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The new career mentality and psychological contract : integrative theory and measurement

Jennifer Robin Dykes Burgess
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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Jennifer Robin Dykes Burgess entitled "The new career mentality and psychological contract : integrative theory and measurement." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Industrial and Organizational Psychology.

David J. Woehr, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

Robert M. Greenberg, Robert T. Ladd, Michael C. Rush, David W. Schumann

Accepted for the Council:


Carolyn R. Hodges

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

(Original signatures are on file with official student records.)

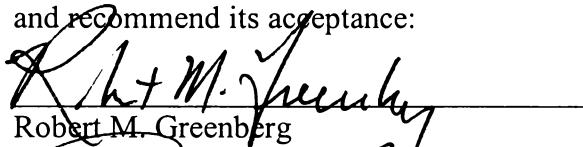
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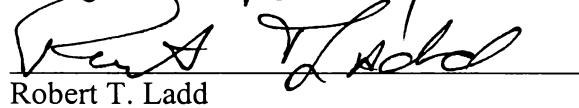


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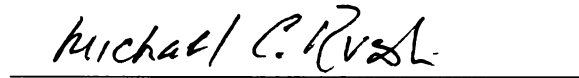
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Vice Provost and
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THE NEW CAREER MENTALITY AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT:
INTEGRATIVE THEORY AND MEASUREMENT

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Jennifer Robin Dykes Burgess
May, 2002

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this dissertation was to summarize and integrate several theoretical notions of the so-called new career mentality with the concept of the psychological contract; the ultimate goal was to successfully operationalize the individual adoption of this new mentality. A theoretical precursor to the psychological contract, employment goals (Shore and Tetrick, 1994), was used as a measurement framework. Three types of employment goals were operationalized: relational, transactional, and personalized. While relational and transactional psychological contracts have enjoyed extensive attention within the psychological contract literature, the personalized employment goals construct was created to reflect the rich theoretical base surrounding the new career mentality.

Three iterative studies were conducted to develop the employment goals subscales. A Pilot Study was conducted with 262 undergraduate students, Study One included 302 participants drawn from three distinct samples, and Study Two was conducted using 310 respondents, again from three separate samples. In each of these three studies, iterative versions of the employment goals subscales were administered in questionnaire format, as were several individual difference, attitudinal, and behavioral measures. Moreover, ratings of behavioral variables were collected from 135 supervisors, coworkers, mentors, or others familiar with the participant's career development activity in Study Two.

Exploratory factor analyses, reliability estimates, and confirmatory factor analyses guided the scale development and revision of the scales at each step. The scale

development of the relational and transactional employment goals subscales was successful; two nine-item scales were created with cross-validated, internal consistency reliability estimates above .70. The personalized employment goals subscale also contained 9-items, but did not attain acceptable internal consistency. Convergent and discriminant validity hypotheses were also tested using correlational analyses; some of the expected relationships were found with each of the three subscales.

Thus, two viable scales (i.e., relational and transactional employment goals) were created in this study. However, it appears that the new career mentality as represented by personalized employment goals is a much more complex construct than originally thought. Implications of the findings and limitations of the study are discussed, and a future research agenda is proposed.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The state of careers in the 21st century provides for an exciting literature.

Individuals are pursuing psychological success, engaging in continuous skill development, and judiciously managing their own careers. Largely theoretical, this area includes several interrelated, yet subtly different ideas about the changed course of work experiences in today's environment. Specifically, the terms "boundaryless career" (Arthur, 1994; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), "protean career" (Hall, 1996; Hall and Mirvis, 1996; Mirvis & Hall, 1994), "free agency" (Gould, Weiner, & Levin, 1997; Hirsch, 1987; Waterman, Waterman, & Collard, 1994), and "spiral career" (Brousseau, 1988) all describe the possibility for individuals to reach their potential and pursue life-success through work. Indeed, the words used to describe this shift in career thought (i.e., "boundaryless," "free," "protean") are idealistic and conjure impressions of limitless opportunity.

That being said, the state of careers in the 21st century is also a puzzling literature. It is confused by the presence of multiple, yet similar concepts, and its theories present challenges for traditional models in I/O Psychology, namely those of attachment and turnover. Furthermore, it seems that in this substantive area, like many others, theory and practical prescription is far exceeding empirical study. This could be due to the literature's fragmented nature, but another likely contributing factor is the lack of a measurement system. Ironically, two titles attempting to describe the current state of careers, The Career Is Dead, Long Live the Career (Hall, 1996) and "Personal and career

development: The best and worst of times” (Callanan & Greenhaus, 1999), inadvertently also describe the state of the literature in this area. It is the purpose of this paper to distill the common components of these theories and create a reliable and valid measurement system as a first step toward empirical investigation in this area. Collectively, these common components will be referred to as the “new career mentality” throughout the rest of this work. This is not to negate the importance of the subtle differences between the theories from which they are drawn, but to provide for ease of expression.

This discussion began by noting the exciting and self-actualizing nature of the new career. As positive as this current description is, portrayals of a new career model didn't start as optimistically. Primarily a response to downsizing and reorganization (Brousseau, Driver, Eneroth, & Larsson, 1996; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994, 1996; Gould, Weiner, & Levin, 1997; Hall & Mirvis, 1995, 1996; Hirsch, 1987), some of the first reasons given for adopting a new view of career were self-protective in nature. Hirsch (1987) quotes a former bank president as saying, “If you don't have the upper hand with management, it'll rip your heart out. That's its job” (p. 107). As a result, Hirsch suggests “packing your own parachute” by maintaining visibility, marketability, generality, credibility, and mobility.

Since then, several other catalysts for new careers have been cited and the mentality has become a much more positive one. Namely, organizational and job structure changes (Callanan & Greenhaus, 1999; Brousseau et al., 1996; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Hall & Mirvis, 1996; London & Stumpf, 1986; Weick & Berlinger, 1989), and even generational changes (Raines, 1997; Tulgan, 1995, 1997) have been implicated. Furthermore, the new career mentality has taken on a much more positive outlook.

Certainly, the fact that careers are now “boundaryless” instead of “uncertain” is one indicator. While some authors still express concern about the execution of such self-fulfilling careers in today’s turbulent work environment (Kissler, 1994; Mirvis & Hall, 1994), the general theme of current career thought is empowerment rather than self-protection.

The new career mentality has strong roots in attachment as illustrated by both its stated causes and current prescriptions. The inception of the new career mentality was a response to the separation of employees from their organizations and subsequent disruption of the collective psychological contract (Gould, Weiner, & Levin, 1997; Hall & Mirvis, 1996). Likewise, new career thought suggests that individuals capitalize on the organization’s redefinition of the psychological contract by reconsidering their own obligations. Specifically, the individual is no longer required to remain with the organization if they are not achieving growth and development by doing so. Attachment to organizations, then, seems a fertile background against which to describe and explore this new career mentality.

Surprisingly, although organizational attachment is a remarkably evolved literature, none of its conceptualizations adequately embody the spirit of the new career mentality. Affective, continuance, and normative commitments (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997) fall short. One of the reasons for this may be their focus solely on the individual’s experience within the organization, rather than also considering the organization’s role in shaping that attachment (Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni, 1995). A similar but much less developed concept, the psychological contract refers to the employee’s perception of the reciprocal obligations held with an employer (Rousseau,

1989, 1995; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). Because an individual adopting this new career mentality may not experience organizational attachment as it is traditionally defined, considering the new perceived obligations associated with the new career mentality might be more fruitful.

As Shore and Tetrick (1994) note, employment goals (i.e., goals one hopes to achieve in a particular organization such as job competence, career advancement, and making friends at work) may actually dictate the types of psychological contracts individuals form with organizations (also see Rousseau, 1995). By way of selective feedback seeking (Ashford & Cummings, 1983), individuals may perceive obligations of both themselves and their employers as similar to their particular employment goals. Shore and Tetrick (1994) note that transactional employment goals may produce transactional contracts, in which individuals feel obligated to provide work in exchange for extrinsic outcomes, irrespective of the length of employment. Similarly, relational employment goals may produce relational contracts that are characterized by long-term exchanges such as loyalty and tenure for promotional opportunities and feelings of inclusion. Hypothetically, goals more congruent with a new career mentality, so named personalized employment goals, may produce a personalized psychological contract, obligating the individual to provide hard work and their own career management in return for an organizational venue for skill development and psychological success.

While seemingly an integral part of the psychological contract literature, a precursor to psychological contract formation, Shore and Tetrick's (1994) notion of employment goals has yet to be operationalized. Furthermore, their model does not consider the employment goals and subsequent psychological contracts formed by

individuals adopting a new career mentality. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to measure and extend the concept of employment goals in an attempt to provide an operationalization of the new career mentality useful for further empirical exploration. Initial investigations will also examine the relationships of individual differences and behavioral outcomes with each of the three employment goals.

Ultimately, this measurement research is important in order to empirically resolve the paradoxes inherent in theoretical notions of the new career mentality. Specifically, how does the new career mentality impact traditional ideas about attachment to organizations and turnover? Can we provide an empirically informed endorsement of the many human resource practices that are being forwarded to handle the new career mentality (cf. Callanan & Greenhaus, 1999; DeMeuse & Tornow, 1990; Hall & Mirvis, 1995)? What implications does a new career mentality have for recruitment and retention? In sum, this investigation is both an immediate response to Sullivan's (1999) call for research examining different employment relationships and a first step toward investigating how those relationships affect individual and organizational outcomes.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

“Lifelong job security is not a reality or not even something a lot of workers aspire to these days. We have an exciting, vibrant economy. Workers are trying to realize their own potential. They want to do their own thing” – Elaine Chao, Secretary of Labor (Bentham, 2001).

“A key indicator of career growth in today’s environment is job movement, so the career professional should promote the view of turnover as a positive, not a negative” (Hall, 1996a).

“The first step [to career independence] is breaking the direct and subtle dependencies that reinforce an attitude of inferiority toward your employer. Rethinking this relationship will enable you to view yourself as an independent economic entity, selling your services in a dynamic, competitive employment marketplace. Your new working self can be called ‘Me, Myself and I, Inc.’” (Porter, Porter, and Bennett, 1999).

It is common knowledge that employees join organizations for different reasons. Just a few years ago, before the dawn of downsizing and flattening organizational charts as business trends, we may have adequately grouped these reasons into two categories: money and job security. As the above quotes illustrate, though, today’s employees may

join organizations primarily for experience and skills, those things that can be successfully marketed when they decide to move on...or when the organization downsizes or folds. This phenomenon has been named and described by countless authors, employing monikers such as the protean career, the boundaryless career, and free agency, to name a few. Throughout this dissertation, the shifts discussed by these authors will be called “the new career mentality.”

Along with the increased attention paid to this new career mentality as the business environment changes, the psychological contract has also been the subject of increased attention. Originally formulated in 1960 by Argyris and refined in 1962 by Levinson, the psychological contract was proposed as a way to understand the subjective, reciprocal obligations that produce relationships between employees and their employers. Due to much recent work in the area, the psychological contract is evolving as a construct; several theoretical works and a few empirical studies supportive of theory have appeared. Moreover, some modifications have been made to original psychological contract theory in order to explain new career models.

A changing psychological contract has been used to explain a collective shift in the way individuals relate to organizations. Some note that employees have been asked to bear more economic risk by managing their own careers and employability (Feller, 1995; Hiltrop, 1995; Rousseau & Greller, 1994) and shouldering some benefit costs such as health insurance (Lucero & Allen, 1994). Others more bluntly state that the promise of job security no longer exists in most instances (Anderson & Schalk, 1998; Hiltrop, 1995; Morrison & Robinson, 1997). As simply put by Ehrlich (1994), “Employers are responsible for creating opportunities for employees to take care of themselves” (p. 493).

However, while the psychological contract has enjoyed renewed interest and attention, the available theory on the types of contracts individuals create with organizations is not without shortcomings, particularly considering the new career mentality. In this chapter, a construct is proposed based upon psychological contract content. This construct, called “personalized employment goals” due to the pervasive “Me, Myself, and I, Inc.” description of the new career, attempts to account for the “new” preferred relationship with organizations, while also expanding upon the psychological contract’s construct space.

