administrative Services	☐	
Other		

Salary

Less than \$50,000	☐
\$50,000 to \$100,000	☐
\$100,000 to \$150,000	☐
More than \$150,000	☐

Industry Sector

Construction	☐
Manufacturing	☐
Communications/Media	☐
IT	☐
Wholesale/Retail Trade	☐
Finance/Insurance	☐
Services	☐
Public Administration	☐
Management Consulting	☐
Education	☐
Health/Life Sciences	☐
Other (please specify)	

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