Overview

As the psychological contract is being used as a framework to explore changes in the types of relationships individuals form with organizations, a brief review of the psychological contract literature is provided first, followed by a discussion of the career literature and the fundamental ways in which notions of the career have changed. Many of the “theories” associated with the new career contain similar ideas, yet have not been summarized to date, so those works considered to be illustrative of the “new career mentality” will be acknowledged in this chapter. In essence, the new career mentality notes that people work more, faster, and with less job security and longevity than ever before, but seem to be happier due to a sense of personal control over their working life and their careers. Behaviorally, these individuals approach opportunities to increase their own employability rather than their job security. Accordingly, the pursuit of “psychological success” rather than a notion of success dictated by organizations best summarizes this new career mentality.

Stated in terms of the psychological contract, individuals and organizations have come to expect different things from one another. In this chapter, it will be shown that the two conventional types of contracts (i.e., transactional and relational), though based upon long-standing social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; MacNeil, 1980), must be extended and transformed in order to encompass the new currencies of exchange associated with careers. Said another way, neither the fair day's pay/fair day's work exchange (i.e., the transactional psychological contract) nor the job security/loyalty exchange (i.e., relational psychological contract) adequately describes the currencies people expect to give and receive from organizations. Rather, a hard work/developmental opportunities exchange may be present as a distinct form of psychological contract.

Because of the new career focus on "psychological success," it is crucial to consider the individual's goals independent of any current relationship with an organization. Shore and Tetrick's (1994) concept of employment goals provides this degree of individual focus. As discussed here, once the concept of employment goals is operationalized, both traditional (i.e., transactional and relational) and new (i.e., personalized) employment goals can be used to test hypotheses concerning the new career mentality. Although heavily theorized, the new career mentality has received little empirical attention. Given a more rigorous operationalization, more systematic investigations of the new career are possible.

Psychological Contract

Psychological contract refers to the employee's perception of the reciprocal obligations held with his or her employer (Rousseau, 1989; Rousseau & McLean Parks,

1993; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). For example, the individual may believe the employer is obligated to provide pay and benefits in return for an agreed upon level of performance, or the individual may expect job security in return for loyalty. This is based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; MacNeil, 1980) and the inducement-contribution model, which states that the outcomes of inducements and contributions provided by the organization and the employee, respectively, must be satisfactory for the employment relationship to be effective (Arthur & Kram, 1989).

Psychological contracts are believed to contribute to relationship effectiveness in that they reduce uncertainty and give individuals a sense of control, even though they are individual, perceptual constructs (Rousseau, 1995; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). Shore and Tetrick (1994) note that expectancies (i.e., the performance-reward expectations defined in VIE theory) motivate behavior in much the same way (cf. Vroom, 1964); that is, expectancies and instrumentalities energize and direct behavior even if they are simply an individual's beliefs rather than known probabilities. In addition, the individual will attempt to keep the contract equitable; whether the contract is equitable in actuality is of little consequence (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). Shore and Barksdale (1998) showed that when perceived obligations were unbalanced in favor of the organization, affective commitment and perceived career future were lower, and intent to turnover was greater than when the obligations of both parties were in balance. In effect, Shore and Barksdale's (1998) study suggests that when the individual perceives that he or she has fulfilled obligations that have not been reciprocated, he or she will reduce commitment and increase intent to turnover.

Although the psychological contract has firm theoretical grounding, the term has gained popular appeal (cf. Pickard, 1995; Raelin, 1997; Salemi & Monahan, 1970), spawning much confusion about the bounds of the construct. Thus, two boundary conditions are offered (Rousseau, 1998; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). First, the psychological contract exists at the individual level; it is a perception regarding one's exchange relationship with another. Rousseau (1995) delineates other forms of contracts that are at the group level (i.e., normative and social contracts) and those that exist by virtue of the opinion of those outside the relationship (i.e., implied contracts). The second boundary condition is that the actual psychological contract involves perceived obligations rather than expectations alone. As will be discussed later, other associated constructs (i.e., employment goals) may be more in the way of expectations, but the contract itself should not be confused with mere anticipation of contribution and inducement. In instances where the psychological contract construct has been challenged (cf. Arnold, 1996; Guest, 1998a, 1998b), it has been primarily upon the grounds of these boundary conditions.

Transactional and Relational Psychological Contracts

Two forms of psychological contracts have been distinguished: transactional and relational (Macneil, 1980; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993; Shore & Tetrick, 1994). In early exchange research, these two types of contracts were termed economic and social exchange, respectively (cf. Emerson, 1981). Distinctions can be made between the two on the basis of both process and content (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). While the process dimensions each appear to reside on a continuum of transactional to relational, the content dimensions are less mutually exclusive. In other words, for the content

dimensions, it appears that the degrees of transactional and relational exchange one has with an organization are independent of one another. A summary of these distinctions appears in Table 2-1.

In terms of process, transactional contracts are defined in terms of discrete exchanges for specific tasks, while relational contracts are ongoing exchange relationships characterized by trust and reciprocity. In general, these distinctions have to do with the way in which the contract is conveyed or interpreted (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Rousseau and McLean Parks (1993) describe the process differences between the two forms of contracts in terms of their time frame, stability, scope, and tangibility. It should be noted that although each dimension (i.e., time frame, stability, scope, and tangibility) is considered to be a continuum from transactional to relational, some work has been done defining and operationalizing high/low combinations on the various dimensions (Rousseau, 1995, 2000; Rousseau and Wade-Benzoni, 1994, 1995). Transactional contracts are specific in their duration, static or unchanging, narrow in scope, and easily observable. Relational contracts, on the other hand, are of indefinite duration, dynamic, pervasive in scope, and subjective and understood rather than easily observed. Also, relational contracts are said to evolve over time (Dunahee & Wangler, 1974; Rousseau and McLean Parks, 1993); it is proposed that an extended tenure with an employer may encourage contracts that are relational, leading to a greater range of felt obligation on the part of the employee. However, if the individual has entered into a temporary relationship voluntarily (as with the case of contract labor), the same positive outcomes may result (McLean Parks, Kidder, & Gallagher, 1998).

Table 2-1

Process and Content Distinctions Between Relational and Transactional Contracts

Dimension	Transactional Psychological Contracts	Relational Psychological Contracts
Process		
Time Frame	Closed-Ended Specific Duration	Open-Ended Indefinite Duration
Stability	Static	Dynamic
Scope	Narrow	Pervasive Comprehensive
Tangibility	Public Easily Observable	Subjective Understood
Content or Focus	Economic Extrinsic	Economic Socio-Emotional Intrinsic

Note. Adapted from Rousseau (1990) and Rousseau & McLean Parks (1993).

Content, or focus, is another way in which to distinguish transactional and relational psychological contracts. Broadly, Rousseau and McLean Parks (1993) note that transactional contracts are economically or extrinsically focused while relational contracts are socio-emotional or intrinsic. Empirically, the content of these contracts has been operationalized using employer and employee currencies such as performance-based pay, limited involvement, and fair notice for transactional contracts, and using job security and loyalty for relational contracts (Rousseau, 1990, 1995). However, some authors explicitly note that the dimensionality of psychological contract content is neither well understood nor complete (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994; Thomas & Anderson, 1998), and low factor stability plagues many of the current scales (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998).

For example, training is often used as an additional currency for these contracts, sometimes loading on the transactional side and other times loading on the relational side (Arnold, 1996). Moreover, Irving and Bobocel (2001) recently conducted a study where an entire factor, labeled “Development and Challenge,” emerged separate from relational and transactional inducements. As will be discussed later, this mounting evidence is an indication that additional content groupings are needed to adequately describe the experiences of individuals in organizations. Accordingly, Sims (1994) mentions that opportunities for self-enhancement and challenging work in return for high productivity, quality of work, and creative effort is an additional grouping of exchange variables.

Empirical results on the outcomes of transactional and relational contracts are few, but consistent with theory. Rousseau (1990) found that relational contracts were positively associated with expected tenure with an organization and negatively associated with the view that the job is a stepping stone to other positions; transactional contracts were positively related to this stepping stone view. Millward and Hopkins (1998) found that temporary employees and those in skilled labor jobs were much more likely to have a transactional contract than permanent employees and those in supervisory, managerial, or professional jobs. Furthermore, they found that the transactional orientation was negatively related to job and organizational commitment, organizational tenure, and number of unpaid hours worked per week. The relational orientation was found to be positively related to job and organizational commitment and number of unpaid hours worked per week.

A model of psychological contract development is proposed by Shore and Tetrick (1994). They propose that independently of interactions with a given organization,

individuals hold transactional and relational employment goals. Employment goals are those objectives that an individual seeks to accomplish through the eventual psychological contract established with an organization. These goals dictate the types of information to which the individual attends when formulating a contract (cf. Ashford & Cummings, 1983). Meaning is then derived from incomplete information (i.e., only the information that receives attention), existing schemas, and the individual's own interpretation of information given the schemas. Thus, the ultimate psychological contract one holds with an organization is based only in part on the information provided by the external environment. For instance, individuals interested in the monetary benefits of a particular job may focus on information regarding pay and benefits, placing less emphasis on evidence about the permanence of the job. Likewise, individuals particularly interested in job security may incorporate promises of employment into their psychological contract while disregarding the working hours required.

Shore and Tetrick (1994) are the only authors of a specific explanatory concept in this area; however, several others have noted the importance of individual difference variables in the formation of the psychological contract (Freese & Schalk, 1996; Guest, 1998a; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1995; Spindler, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). Additionally, Rousseau (1990) showed empirically that expectations concerning the length of the employment relationship affect the type of psychological contract formed. One may conclude that psychological contracts are in some part due to individual predispositions toward a certain type of relationship.

The specific grouping of individual difference variables discussed above, called employment goals, is the basis of the construct proposed in this paper in order to explain

the new career mentality. Before the construct is developed, however, both a brief consideration of the traditional career literature and a more extensive review of the literature surrounding the new career mentality are in order.

Career Theory

Career theory has several aspects; it is a broad literature that has relied historically upon developmental stage theories to describe and explain individuals' experiences within their careers. Authors in this area have traditionally focused upon the individual experience of and the organizational solutions regarding occupational choice, organizational entry, socialization, mentoring, career plateaus, skill obsolescence, and preparations for retirement.

Traditional models

Historically, careers were seen as linear, or a "sequence of positions held by a typical practitioner in any given occupation" (Greenhaus & Callanan, 1994, p.4). As such, this definition allowed career researchers to utilize any given adult development model as a framework for theory and thought. For instance, Super's (1957) model of career stages includes the following: (1) exploration – gaining requisite skills by formal education and exploring various career options; (2) establishment – choosing an occupation and becoming acclimated to work; (3) maintenance – retaining employment and renewing skills as necessary; and (4) disengagement – preparing for retirement from the chosen career. Levinson (1986) also presents a developmental model of careers; it is more elaborate and includes transition periods between major life stages.

Adult developmental models are paralleled in the career literature by early-, mid-, and late-career issues. Before entering a career, individuals need to develop an initial

occupational choice, gain requisite skills for the chosen occupation, explore organizational options, and ultimately, choose a job within an organization. During the early-career stages, individuals are socialized to the chosen organization and establish their professional reputation. During the mid-career, individuals may face career plateaus and skill obsolescence that must be reconciled and overcome, and they may be asked to become mentors to younger members of the organization. Finally, during late career, individuals must remain productive while preparing for retirement.

These models elude to one, systematic career path: an individual enters an organization, advances within the organizational hierarchy, and then prepares for retirement from a linear progression of occupational events. Given the incidents that have come to pass in recent years, these models no longer describe the career experience of several individuals. New career thought has provided insights as to why traditional career models are no longer completely applicable.

The New Career Mentality

As early as 1976, Hall proposed that our ideas about careers had changed in eight fundamental ways:

1. The term 'career' no longer pertains to individuals in high-status or managerial positions; it refers to all individuals regardless of occupation or hierarchical status.
2. The term 'career' does not refer to vertical mobility alone; it encompasses career moves in all directions.

3. The term 'career' no longer refers to sequences of positions held within one organization or in one functional area; individuals will likely hold positions in multiple organizations.
4. Organizations are no longer solely responsible for career development; the individual is responsible for actively pursuing and planning her or his career.
5. It cannot be assumed that organizations will act in a paternalistic fashion toward employees; job security is no longer guaranteed on the basis of performance or loyalty.
6. Careers are no longer held by men alone (as was the focus of early researchers).
7. Career success is no longer measured by salary or status within an organization; success must be personally defined.
8. It cannot be assumed that career interests and aspirations will remain stable or predictable over a 40-year period of employment; rather, work history and development outside work may bring about changes in the individual's career goals.

These changes, along with more recent workplace events, have generated several new career models. As will be discussed later in this dissertation, these models, although called by different names, have multiple similarities. Specifically, ideas such as the boundaryless career, the protean career, free agency, spiral and transitory career concepts, careerism, and Generation X will be discussed.

Why is a new career model needed?

New career theorists cite several workplace events in preface to their proposed career models. The most common precipitating event discussed is the wave of downsizing that occurred in the late 1980s and early- to mid-1990s (Brousseau, Driver, Eneroth, & Larsson, 1996; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994, 1996; Gould, Weiner, & Levin, 1997; Hall & Mirvis, 1995, 1996; Kanter, 1994). In fact, 2.2 million Americans were unemployed due to downsizing during the period from 1990 to 1995 (Serwer, 1995), and many who weren't directly affected witnessed a friend, parent, or other family member experience sudden job loss. "The death of the unwritten contract" (Gould, Weiner, & Levin, 1997, p. 5; Hall & Mirvis, 1996; Millward & Hopkins, 1998) was a direct result; that is, employees no longer felt that their commitment to the organization alone would assure them a place within the firm. Currently, organizations are still eliminating positions; 1.3 million were eliminated in 1998 and 1999 alone (Smith, 2000). While layoffs are included in this total, some of these job eliminations were due to restructuring efforts. In the latter case, position creation and job elimination happen simultaneously such that these changes arguably do not have the same effect on the "unwritten contract."

Given downsizing and restructuring, it follows that organizational structures have changed. These changes have impacted careers both directly by decreasing the number of positions at the top of the career ladder, and indirectly by changing the work experiences of individuals (Callanan & Greenhaus, 1999; Brousseau et al., 1996; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; Hall & Mirvis, 1996; Kanter, 1994; London & Stumpf, 1986; Weick & Berlinger, 1989). The bureaucracy as an organizational structure has become decreasingly popular as evinced by the flattening of organizations and inducements that

are more 'professional' than 'bureaucratic' such as self-managed work teams and competency based pay (Kanter, 1989, 1994). Miles and Snow (1996) propose that society is actually experiencing the fourth wave of organizational forms; bureaucracies (i.e., the second) were replaced by network organizations (i.e., the third) between 1975 and 1995. While its ultimate shape remains to be seen, the fourth wave of organizational forms can be characterized by flexibility, collaboration, and competitive advantage based on knowledge creation.

Commonly, the 3-leafed shamrock arrangement of organizations is cited as the new organizational form (Handy, 1989). One leaf of the shamrock contains a core set of managers and professionals that are responsible for the continuity within the organization, the second consists of contract workers or specialists for any given project, and the third leaf represents contingent workers that are responsible for more routine operations. If not a shamrock, the structure of today may be a diamond. Feller (1995) notes that the triangular structures of the past now look more like diamonds, with the majority of the employees within the organization residing in the middle, which is characterized by the utilization of broad skills and high access to information. The top and bottom levels are much smaller than in the days of the triangular organizational design, which prohibits both broad scale organizational entries by way of low skilled jobs and long career ladders to the top.

More fundamentally, perhaps, is the demise of the 'job' as a means for packaging the work done by an individual within an organization. Instead, work is now being grouped by function or field in order to allow for project participation, rather than being grouped by fixed, static duties (Bridges, 1994). This too, impacts the way careers are

defined and described (Brousseau et al., 1996; Hall & Mirvis, 1996). For instance, one's resume may no longer include traditional job titles such as "Operations Manager"; instead, the reader may find several titles such as "Project Manager" or "Marketing Liaison," all held within one organization.

Finally, still other writers have discussed the information and technology age making some jobs obsolete (Callanan & Greenhaus, 1999; Driver, 1994; DeFillippi & Arthur, 1994; London & Stumpf, 1986) and economic downturn in the late 1980s (Brousseau, 1988) as impetuses for the interest in a new career paradigm. Social forces such as the American sense of identity that revolves around self rather than group and the need for instant gratification have also been noted (DeMeuse & Tornow, 1990). These issues are much less widely adopted by writers in this area, but they represent alternative origins of the current state of affairs.

New Career Models

Several career researchers have attempted to reconcile the current business environment and individuals' careers. First and foremost, a more flexible definition of career is often adopted in the relevant literature. Greenhaus and Callanan (1994, p. 5) offer the following definition: "A career is defined as the pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a person's life." They note that this definition allows for the consideration of objective work-related experiences, such as job changes, organizational socialization, promotions, and retirement, as well as the individual's subjective experience of each milestone. The subjective experience may include satisfaction of needs or career aspirations as well as personal fulfillment from any chosen career path.

Other evidence of this reconciliation between the current business environment and careers is the examination of non-linear topics such as resocialization, job loss due to downsizing, and post-retirement occupations. These concepts allow us to consider that an individual may be socialized to a new organization multiple times during his or her career, may be required to search for a new job during mid- or late-career, and may return to work after retirement, a milestone that traditionally marked the “end” of work life. Indirectly, these investigations challenge the traditional definition and developmental model of careers. That is to say, studies examining the various facets of careers are now addressing those issues facing individuals in the new career environment. But what is the new career environment? Several writers have proposed ideas as to what participating in a “new career” entails. The most prominent are described briefly below.

Career Concepts. Brousseau and Driver have articulated four career concepts that describe patterns of movement within and between organizations and the corresponding values of individuals pursuing each of these patterns (Brousseau, 1988; Brousseau & Driver, 1994). Specifically, the four concepts differ in terms of the pattern’s stability, direction of movement, and duration of time an individual remains within a given occupational field. Two of these concepts represent more traditional views. The first concept is “linear”; it refers to movement that is steadily upward within one organization or field. People who pursue the linear pattern value power and achievement. The second concept, “steady state,” refers to a pattern in which movement is infrequent; instead, individuals utilize special competencies or expertise in accomplishing tasks that are generally unchanging in nature. Promotions are not pursued, as that would require different competencies and skills. This concept is most akin to the pre-industrial

revolution crafts and, to some extent, professional pursuits such as law and medicine. Individual values associated with the steady state concept are expertise and security.

The third and fourth concepts are more closely aligned with the new career mentality. The “spiral” career concept includes a periodic major shift in career field, resulting in several lateral moves in addition to an occasional vertical move. The impetus for these moves is skill development; individuals in spiral career patterns typically move to positions in which they can develop a new set of abilities and skills while capitalizing on the skills acquired in previous positions. Values associated with this concept include personal growth, creativity, and developing others. “Transitory” patterns are still more uncommon, even considering today’s turbulent environment. They are characterized by a great deal of change in both jobs and occupational fields. While the spiral career concept includes moves marked by more calculated skill development, the transitory concept represents movement in any direction for the sake of diversity. Hence, individuals who chose transitory careers value variety and independence.

Influenced by the notion of “career concepts,” Derr (1986a, 1986b) has also created a typology of career orientations. Defining career as, “a long-term planned work history which represents the dynamic interplay between three activities: work, relationships, and self-development” (Derr, 1986a, p. 415), he forwards five separate definitions of career success that presumably influence individual career choices. Although much less developed than Brousseau and Driver’s career concepts (Brousseau, 1988; Brousseau & Driver, 1994), the five definitions are mentioned here in the interest of a comprehensive review of career typologies. As defined by Derr (1986b, p.2), the five career success orientations are:

...(1) getting ahead – making it to the top of the hierarchy and status system; (2) getting secure – achieving recognition, job security, respect, and ‘insider’ status; (3) getting free – obtaining maximum control over work processes; (4) getting high – getting excitement challenge, adventure, and ‘cutting edge’ opportunities; and (5) getting balanced – achieving a meaningful balance among work, relationships, and self-development so that work does not become either too absorptive or too uninteresting.

The Boundaryless Career. The notion of a boundaryless career is very broad, referring to several related, yet distinct phenomena. As noted by Arthur (1994), a common theme of the boundaryless career is its independence from traditional, “organizational” career principles. The result is a very dynamic employment model. The boundaryless career can refer to a career that moves across the boundaries of separate employers, one that draws validation from outside the employer, or one that depends upon networks and other extra-organizational relationships. It can also refer to the breaking of organizational boundaries, such as hierarchies and advancement principles, or a person’s rejection of existing career opportunities for non-professional reasons. Finally, the boundaryless career can be psychologically based; an individual may perceive his or her opportunities as endless, despite any structural constraints (Arthur, 1994; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996).

Accordingly, individuals who choose to pursue boundaryless careers must adopt competencies that allow them to manage their careers independent of the organization’s assistance. DeFillippi and Arthur (1994, 1996) discuss three such competencies. The first is “know why,” and it refers to knowing one’s career motivation and the types of

activities that provide one fulfillment and personal meaning. “Know how” competencies refer to skills and knowledge that develop over the jobs and occupations that one individual holds. “Know how” can refer to firm-specific knowledge, such as that which is reinforced by organizational routine, as well as non-firm-specific knowledge that can be transferred to other organizations. Finally, “know whom” refers to career-relevant networks that are used for organizational as well as personal benefit. Individuals may call upon members of their networks for expertise and new learning, but also to gain access to new job opportunities.

Jones and DeFillippi (1996) expand upon this list of competencies by examining the film industry. As a quintessential network organization, the film industry offered these authors a unique environment in which to expand the list of competencies. The expansion encompasses industry-specific knowledge, while the three original competencies referred to self-knowledge. Specifically, these expanded competencies are “know what,” “know where,” and “know when.” “Knowing what” is an understanding of the industry’s opportunities, threats, and requirements for success. By knowing what success entails, one can better determine if success will be rewarding and fulfilling and if it is possible given an individual’s current knowledge skills, and abilities. “Knowing where” involves knowledge of the geographic, spatial, or cultural boundaries for entrance, training, and advancement within the industry. As noted by Jones and DeFillippi (1996), this can be especially difficult in a boundaryless environment, since a successful individual within any given industry may have taken any number of routes to become so. Finally, “know when” is wisdom about the timing of various activities throughout one’s career. Additional formalized training, job offers, advancements, and

lateral moves all impact the opportunities that one subsequently receives; it becomes crucial to understand, or at the very least accept the impact of the temporal placement of these events upon future opportunities.

Jones and DeFillippi (1996) also note the interplay between these competencies. For example, one may pursue a particular opportunity because it is personally rewarding; however, the timing of the choice may create long-term expectations that the individual is not prepared to accept. Another illustration would be that an individual might not have accumulated the skills and knowledge that may inform networking within a particular industry. Ultimately, though, these authors point out that the relationships between the two categories of knowledge (i.e., self and industry) and the six individual competencies are not well understood. They are offered in order to further our understanding of boundaryless careers.

Free Agency. Very similar to ideas about the boundaryless career is the concept of free agency. Advanced by Gould, Weiner, and Levin (1997) and based on a notion put forth by Hirsch (1987), free agency is the achievement of employment security by sustaining employability and defining oneself by one's work rather than the context in which it is performed. Free agents accept the insecurity of today's work environment; they value opportunities to build their resume, create large networks, and maintain and market their skills in order to attain attractive assignments and contracts. However, they do so while providing value to the company. Free agents want to exchange their skills and knowledge for the opportunity to grow and develop by doing challenging work (Gould, Weiner, & Levin, 1997; Smith, 2000; Waterman, Waterman, & Collard, 1994). While Waterman, Waterman, and Collard (1994) use a different label, "career resilience",

both groups of authors are referring to a state of mind – the perceived value of exchanging of current skills and talents for environments in which new skills and talents can be developed regardless of the time horizon of employment. Smith (2000) notes that one doesn't have to switch companies in order to become a free agent (although working for several different companies is often mentioned as a characteristic of free agency). In fact, one consultant is quoted as saying, “the most valuable employee is the one who could go but chooses to stay” (Smith, 2000, p. 58).

Others describe free agents more narrowly, referring solely to self-employed individuals and independent contractors. Under these constraints, Pink (1998) speculates that approximately 16% (25 million people) of the American workforce call themselves free agents and another 50 million individuals receive supplemental income from a source other than a full- or part-time employer, as inferred from the 74 million 1099 forms the IRS sends out each year. Nevertheless, several of the tenants of Pink's free agency are the same as the aforementioned description of free agency. Individuals are more secure in their own employability than they were with any large corporation, they maintain networks and market their skills, and they work on a short-term basis for one or several clients. Pink (1998) also discusses the ease with which these individuals bridge the work/life gap that plagues several members of the corporate world. As one free agent put it, “I used to think that what I needed to do was balance my life, keep my personal and professional lives separate. But I discovered that the real secret is integration. I integrate my work into my life. I don't see my work as separate from my identity” (Pink, 1998, p. 134). In this way, free agency and the boundaryless career are very similar to the next career theory, the ‘protean career’.

Protean Career. The protean career is named for a Greek god, Proteus, who could change shape to meet the needs of the situation at hand. Hall (1976, p. 201) formally defines protean career as follows:

The protean career is a process that the person, not the organization, is managing. It consists of all the person's varied experiences in education, training, work in several organizations, changes in occupational field, etc. The protean career is not what happens to the person in any one organization. The protean person's own personal career choices and search for self-fulfillment are the unifying or integrative elements in his or her life. The criterion of success is internal (psychological success), not external.

Hall and Mirvis (1996) outline the ways in which the protean career is flexible and allows for personal autonomy. First, it allows for any number of idiosyncratic career paths, each unique to the individual that pursues it. Secondly, it enlarges the career space to focus upon non-work roles as well as work roles. It is argued that all experiences shape an individual's identity; therefore, even non-work experiences have impact upon the roles that one holds in association with work. Finally, thinking of careers in this manner allows for the reversal of traditional relationships with organizations; in this model, the organization is merely a context for realizing personal aspirations instead of an entity to pursue in and of itself (also see Mirvis & Hall, 1994).

Like the developers of the boundaryless career theory, Hall and Mirvis (1996) discuss meta-competencies that aid individuals in their pursuit of a protean career. They are (1) identity growth, or self-reflection and self-learning, and (2) adaptability. However, Hall and Mirvis (1996) state that individuals must go beyond just self-

knowledge and flexibility; they must incorporate the career sub-identity into their core self-identity. In other words, individuals must acknowledge work as a part of their core being without allowing it to consume the other roles they fill. The needs of healthy individuals include needs associated with all roles, and individuals acknowledging this point must alter their psychological contract with the employing organization to ensure psychological success associated with all life roles. Indeed, feelings of personal accomplishment (i.e., psychological success) come from career achievements as well as family happiness, spiritual endeavors, and inner peace, to name a few (Hall, 1996b).

In a 1994 article, Mirvis and Hall attempt to formally integrate their notion of psychological success with the boundaryless career. They note that moving seamlessly across organizational boundaries, as in boundaryless careers, could aid in the attainment of psychological success. However, while the idea of the boundaryless career is relatively well developed, organizations do not yet have the support mechanisms that make the ideal boundaryless career possible. For example, organizations have not yet mastered such interventions as just-in-time learning, flexible workplaces, sabbaticals, or specialized career tracks. Ultimately, the boundaryless career could be both beneficial and detrimental to individuals' feelings of success. For instance, the boundaryless career includes more options, which may either heighten feelings of confusion and fragmentation or open up more possibilities for self-identity. Additionally, boundaryless careers can give people more freedom to change organizations and occupations, but they also require a substitute for organizational identification. In sum, Mirvis and Hall (1994) warn, "the movement toward the boundaryless organization is well ahead of acceptance of the boundaryless career" (p. 377). Kissler (1994) and Kovach (1987, 1995) echo this

sentiment, noting that HR systems repeatedly endorse the “old” contract and that supervisors erroneously believe that good wages rather than interesting work are the key motivator of performance. In essence, then, only the best of cases will the boundaryless career lead to a more expansive career identity and new sources for psychological success.

Careerism. A less optimistic theory, but a new career theory nonetheless is that of careerism, forwarded by Feldman and Weitz (1991). Early conceptualizations of careerism were broad, touting a “me-first” mentality in the managerial, academic, and professional communities (Feldman 1988). While this mentality is a logical reaction to organizations withdrawing from individuals’ career development endeavors, Feldman (1988) notes that it has several negative consequences, such as anticipatory dissatisfaction, increased turnover, inauthentic interpersonal relationships, self-absorption, and even unethical behavior. Feldman and Weitz refined this concept in 1991, defining careerism as “the propensity to pursue career advancement through non-performance based means” (p. 238). Those adopting this view believe that (1) competence is not sufficient for advancement, (2) interpersonal relationships should be used instrumentally, (3) image management is of the utmost importance, (4) political behavior is a substitute for task knowledge, (5) organizational and individual goals are fundamentally incompatible, and (6) equity must be carefully managed. Feldman and Weitz (1991) found that careerists are significantly less satisfied, less motivated, and less job involved. They also found support for a higher desire to change jobs as well as more actual job changes, but no support for more organizational changes. In sum, this theory has some similarities to the boundaryless career and the protean career in its emphasis on

job changes and self-reliance; however, its conceptualization of a new career model is much more deviant and negative. Nonetheless, its presence in the literature reinforces the apparent inclinations of many career theorists to explain career behavior in a new organizational setting.

Generation X. Although not a career theory per se, several books and articles have appeared in the popular press on Generation X, or those individuals born between the years of 1963 and 1981 (Tulgan, 1995, 1997). They are hypothesized to have specific attributes, attitudes, and behaviors, some of which parallel the career theories considered above. According to authors of popular books, Gen Xers are looking not for job security or money, but for skills that will help them perform on their next job (Tulgan, 1997). This has led to the belief that Gen Xers are disloyal, when it is asserted that they actually no longer believe in job security and dues-paying as a result of watching their parents being downsized or relegated to non-rewarding work. Also, Gen Xers are comfortable with change and extremely independent in all endeavors, including work and career management. This is the primary result of spending a great deal of time alone as children due to dual career families or single parent homes (Raines, 1997; Tulgan, 1995, 1997).

Few studies have examined Generation X in the workplace. Burke (1994) examined the actual prevalence of Generation X's stereotyped attitudes. He found values that were "somewhat consistent" with the Generation X depiction, as determined by absolute mean ratings of value importance. Additionally, he found slightly higher ratings of endorsement for Generation X values for females and for younger individuals within Generation X.

Burke (1994) also noted that generalizations do not apply to every member of the cohort, a notion that was confirmed in a recent study by Blumenthal, Cober, and Doverspike (2000). Studying work ethic, these authors found no differences between groups on an overall measure of work ethic. However, they found differences between high and low identification groups of Generation X, the low identification group resembling a Baby Boomer group on some dimensions of work ethic. While the specific attitudes and values of Generation X are still being examined scientifically, the current views of Generation X have some relevance to the discussion of new career theory. For our purposes, the interest in Generation X in the workforce represents yet another trend toward reinventing the idea of careers and work based on the experiences of individuals in today's organizations.

New Career Themes

While calling them by different names, the aforementioned authors are describing very similar phenomena, as also noted by Callanan and Greenhaus (1999). The attitudes of people have changed; they are more committed to themselves and their own personal development than they are to any one organization. The organization is a context for personal development goals, not an entity with which to identify in and of itself. The behaviors of people have changed; personally managing one's career and taking new jobs in different organizations are commonplace and accepted by many as a fact of life. Finally, the characteristics of individuals have changed; they are more flexible and adaptable, and they have tremendous self-knowledge and insight.

How does this affect psychological attachment to organizations? Individuals pursuing new careers may view organizations solely as a medium for accomplishment of

personal aspirations and may be unwilling to continue work on projects or tasks for which they do not see personal, instrumental value. As evidence of this, Stroh, Brett, and Reilly (1994) found that individuals changed jobs more often in 1989 than in 1979. While these job-changers expressed less loyalty to organizations when surveyed in 1989, the group of managers was more satisfied and involved with their jobs. Indeed, according to new career theorists, more and more individuals are defining themselves by their accomplishments and/or the larger profession of which they are a part and less by the organizations in which they work. These changes undoubtedly alter the psychological contract individuals expect to hold with organizations.

The New Career Mentality and Psychological Contract

As mentioned previously, the changes to the psychological contract accompanying the changes in the organizational environment and the resulting new career mentality have been noted by some, although only in a very general sense. Some note that the contract is becoming markedly more transactional and short-term (Gould, Weiner, & Levin, 1997; Mirvis & Hall, 1994), while others note that the current categories of contracts do not adequately embody this shift in careers (Hall, 1996a; Hall & Moss, 1998; Kanter, 1994). Additionally, it has been shown that work experiences do change the nature of the psychological contract. Cavanaugh and Noe (1999) found that work experiences such as involuntary job loss, organizational change, and violation of contractual obligations predicted changes in the psychological contract. These changes in the psychological contract entailed a personal responsibility for career development, commitment to type of work (rather than employer), and expectations of job insecurity.

Thus, although a body of literature that gained popularity in part due to a shift in employer-employee relations, psychological contract theory as it stands does not fully embody the new career mentality described in this chapter. Interestingly, psychological contracts and the new career mentality are at a similar point in their scientific development. Both have been the subjects of numerous theoretical discussions, but few empirical studies (Turnley & Feldman, 2000). Both areas of study would benefit from the operationalization of a more explanatory construct so that further empirical examinations could take place. Consequently, the places in which transactional and relational conceptualizations of attachment to organizations fall short are considered next, and the notion of personalized employment goals, a more explanatory concept, is developed. Distinctions between relational, transactional, and personalized employment goals are outlined in Table 2-2.

Relational Psychological Contracts. A few aspects of relational psychological contracts are congruent with writing on the new career. The generalized nature of the relational contract is very similar to the generalized desires of the individual adopting a new career mentality. These individuals are said to want a venue for psychological success, challenging work, learning new skills, and autonomy (Hall & Mirvis, 1996; Gould, Weiner, & Levin, 1997; Mirvis & Hall, 1994; Waterman, Waterman, & Collard, 1994), all very ill-defined demands that do not lend themselves readily to a more transactional contract. Furthermore, some of the relational items on a scale developed by Millward & Hopkins (1998) describe the new career mentality: “This job is a stepping stone in my career development”, “I expect to grow in this organization”, and “The organization develops/rewards employees who work hard and exert themselves”

Table 2-2

Content Components of Transactional, Relational, and Personalized Employment Goals

Obligations	Transactional Employment Goals	Relational Employment Goals	Personalized Employment Goals
Summary	Extrinsic	Intrinsic/Socio-Emotional	Intrinsic/Personal Growth
Organization Obligations	Financial Security	Job Security	Employability
	Well-Defined Work Requirements	Promotions	Challenging Work
	Job-Specific Training	Organization-Specific Training	Transferable Training
Employee Obligations	Accomplishment of Agreed-Upon Work	Loyalty	Hard Work
		Tenure	Career Self-Management
		Organizational Citizenship	Full Use of Varied Skill Set

(Millward & Hopkins, 1998, p. 1555-56). However, other items included on this scale allude to loyalty and upward mobility, concepts that run counter to the new career mentality: “I have a reasonable chance of promotion if I work hard”, “My career path in the organization is clearly mapped out” (Millward & Hopkins, 1998, p. 1556).

However, also according to the defining characteristics of relational psychological contracts, those who possess such contracts are believed to have a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization, which is uncharacteristic of those pursuing new careers. Gould, Weiner, and Levin (1997) note that free agents accept the insecurity of a job and view themselves as self-employed at all times. Moreover, Hall (1996; Hall & Mirvis, 1995) notes that job movement is a key indicator of career growth and should be

viewed as a positive rather than a negative. Several other authors call attention to turnover as well (Arthur, 1994; Baker & Aldrich, 1996; Feldman, 1988; London & Stumpf, 1986; Waterman, Waterman, & Collard, 1994). It is unlikely that individuals who adopt a new career mentality will identify with any particular organization; thus, they will not have a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization for affective reasons.

It appears that some components of relational psychological contracts are relevant for the new career orientation, while others are not. Precisely, effort toward organizational goals can be expected, but turnover cannot be dismissed as a possibility. However, empirical studies have shown that relational psychological contracts are positively related to tenure (Rousseau, 1990). The concept of personalized employment goals must help to reconcile this paradox.

Transactional Psychological Contracts. In many ways, the transactional psychological contract describes the attitudes those with new career mentalities have toward organizations; indeed, several authors use a shift toward transactional contracts as one way to define new careers (Gould, Weiner, & Levin, 1997; Hall & Mirvis, 1994; Mirvis & Hall, 1994). According to Millward and Hopkins (1998), under transactional contracts, an individual's identity is derived from his or her unique skills and competencies rather than from the organization, a notion very similar to the new career mentality. However, several characteristics of transactional contracts as they have traditionally been measured are incongruent with the new career mentality. Specifically, the transactional contract as described by new career thought suggests that hard work, creativity, and flexibility on the part of the employee are exchanged for a venue for

psychological success, challenging work, and skill development on the part of the organization. Additionally, some authors note that the relationship may well be a long-term one provided that the potential for psychological success is ongoing (Altman & Post, 1996; Hall & Mirvis, 1996). The ways in which transactional contracts have been measured, though, are focused narrowly on extrinsic currencies of exchange and temporary employment. Below is one such illustration.

In a standardized measure of transactional contract developed by Millward and Hopkins (1998), one can see the extrinsic focus coupled with a definitively temporary employment expectancy, no matter the potential for personal fulfillment if one stays with the organization over a long period of time. Sample items include: “I do this job just for the money”, “My long term future does not lie with this organization”, and “I work only the hours set out in my contract and no more” (Millward & Hopkins, 1998, p. 1555). Clearly, these items do not reflect the notion of “psychological success” and “challenging work.”

When a group of obligations is measured and then analyzed by canonical correlation to determine its underlying structure (Rousseau, 1990; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994), the results are more promising for new careers, but they still don’t address the particulars of the new career mentality. Specifically, transactional contracts were found to include the obligations of high and performance-based pay and training on the part of the organization, and overtime, extra-role behaviors, and fair notice before leaving the organization on the part of the employee. These contracts were positively related to the view that the organization was a stepping-stone to other firms, affirming some degree of relation between these perceived obligations and new careers. In this

case, the construct as determined by canonical correlation is not in question; however, the content of the measure is incomplete when attempting to reconcile it with the new career mentality. Specifically, notions of employability and psychological success are not addressed.

In sum, while the new career mentality may entail a shift to more transactional psychological contract in terms of immediate reciprocity and willingness to turnover, it is not possible to use the traditional measures of these constructs to investigate new career theory as they are heavily focused on extrinsic motivation and outcomes. Broadly, because neither the relational or the transactional psychological contracts, nor the parallel employment goals (cf. Shore & Tetrick, 1994), are wholly consistent with the new career orientation, it is necessary to consider a different orientation, that of personalized employment goals.

Personalized Employment Goals

Because of the individualized nature of the new career mentality, it is reasonable to focus on employment goals rather than the actual psychological contract. The psychological contract itself involves a relationship with a particular organization; in large part the psychological contract is the result of this interaction between employee and employer rather than a descriptor of the individual's career mentality. As discussed above, employment goals are those objectives that an individual seeks to accomplish through the psychological contract held with an organization. Personalized employment goals are those goals which, independent of any organization, represent aspirations for psychological success and fulfillment of one's personal needs through managing one's own career and maintaining employability. This concept borrows some aspects of the

relational employment goals (e.g., hard work and effort) and some aspects of transactional employment goals (e.g., reciprocity, career self-management) while incorporating tenets of the new career mentality.

Perhaps it is most descriptive to discuss the hybridization and extension of relational and transactional career goals to form personalized employment goals, although several authors have alluded to a shift from relational to transactional career goals. Supporting the former view, Mirvis and Hall (1994) state that boundaryless organizations will use both transactional and relational contracts, and Brousseau, Driver, Eneroth, and Larson (1996) warn against attempting to adopt monolithic structures. Instead, they suggest pluralistic cultures that support several career paths. Furthermore, Hall and Mirvis (1996) note that either party has the freedom to bring an end to the employment relationship (similar to a transactional orientation), but it may come to pass that any particular relationship with an organization can become a long-term and highly valued one (similar to a relational orientation). Hall goes on to note, "...this is something other than simply a relational or transactional contract" (1996, p. 22).

Some authors have more generally noted the need for a new conceptualization of organizational attachment variables based upon the changes happening in today's career environment. Meyer, Allen, and Topolnytsky (1998) suggest a commitment to one's "personal" career, or commitment to skills, knowledge, abilities, networks, colleagues, and other experiences. Extending this notion, they pose the question, "Is it possible for employers to attain the objectives achieved through commitment to the organization by fostering commitment to other foci?" (p. 91). Meyer, Allen, and Topolnytsky (1998) and Dessler (1999) suggest that organizations may capitalize on employee desires for

personal career growth to gain the outcomes traditionally associated with affective organizational commitment or relational psychological contracts.

Other writers have attempted to describe a new type of loyalty that captures that of those pursuing new careers. For instance, Stroh and Reilly (1997a, 1997b) posit a transferable loyalty: individuals remain loyal to the organization that is providing them with their career development needs. Hakim (1996) advises building “conscious loyalty.” Conscious loyalty is the idea that independence and interdependence are not mutually exclusive, as opposed to “blind loyalty”, which is characterized by dependence upon the organization for development and mobility. Under the conscious loyalty model, individuals can learn more about themselves and their organization in order to contribute to collective success. Further, Hakim (1996) believes that conscious loyalty is a healthy alternative to blind loyalty, which was only functional in the paternal organizations of the past.

In sum, then, personalized employment goals must embody the relevant components of transactional and relational employment goals, those aspects of new career theory not represented in the attachment literature, commitment to “personal” career, and conscious loyalty. It is imperative, though, that the concept of personalized employment goals is differentiated from the attachment variables on which it is based; in other words, it must be free of concept redundancy (Morrow, 1993). While Morrow (1993) does not note a similar construct to personalized employment goals and attachment in her five universal forms of work commitment (i.e., affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, work ethic endorsement, career commitment, and job involvement), she notes that individuals may recast or redefine

career commitment (i.e., commitment to one's specific profession or vocation; Blau, 1985b, 1989) to mean skill commitment (i.e., loyalty to one's skills due to the series of job and organizational moves that encompass one's career). However, this "skill commitment" concept has not been operationalized.

The purpose of this dissertation is to successfully measure the concept of employment goals (i.e., relational and transactional employment goals) and to show empirically that the concept should be revised and extended to include personalized employment goals. For conceptual purposes, the three types of employment goals can be defined as follows:

Relational Employment Goals: Those desires that are long term and protective, such as job security. An employee with relational goals may wish to give an organization loyalty in return for a place to call "home."

Transactional Employment Goals: Those desires that are short term and material, such as money and benefits. An employee with transactional goals may expect to exchange only the work in their job description for a paycheck and benefits.

Personalized Employment Goals: Those desires that are flexible but directly related to an employee's learning and skill development, such as experience and training. An employee with personalized employment goals may wish to offer creativity, effort, and his or her unique constellation of skills in return for valuable work experience.

After a psychometrically sound measure of personalized employment goals is created, it will be possible to examine the nomological net surrounding the concept of the new career mentality. This effort is long overdue, particularly considering that some

authors offer prescriptions for organizations that are based only upon theoretical notions of the new career (cf. Callanan & Greenhaus, 1999; DeMeuse & Tornow, 1990; Hall & Mirvis, 1995; Hall & Richter, 1990; Hiltrop, 1995). Moreover, the psychological contract literature would benefit from the operationalization of employment goals; specifically, the model of psychological contract development proposed by Shore and Tetrick (1994) could then be tested and validated. Furthermore, by expanding the options for content within the psychological contract, more complex and current hypotheses could be tested.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are forwarded in order to measure and extend the concept of employment goals. By doing so, it is also hoped that an operationalization of the new career mentality will be created that is useful for further empirical exploration.

H1: The concepts of relational, transactional, and personalized employment goals can be reliably and distinctly measured via a self-report instrument.

Upon its successful measurement, the nomological net surrounding employment goals must be explored. Specifically, the three types of employment goals should be differentially related to individual difference variables, attachment variables, and work behaviors. Variables of interest in this study are discussed below.

Big Five Personality

The most well known taxonomy for classifying personality traits is the “Big Five.” The dimensions of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Openness to New Experience, and Neuroticism are each hypothesized to have different relationships with the employment goals concept. While definitions may differ depending upon the

source consulted, Extraversion is marked by such traits as gregariousness, talkativeness, and social activity. Agreeableness is associated with the traits of courteousness, flexibility, cooperation, trust, and tolerance. Individuals who are conscientious possess dependability, but the construct also has a volitional aspect that includes hard work and perseverance. Openness to New Experience includes traits such as imagination, curiosity, and broad-mindedness. Finally, Neuroticism refers to those traits such as anxiety, nervousness, embarrassment, and insecurity (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

The most relevant Big Five construct for those with relational employment goals is Agreeableness. Relational psychological contracts are marked by their indefinite duration, pervasiveness, and subjectivity (Rousseau and McLean Parks 1993; Rousseau, 1995). It can be reasonably assumed that individuals preferring relational psychological contracts with organizations have high degrees of trust and cooperation, which allows them to accept (and in fact, create) such loosely defined reciprocal obligations with their employing organization. Moreover, it can be hypothesized that those with relational employment goals view themselves as dependable and hardworking, and it has been shown that those with relational psychological contracts report more overtime hours worked (Millward & Hopkins, 1998). Thus, positive relationships are expected between relational employment goals, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness. Finally, while those with relational employment goals may in fact be original and creative, the relational psychological contract is a very traditional one, describing almost a paternalistic role for organizations (Hakim, 1996). To the extent that those with relational employment goals prefer the relational employment relationship *because* of its tradition, a negative association with Openness to New Experience may be hypothesized, albeit a weak

negative association. No other relationships are predicted with relational employment goals.

Transactional employment goals are associated with extrinsic exchanges, primarily work up to a predefined standard in exchange for a salary and benefits. The volitional component of the Conscientiousness dimension seems counter to this extrinsic exchange. Individuals with transactional employment goals feel obligated to provide the work that garners them a salary; it is unlikely that they perceive their efforts to be provided willfully, although they may view themselves as dependable. Thus, a slight negative relationship with Conscientiousness is predicted, but negligible relationships with the other Big Five constructs are expected.

Finally, those with personalized employment goals can be expected to possess the characteristics associated with Openness to New Experience, Extraversion, and Conscientiousness. Specifically, the desire to learn new skills and gain new experience is clearly related to the traits of broad-mindedness and curiosity. In fact, Barrick and Mount (1991) showed that this Big Five dimension is positively related to training proficiency, and hypothesized that this may be due to a positive attitude toward learning and an ultimate willingness to engage in learning experiences. Thus, Openness to New Experience should be highly related to personalized employment goals. Moreover, the social skill, hard work, and perseverance required to network and manage one's own career, as is characteristic of personalized employment goals, likely will produce positive relationships with Extraversion and Conscientiousness.

H2a: Relational employment goals have positive associations with Agreeableness and Conscientiousness and a slight negative association with Openness to New Experience.

H2b: Transactional employment goals have a slight negative association with Conscientiousness.

H2c: Personalized employment goals have a strong positive association with Openness to New Experience and weak positive associations with Extraversion and Conscientiousness.

Manifest needs

Four manifest needs have been proposed to be specifically salient to work settings by Steers and Braunstein (1976): Achievement, Affiliation, Autonomy, and Dominance. These four needs can be loosely defined as follows. The need for Achievement refers to the desires for success on challenging tasks, the reaching of high standards, and the willingness to put forth effort. The need for Affiliation can be defined as the affinity for working with others in harmonious relationships and tolerance. The need for Autonomy reflects a desire for self-governance and independence in thought and action. Finally, the need for Dominance refers to the motive to direct and influence the activities of others (Steers & Braunstein, 1976; Jackson, 1991).

Relational employment goals embody, in part, an individual's desire for camaraderie and feelings of family associated with their occupation. The needs for Affiliation and Autonomy are pertinent here; a positive relationship with Affiliation and a negative relationship with Autonomy are predicted. Although promotion within an organization is a facet of relational employment goals (Millward & Hopkins, 1998;

Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1990), it is not fully warranted to assume positive relationships with Achievement or Dominance. That is to say, promotion within an organization may be seen as a sign of loyalty and a long-term relationship rather than an opportunity to wield personal power or gain achievement. Thus, no specific hypotheses are made for either the need for Dominance or the need for Achievement.

Transactional employment goals are primarily extrinsic, making it unlikely that transactional employment goals would exhibit a relationship with the needs for Achievement or Affiliation. While seemingly related to the need for Dominance because of the control over the working relationship one with transactional employment goals desires, the need for Dominance is concerned with social power within groups of individuals. However, it is expected that transactional employment goals will be positively related to the need for Autonomy, or the desire to be in control of work decisions.

Finally, the needs for Achievement and Autonomy seem to be particularly relevant to the new career orientation. Specifically, those with a new career orientation and personalized employment goals strive for psychological success and the development that comes from performing to one's potential on the job. Additionally, those with a new career orientation and personalized employment goals take charge of their own career development and act independently of the preferences for others, either within or outside of the organization, suggesting a need for autonomy. While the needs for Affiliation and Dominance may very well characterize some individuals with personalized employment

goals, they are not defining attributes according to theory surrounding the new career mentality.

H3a: Relational employment goal endorsement is hypothesized to be positively related to the need for Affiliation and negatively related to the need for Autonomy.

H3b: A positive relationship is predicted between transactional employment goals and the need for Autonomy.

H3c: Strong positive relationships are hypothesized between personalized employment goals and the needs for Achievement and Autonomy.

Locus of Control.

The locus of control construct originated in the work of Rotter (1966) some 35 years ago and has undergone several iterations since its inception. Most relevant to our discussion is the development of a work locus of control scale by Spector (1988).

Broadly, locus of control can be described as the generalized expectancy that outcomes in life result either from one's own actions or relatively stable characteristics (internal locus of control) or from forces beyond the individual's control such as luck, chance, or fate (external locus of control). Work locus of control, then, particularizes this definition to an occupational setting. Notably, this concept has recently gained attention in the job insecurity literature. Ashford, Lee, and Bobko (1989) define job insecurity as "powerlessness to maintain desired continuity in a threatened job situation" (p. 804) and demonstrate a negative relationship between locus of control and their job insecurity construct.

Because those with relational employment goals rely upon the organization to provide career planning and job security, they may perceive their employment within an organization, and ultimately their entire career path, as externally dictated. Conversely, those with transactional and personalized employment goals are likely to perceive full control over their careers and their security within that career.

H4a: Relational employment goals are associated with an external locus of control, as will be supported by a positive correlation.

H4b: Transactional employment goals are associated with an internal work locus of control rather than an external work locus of control, as will be supported by a negative correlation.

H4c: Personalized employment goals are associated with an internal work locus of control rather than an external work locus of control, as will be supported by a negative correlation.

Organizational commitment

Employment goals are hypothesized to be differentially related to each of the three components in Allen and Meyer's (1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997) model of organizational commitment. Relational employment goals are very similar and personalized employment goals are somewhat similar to the affective orientation toward organizations; those with an affective commitment are said to have a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization. As Meyer and Allen (1997) note, "employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so [emphasis in the original]" (p. 11). One would therefore predict positive

relationships between affective organizational commitment and both relational and personalized employment goals. Transactional employment goals, on the other hand, should be negatively related to affective commitment; it has been shown in past research that transactional psychological contracts are negatively related to affective organizational commitment (Millward & Hopkins, 1998).

Continuance commitment refers to the individual's attachment to the organization based upon the lack of available alternatives and high personal sacrifice. These are not reasons that those with relational and personalized employment goals remain with an organization. Rather, relational employment goals suggest that an individual stays with an organization because of loyalty, and personalized employment goals suggest psychological success and continuous skill development as inducements to remain. Negative relationships are hypothesized between both relational employment goals and personalized employment goals and continuance commitment. However, the lack of available alternatives and high personal sacrifice may be the only reasons that one with transactional employment goals remains in an organization. Because of its focus on the extrinsic outcomes of a particular position, transactional employment goals are predicted to be positively related to continuance commitment.

Finally, normative commitment refers to a felt obligation to remain within the organization. Relational employment goals will most likely produce these obligatory feelings, as relational employment goals are partly represented by preferences for a long-term employment relationship. A positive relationship is therefore hypothesized between relational employment goals and normative commitment. Those with transactional or personalized employment goals do not remain with the organization because of

obligation; rather, they do so because of extrinsic rewards or continued psychological success, respectively. Thus, a negative relationship is proposed between both transactional employment goals, personalized employment goals and normative commitment.

H5a: Relational employment goals will be positively related to affective and normative commitments and negatively related to continuance commitment.

H5b: Transactional employment goals will be negatively related to affective and normative commitments and positively related to continuance commitment.

H5c: Personalized employment goals will be positively related to affective commitment and negatively related to continuance and normative commitments.

Participation in Training and Skill Development

Participation in training and development can be viewed primarily as a means to achieve other outcomes (Goldstein, 1991). While mandatory training lends itself to intuitive outcomes such as increased job performance and avoidance of reprimand, voluntary training is more likely to be related to individual difference variables due to the relative weakness of the situation (cf. Mischel, 1977). Thus, voluntary training is considered here. Not surprisingly, in a study of voluntary training using the Theory of Reasoned Action, desires to attend training (i.e., intentions) have been shown to be the best predictors of training attendance; desires were best predicted by the positive beliefs about training outcomes such as learning new skills and improving job performance (Fishbein & Stasson, 1990).

Participation in voluntary training and development should be positively related to relational employment goals. Those with relational goals would likely participate in

activities offered by the organization as a show of loyalty and attachment. Also, McEnrue (1989) found that those who were affectively committed to their organizations participated in voluntary training as a means to promotion within the organization. Conversely, those with transactional employment goals would be less likely to participate in voluntary training. While some studies have shown that transactional contracts include perceived organizational obligations for training (Fogarty, 1997; Rousseau, 1990), this is most likely job-related training that allows one with transactional employment goals to perform to a standard that earns them a paycheck and other benefits. Accordingly, it is hypothesized that transactional employment goals are negatively related to voluntary training and development.

Because part of the definition of personalized employment goals is a desire for skill development, it is hypothesized that possession of such goals is related to participation in voluntary training and development activities. Participation in such activities not only contributes to the job performance that is indicative of psychological success but also helps to maintain the individual's employability, especially if the training enhances transferable skills. There is some support for this notion in the existing literature. Linking training directly to careers, Ellemers, de Gilder, and van den Heuvel (1998) found their measure of career-oriented commitment to be positively related to participation in professional training activity and Noe (1996) found career exploration behaviors to be related to willingness to participate in developmental activity. Finally, Facticeau, Dobbins, Russell, Ladd, & Kudisch (1992) found that individuals possessed a higher motivation to learn the training content if they had previously created a career strategy.

H6a: Relational employment goals will be positively related to number of hours spent in voluntary training.

H6b: Transactional employment goals will be negatively related to number of hours spent in voluntary training.

H6c: Personalized employment goals will be positively related to number of hours spent in voluntary training.

Additionally, it is expected that participation in different types of training to be differentially related to employment goals. London (1989) put forth three categories of development activity: job experience, interpersonal relationships, and courses or seminars. Baumann (2000) added a fourth category, general development efforts. While it is assumed that differential relationships will exist (cf. Mathieu & Martineau, 1997), no obvious basis for these relationships presents itself. For instance, relational employment goals may be more related to organizational developmental opportunities such as job experiences or meetings with a boss while personalized employment goals could be more related to broader developmental opportunities such as professional conferences or career expos. Another possibility is that personalized employment goals will be more related to those activities that require a large investment of time and energy, while those with transactional employment goals report participation in those activities with low personal costs. At any rate, this research question is worth investigation.

RQ: How are types of training and development participation differentially related to the three types of employment goals?

Management of Career Development

While some relationships can be hypothesized with relational and transactional employment goals, career self-management is a cornerstone of the new career mentality and personalized employment goals. The concept of career self-management has received little attention in the literature, but has been defined as participation in two main behaviors: developmental feedback seeking and job mobility preparedness (Kossek, Roberts, Fisher, & Demarr, 1988). Job mobility preparedness as defined by Kossek, Roberts, Fisher, and Demarr (1988) includes the concept of networking, which may also be a key behavior in career self-management because of the changes in the organizational landscape (Callanan & Greenhaus, 1999; DeFillippi and Arthur, 1994, 1996; Hirsch, 1987). In fact, Seibert, Kraimer, and Liden (2001) found contacts in other functions and those at higher levels in the organizations predicted both objective and subjective career success. Not only do network contacts provide information on the career options available, they may provide knowledge that helps the individual succeed on his or her present job. Many authors writing in the new career area discuss the careers as a repositories of knowledge and learning (Bird, 1994; Miner & Robinson, 1994); thus, the knowledge gained from external contacts seems relevant to career self-management.

Given the conceptualizations and operationalization of career self-management, some predictions are warranted. Relational employment goals include longevity with an organization as a component; thus, it is unlikely that individuals adopting these goals would be prepared for job mobility. To the extent that developmental feedback seeking puts the individual in contact with organization members, though, a positive relationship is expected with relational employment goals. Conversely, those with transactional goals would be prepared to change jobs, but unlikely to seek feedback for the purposes of

development. Indeed, they may perceive feedback as an obligation of the organization, failing to perceive a personal obligation to seek feedback. Thus, transactional employment goals are likely positively related to job mobility preparedness and negatively related to developmental feedback seeking. Finally, as a basis for the new career orientation, both components of career self-management are supposed to be positively related to personalized employment goals.

H7a: Relational employment goals will show a positive relationship with developmental feedback seeking and a negative relationship with job mobility preparedness.

H7b: Transactional employment goals will show a negative relationship with developmental feedback seeking and a positive relationship with job mobility preparedness.

H7c: Personalized employment goals will exhibit a positive relationship with both developmental feedback seeking and job mobility preparedness.

Summary

By reviewing the new career literature and examining the psychological contract in light of the emergent new career mentality, the author has attempted to show the shortcomings of existing variables to explain the relationship between organizations and individuals in new careers. As an extension of Shore and Tetrick's (1994) model of psychological contract development, a new category of "employment goals" is proposed: personalized employment goals. Upon its successful measurement, this construct will expand upon the psychological contract construct space while helping us to further explore the relationship between the new career mentality and traditional models of

individual behavior. Furthermore, it answers a call for research forwarded by Sullivan (1999) to examine how different employment relationships affect individual and organizational outcomes.

Clearly, new or revised variables are needed to encompass the experiences of those pursuing new careers. What is particularly intriguing is that it seems reasonable that those who adopt the new career mentality act similarly to those who do not, displaying high effort and participating in organizational citizenship behaviors, perhaps to justify the organization's investment in them (Baruch, 1998). Yet, in the words of Kelman (1958), "...the underlying processes in which an individual engages when he adopts induced behavior may be different, even though the resulting overt behavior may appear the same" (p. 53). Similarly, Kundi and Saleh (1993) argue that the consequences of any behavioral intention may be self-interest rather than interest in the organization's success, although the behaviors may foster organizational success indirectly. We do not yet know the underlying process of attachment for individuals pursuing personalized employment goals; however, the successful measurement of personalized employment goals would be a reasonable beginning to its investigation.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Overview

The development of a measure of employment goals occurred in four phases: item generation, Pilot Study, Study One, and Study Two. The item generation phase involved devising 25 items to measure each of the three employment goals (i.e., Relational, Transactional, and Personalized Employment Goals), assuring their conceptual cogency by subjecting them to multiple substantive analyses, and asking subject matter experts for suggestions to improve item clarity. The Pilot Study was executed to gauge the feasibility of item format and to initially narrow the number items.

Primarily, Study One provided further data to aid in the refinement of the scale and to assure reliable and valid measurement. Data was also collected to afford initial examinations of the nomological net surrounding the three types of employment goals. Study Two cross-validated the factor structure found in Study One and further examined the nomological net surrounding the constructs. Summarily, the methodology included properties of both the rational and empirical approaches in an attempt to minimize the shortcomings of each (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Item Generation and Initial Substantive Analysis

Based upon the existing literature, a total of 75 items were generated to reflect Relational, Transactional, and Personalized Employment Goals. This is the “deductive” approach suggested by Hinkin (1995), which is preferred for early stages of scale development. The Relational and Transactional Employment Goal items were based

upon commonly measured “obligations” in the psychological contract literature (Fogarty, 1997; Millward & Hopkins, 1998; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1990). Similar items were created for the Personalized Employment Goals subscale, drawing upon the rich theoretical base discussed in the previous chapter. Attention was given to delineating each of the three employment goals and avoiding redundancy with attachment variables.

Following their generation, the items were subjected to three substantive analyses, one of which is discussed here. The remaining substantive analyses were conducted after the Pilot Study and are discussed later in this chapter.

The first substantive analysis used four advanced Industrial/Organizational Psychology students as subject matter experts (SMEs). Specifically, SMEs were given definitions of each type of employment goal and then asked to sort the items into three categories based upon the definitions provided. Substantive validity was defined as 75% agreement; in other words, items were considered to be conceptually cogent if at least three of the four raters classified them into their intended category. Forty-nine items achieved this level of agreement before the SMEs discussed item meaning.

After the initial, independent rating process, the SMEs met with the author to discuss items that did not reach agreement. These 26 items were excluded and/or rewritten based on the input provided by the SMEs. Thus, a total of 75 items that had reached conceptual agreement either independently or after revisions in verbal consensus were used in the Pilot Study.

Pilot Study

The primary purpose of the Pilot Study was to gauge the feasibility of the item format and to initially narrow the number of items. Specifically, a coherent factor structure was desirable before the items were presented to organizational samples. Moreover, the unwieldy 75-item scale needed to be abridged to avoid fatigue factors in the lengthy questionnaires to be used in Studies One and Two.

Participants

Participants were students enrolled in a business career exploration course at a large, Southeastern university. As a measure of attendance in the course, they were asked to complete the measure described in the following section. Sophomores, juniors, and seniors participated, most between 19 and 23 years of age. Additionally, there were approximately equal numbers of men and women, and the majority of participants were white. All participants were treated in accordance with the APA Ethical Guidelines (American Psychological Association, 1992).

Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) recommend employing at least twice as many participants as items, not to be lower than 200. This minimizes the role of chance in determining estimates of internal consistency reliability. In this case, the number of items on the questionnaire used in the pilot was 75, necessitating a sample of at least 200. A sample of 286 was attained; however, 24 participants were eliminated due to low variance in their responses. Therefore, the final sample included 262 students. Under the conditions of the study, a sample size of 150 should be sufficient to obtain an accurate solution in exploratory factor analysis (Guadagnoli & Fava, 1988; Hinkin, 1995, Velicer & Fava, 1998). While this sample size preempted a confirmatory factor analysis on a

holdout sample, confirmatory analyses on the entire sample could be conducted due to a recommendation for a minimum sample size of 200 (Hinkin, 1995).

Procedure

Participants were given the questionnaire during regular class time. Attendance was taken every class period as part of the students' grades; on the day of data collection, participation in the study served as the students' attendance record. It was stressed, however, that participation was completely voluntary and that the student would receive full attendance credit provided they remained in the classroom throughout the duration of the class period. In accordance with APA guidelines, participants were asked to sign an informed consent and a short, written description of the purpose of their participation was available upon exit from the classroom.

Measure

Employment Goal Questionnaire. The entire pool of 75 items created to measure the three types of employment goals was administered. A seven-point Likert scale was used, anchored with the following points: "strongly disagree," "disagree," "slightly disagree," "neither agree nor disagree," "slightly agree", "agree," and "strongly agree." The questionnaire used in the pilot study appears in Appendix A.

Analyses

As recommended by several authors for new scales (Briggs & Cheek, 1986; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999; Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), the employment goals items were first subjected to an exploratory factor analysis using principal-axis factoring and oblique rotation (i.e., Direct Oblimin). The oblique rotation allows for the examination of the correlation between

factors. Provided the correlations are low, the factor analysis may be further subjected to an orthogonal rotation (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCollum, & Strahan, 1999) that maximizes the independence of the factors. Varimax is the preferred orthogonal rotation (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999; Finch & West, 1997; Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986).

Factors were retained on the basis of theoretical expectations (i.e., 3 factors), but eigenvalues greater than one and evidence gained from a scree plot were also examined. Both of the latter are recommended, as the eigenvalue retention rule generally seems to overestimate the number of viable factors (Briggs & Cheek, 1986; Comrey, 1978). Items were retained that loaded primarily on their intended factor. Coefficient alpha and item-total correlations were calculated on this final set of items. Findings from the pilot investigation are reported in Chapter 4. These conceptual findings are not useful, though, if the factors do not differentially relate to other variables of interest. To this end, Studies One and Two were conducted after subjecting the items to further substantive analyses.

Follow-Up Substantive Analyses

Before finalizing the reduced scale for use in Study One, two additional substantive analyses were performed. These analyses were conducted using Subject Matter Experts (SMEs) with a different perspective than graduate students. Namely, two groups of managers were solicited for participation in this portion of the scale's revision.

In the first substantive analysis, SMEs were given both names and definitions of each of the three categories of employment goals (i.e., Relational, Transactional, and Personalized Employment Goals), similar to the procedure used in the initial substantive analysis. Five subject matter experts participated, representing diverse industries and

functional areas. Specifically, an asset planner, a quality manager, and an engineer from a large supply-chain organization participated, as well as a sales manager for a technology firm and an independent communications consultant. Substantive validity was defined as 80% agreement; thus, four of five respondents sorted the item into its intended category in order for the item to be deemed substantially valid. In this analysis, 42 of the 45 items were sorted into their intended categories by 80% of the raters.

In the second substantive analysis, SMEs were given only the categories with which to sort the items. Because of the uniqueness of the task, the specific instructions used for this substantive analysis are presented in Appendix B. Twelve SMEs participated in this analysis, representing several industries and functional areas. Managers reported working in employee development and human resources, organizational development, marketing, logistics, and finance. Industries represented were automotive, chemical, and personal care product manufacturing, a large family restaurant chain, financial services, and a non-profit charitable organization.

In this analysis, substantive validity was defined as at 75%; nine of twelve respondents categorized the item into its intended category in order for an item to be considered substantially valid. Presumably because of the more complex task at hand, fewer items reached agreement in this analysis. Particularly, 33 of the 45 original items reached agreement under the constraints described in Appendix B.

The results of the Pilot Study (described in Chapter 4), and the two substantive analyses were then used to revise items one last time before conducting Study One. Five items were revised. These five items did not satisfy at least two of the following three criteria: simple-structure loadings above .40 on the pilot study factor analysis, agreement

in the first substantive analysis, and agreement in the second substantive analysis. In sum, then, the questionnaire used in study one had been revised and shortened based upon the results of three substantive analyses and a Pilot Study.

Study One

The primary purpose of this study was to further the scale's development. Specifically, the factor structure and reliability estimates in the pilot study were repeated and additional item selection occurred based upon item psychometric properties. These results were then cross-validated with confirmatory factor analysis. Secondly, initial examinations of the nomological net surrounding employment goals were also examined. Thus, hypotheses one through four were tested in this study.

Participants

Three distinct samples were secured primarily through researcher contacts, but also through the contacts of colleagues. Each sample is described separately in the following sections.

Sample 1. The first sample was a group of MBA students from a large, Southeastern university. Of 180 students solicited to participate, 50 returned completed, usable surveys (27.8% response rate). Ages of the participants ranged from 23 to 43, with an average age of 28.49 ($SD = 4.78$). This was significantly older than the average age of the entire MBA student population solicited for participation, which was 26.50 years ($t = 2.92, p < .01$). The majority of participants from this sample were male ($n = 36$) and white ($n = 40$), but these proportions did not differ from the sample solicited. Finally, the sample had an average of five years of full-time work experience ($M = 5.04$,

SD = 4.08). Again for this demographic variable, there were no statistically significant differences between sample and population statistics.

Sample 2. The second sample was solicited from a regional newspaper and its local subsidiaries in the Midwest. All employees from the organization were solicited for data; that is, employees in production, sales, and staff functions received surveys. A total of 347 surveys were distributed, with 107 surveys returned (30.8% response rate). Respondents ranged from age 20 to 74 (M = 40.99, SD = 11.06), and were significantly older on average than the population of employees surveyed (M = 38.31; t = 2.49, p < .01). Most were white (n = 92), and just over half were female (n = 62). Neither of these proportions differed significantly from those of the totality of individuals surveyed. Additionally, a small number of participants reported having attained a master's degree (n = 3); 36 had earned bachelor's degrees, 15 had earned associate's degrees, and the remainder of those reporting educational level had completed high school (n = 52).

The majority of participants in this sample were not in supervisory positions (n = 75); however, the remaining portion of the sample reported supervising between one and 23 people (M excluding non-supervisory responses = 5.67, SD = 5.11). Finally, the average organizational tenure reported was 10.67 years (SD = 10.93), and the average time participants had been in their present jobs was 6.31 years (SD = 7.82).

Sample 3. The third sample was solicited from a large family restaurant chain based in the Central United States. Employees at ten restaurants and at the corporate offices were solicited for data, a total of 500 employees. One hundred fifty eight employees responded (response rate = 31.6%). Again, employees were solicited from various functional areas: service, food preparation, management, and staff functions.

Respondents ranged from age 16 to 66 ($M = 36.48$, $SD = 12.20$), and were significantly older on average than the average employee surveyed ($M = 39.08$; $t = 2.45$, $p < .05$). Most were male ($n = 84$), and Caucasian ($n = 87$). A fair number of African Americans also responded ($n = 32$), while the rest of the participants noted other races. More Caucasians, fewer African Americans, and fewer Hispanics responded than would be expected based upon the proportion of each race in the entire sample surveyed ($\chi^2 = 17.92$, $df = 2$). Additionally, a large majority of respondents reported high school as the last level of education completed ($n = 102$), while others reported having earned Associate's degrees ($n = 15$), Bachelor's ($n = 8$) and Master's ($n = 3$) degrees. The average organizational tenure reported was 9.32 years ($SD = 9.02$) and was not statistically significantly different from the entire group solicited for data, and the average time participants had been in their present jobs was 6.25 years ($SD = 6.23$).

Full Sample. In total, 1027 participants were solicited for data; 307 responded (overall response rate = 29.9%). Usable data was obtained for 302 of 307 respondents (functional response rate = 29.4%). Ages of the participants ranged from 16 to 74, with an average age of 36.78 ($SD = 11.63$ years). Slightly over half of the participants were male ($n = 164$, 53.4%) and most were Caucasian ($n = 219$, 71.3%), although a fair number of African Americans ($n = 41$, 13.4%) also responded. The rest of the sample was Asian ($n = 13$, 4.2%), Hispanic ($n = 7$, 2.3%), or "other" ($n = 9$, 2.9%), with the remainder of participants not reporting race. The largest part of the sample reported having earned a high school diploma ($n = 154$, 50.2%) or bachelor's degree ($n = 68$, 22.1%); smaller numbers reported holding Associate's degrees ($n = 30$, 9.8%), Master's degrees ($n = 30$, 9.8%), or Doctoral degrees ($n = 2$, 0.7%). For participants in the two

organizational samples only, average organizational tenure was 9.95 years (SD = 9.92 years); average job tenure was 6.30 years (SD = 7.03 years).

A scale development sample of 200 was used, with a holdout sample of 102. The entire sample was used in confirmatory analyses and hypothesis tests. For the hypothesis tests, the sample of 307 provides acceptable power. For a moderately small correlation (i.e., .224 and .316 as established by Cohen, 1977) a power coefficient of over 90% to 100% is obtained with this sample (Borenstein, Rothstein, & Cohen, 1997).

Procedure

Although very similar, three slightly different procedures were used for each of the three samples. Slight variations in procedure were made in order to tailor the procedure to the organization to ensure the utmost efficiency and the highest response rate. The procedure for each respective sample is described below.

Sample 1. MBA students were initially made aware of the study by an email sent from the Dean of the MBA program. Survey packets were then placed in individual student folders in a lounge reserved for MBA students. These packets included the survey that appears in Appendix C, a cover letter from the researcher, and a return envelope. Within the survey, it was stressed that participation was completely voluntary, and that the data analysis would be conducted by an individual completely independent from the MBA Program faculty, staff, and administration. Students were also assured that data reported to the MBA Program would only be in group format; at no time would individual responses be divulged.

Participants were given two weeks to return the survey, and they were asked to do so by hand-delivering the survey to the researcher, using the campus mail service, or

using U. S. Mail via a self-addressed stamped envelope included with the materials. A follow-up postcard was sent to each of the 180 MBA students ten days following the initial delivery. This postcard thanked the participants who had returned surveys and reminded others of the return deadline.

Members of this sample were offered an inducement for participating. Two \$100 cash prizes were given to winners of a raffle available to participants only. Raffle forms were included in the initial survey packet and returned in the envelope with the survey. Raffle forms were separated from the surveys as soon as they were received; thus, data was kept completely confidential.

Sample 2. For the newspaper sample, it was determined that an internal distribution of the surveys would provide the highest response rate. Employees in this sample were initially made aware of the study in a company newsletter and by email from the HR Manager. Survey packets were distributed to each of the employees at the newspaper location and its local subsidiaries. These packets included the survey, a return envelope with an attached internal mail address label, and raffle information described later in this section.

A similar survey to that in Appendix C was used. In addition to the items utilized for this study's purposes, though, HR staff at the newspaper requested that two pages of items be added to be analyzed solely for their strategy and planning purposes. These items dealt with retention, employee development, and intent to turnover. Those questions included particularly for these purposes were noted within the survey, and participants were informed that the primary study and all of the data analyses were being conducted independently from the newspaper. It was stressed that participation was

completely voluntary, and that group data would be reported to the HR staff for strategy and planning purposes.

Participants were again given two weeks to return the survey, and they were asked to do so by hand-delivering the survey to the newspaper's HR contact or using the company's internal mail service. A follow-up postcard was provided to the HR contact to distribute on the survey's due date. This postcard thanked the participants who had returned surveys and reminded others of the return deadline.

Again, an opportunity to win cash in a raffle was offered for participating. Five \$100 cash prizes were given to those whose names were drawn. Raffle forms were included in the initial survey packet, and employees were instructed to place their completed raffle form inside a security envelope that was provided. The raffle envelopes were then returned in the larger envelope with the survey. Because the raffle forms included identifying information, they were kept inside the unopened security envelopes until they arrived at the University of Tennessee. Raffle form envelopes and surveys arrived to the researcher separately; thus, data was kept confidential.

Sample 3. In the restaurant sample, 10 restaurants, one in each region, were targeted for data collection. Moreover, members of the corporate office and the centralized commissary were solicited. Employees in this sample were made aware of the study by way of an internal memo, as well as through regional manager communications with the restaurants. Again, the survey process was managed internally. Surveys were sent to each of the restaurant locations and internal HR staff managed the process. A return envelope with an address label was provided such that employees could use the internal mail system or U. S. Mail for survey return.

A similar survey to that in Appendix C was used. As with the newspaper sample, HR staff requested that additional items be added to gauge employee satisfaction and commitment. Within the survey, it was noted that the questionnaire had this mixed purpose, but that analyses would not be conducted at the restaurant's corporate headquarters. It was stressed that participation was completely voluntary and that only group data would be reported to the corporate HR staff.

Participants were given two weeks to return the survey, and they were asked to do so by using the company's internal mail service. As with the other samples, a follow-up postcard was provided to the HR contact to distribute on the survey's due date.

A raffle was not used in this study for two reasons. First, the organization, though public, maintains a private, family-owned culture. It was believed that response rate would be high regardless of the inducement provided. Secondly, the organization surveys employees periodically and management preferred to avoid the precedent that extrinsic reward accompanied survey participation.

Measures

Employment Goal Questionnaire. The 45 items selected following the Pilot Study were scheduled to be administered. However, due to an administrative error, only 44 unique items were included on the survey; 15 items each for relational and transactional goals, but only 14 items for personalized employment goals. A seven-point Likert scale was used, anchored with the following points: "Strongly disagree," "Disagree," "Slightly disagree," "Neither agree nor disagree," "Slightly agree", "Agree," and "Strongly agree." Scale scores were calculated following initial analyses described below. The 44 items used appear in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1

Employment Goals Questionnaire

Dimension	Items
Relational	I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it rewards my loyalty. (2)
	To me, working in an organization is like being a member of a family. (5)
	I fully expect to give my loyalty to the organization with which I work. (7)
	Job security is more important than most people think. (12)
	I measure my career success by my tenure in the organization. (13)
	I am the most satisfied when I do something that accomplishes an organization's goals. (17)
	I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for belonging. (19)
	I am willing to contribute 100% to an organization in return for promises of future employment. (22)
	I want a long-term future in one particular organization. (25)
	I owe it to my employer to stay as long as possible. (28)
	I would like to stay with only one or two organizations until I retire. (31)
	People should use the word "loyalty" to describe their relationships with organizations. (34)
	If it helped the organization, I would do otherwise undesirable things that were not required by my job. (36)
	It is important to me that my supervisor treats me like family. (38)
	I hope to gain promotions within a company the longer my tenure with the company. (41)

Table 3-1. Continued.

Dimension	Items
Transactional	<p>I work for the money. (1)</p> <p>Unless spelled out in a contract, I wouldn't make promises to my employer. (6)</p> <p>I work to achieve the purely short term goals of my job. (8)</p> <p>I am hesitant to do too many things not required by my job description. (10)</p> <p>I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours. (15)</p> <p>The quality of pay and benefits I receive is more important than the work I do. (18)</p> <p>I would prefer to spend my free time doing things wholly unrelated to work and my career. (20)</p> <p>My primary expectation is a fair day's pay for a fair day's work. (23)</p> <p>Financial security is more important than job security. (26)</p> <p>As long as I reach the standards specified in my job, I am satisfied with my work. (27)</p> <p>Training that is of the most value to me is that which helps me earn my paycheck. (30)</p> <p>I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it pays me for work that is up to a predefined standard. (33)</p> <p>It is important not to get too involved in non-compensated work activities. (39)</p> <p>It is not worth it to attend training that doesn't directly help me on my job. (40)</p> <p>A job is just an agreement one has with their employer to provide work for money and benefits. (45)</p>

Table 3-1. Continued.

Dimension	Items
Personalized	I prefer not to consider how long my relationship with an organization will be until I consider growth opportunities. (3)
	When I am no longer learning new skills, I am likely to change jobs. (4)
	It is solely my responsibility to seek out career opportunities and generate career plans. (9)
	In return for the use of my skills, an organization owes me training in areas that are of use to other organizations. (11)
	I am not satisfied with my work unless it is up to my full potential. (14)
	I am loyal to the idea of achieving my own personal success. (16)
	I expect to receive training in an organization that I can transfer to new jobs or organizations. (21)
	An organization should be viewed as a stepping stone in one's career development. (24)
	I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it provides challenging job opportunities. (29)
	The only real job security is to ensure that one always has marketable skills. (32)
	If doing so developed my own skills, I would do things for the organization that are not required by my job. (35)
	I am willing to contribute 100% to this organization in return for challenging work. (37)
	As my personal career goals change, I will change jobs and/or organizations. (42)
	I like the idea of skill-based pay rather than longevity based pay. (44)

Note. Numbers in parentheses are study one item numbers.

Demographics. Age, race, and gender information were collected from each of the participants. Age was assessed by asking, “What is your age?” and gender by asking, “What is your gender (M/F)?” Race data were collected by asking individuals to respond to a multiple-choice item of race or ethnicity. Furthermore, for organizational samples, information on tenure with the organization (i.e., “Tenure with the organization in years and months”), tenure in current job (i.e., “Tenure in the current job in years and months”), and years of education (i.e., “Level of education completed”) were collected. For the student sample, the years of full-time work experience was assessed.

Social Desirability. Social Desirability was assessed with Ballard’s (1992) thirteen-item, true/false measure of social desirability. Originally, Crowne and Marlowe (1964) created a 33-item measure of this construct, but several researchers devised shortened versions of the scale (cf., Greenwald & Satow, 1970; Reynolds, 1982; Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). Reviews of the shortened versions not only support their use as alternative measures, but note that the shortened versions are significant improvements in terms of factor structure and other psychometric properties (Fischer & Ficke, 1993; Loo & Thorpe, 2000). Ballard’s (1992) scale is comprised of thirteen items that were isolated in at least two of three studies creating short forms from principal components analyses. Each of the thirteen items in this scale has been shown to key in a manner consistent with the original direction intended (Ballard, Crino, & Rubenfeld, 1988). Reported reliability estimates for this scale range .51 - .70 (Ballard, 1992; Loo & Thorpe, 2000), but it should be noted that some of the reliability estimates are attenuated due to the use of coefficient alpha rather than KR-20 analyses. In this study, the KR-20 reliability estimate was .76. Items for this scale appear in Table 3-2.

Table 3-2

Social Desirability Scale

Items
1. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way. (R)
2. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability. (R)
3. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right. (R)
4. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.
5. I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something. (R)
6. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. (R)
7. I'm always willing to admit when I've made a mistake.
8. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. (R)
9. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.
10. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.
11. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others. (R)
12. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me. (R)
13. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.

Note. (R) = Reverse scored. From "Short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne social desirability scale," by Rebecca Ballard, 1992, Psychological Reports, 71, p. 115-116.

Big Five Personality. The five personality dimensions of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Openness to New Experience, and Neuroticism were measured with items from Goldberg's (1999) International Personality Item Pool (IPIP). There are 10 items for each dimension, each describing typical behaviors of others. The participant responds to the accuracy of each statement for him or herself using a five-point Likert scale (i.e., "Very inaccurate," "Moderately inaccurate," "Neither inaccurate nor accurate," "Moderately accurate," "Very accurate").

The items for each scale have been selected from a compendium of personality items with the goal of closely replicating proprietary instruments used to measure the Big Five. In fact, the IPIP items correlate highly with the NEO dimensions of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience (i.e., .82, .77, .79, .70, .79, respectively). Furthermore, the scales have been shown to have reasonable internal consistency reliability estimates (i.e., .86, .86, .82, .77, .81). In this study, coefficient alpha reliability estimates were .86 for extraversion, .77 for Agreeableness, .75 for Conscientiousness, .83 for Emotional Stability, and .74 for Intellect. Scale scores are computed by averaging responses to the items for each dimension. Items from these scales appear in Table 3-3.

Manifest Needs. Steers and Braunstein (1976) created a measure of manifest needs called the Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ) that assesses four needs proposed to be specifically salient to work settings. This measure focuses on behavior exhibited at work that corresponds to the needs of Achievement, Affiliation, Autonomy, and Dominance.

Table 3-3

Big Five Personality Questionnaire

Dimension	Items
Extraversion	<p>Feel comfortable around people.</p> <p>Make friends easily.</p> <p>Am skilled in handling social situations.</p> <p>Am the life of the party.</p> <p>Know how to captivate people.</p> <p>Have little to say. (R)</p> <p>Keep in the background. (R)</p> <p>Would describe my experiences as somewhat dull. (R)</p> <p>Don't like to draw attention to myself. (R)</p> <p>Don't talk a lot. (R)</p>
Agreeableness	<p>Have a good word for everyone.</p> <p>Believe that others have good intentions.</p> <p>Respect others.</p> <p>Accept people as they are.</p> <p>Make people feel at ease.</p> <p>Have a sharp tongue. (R)</p> <p>Cut others to pieces. (R)</p> <p>Suspect hidden motives in others. (R)</p> <p>Get back at others. (R)</p> <p>Insult people. (R)</p>

Table 3-3. Continued.

Dimension	Items
Conscientiousness	<p>Am always prepared.</p> <p>Pay attention to details.</p> <p>Get chores done right away.</p> <p>Carry out my plans.</p> <p>Make plans and stick to them.</p> <p>Waste my time. (R)</p> <p>Find it difficult to get down to work. (R)</p> <p>Do just enough work to get by. (R)</p> <p>Don't see things through. (R)</p> <p>Shirk my duties. (R)</p>
Openness to New Experience	<p>Believe in the importance of art.</p> <p>Have a vivid imagination.</p> <p>Tend to vote for liberal political candidates.</p> <p>Carry the conversation to a higher level.</p> <p>Enjoy hearing new ideas.</p> <p>Am not interested in abstract ideas. (R)</p> <p>Do not like art. (R)</p> <p>Avoid philosophical discussions. (R)</p> <p>Do not enjoy going to art museums. (R)</p>

Table 3-3. Continued.

Dimension	Items
Neuroticism	<p>Tend to vote for conservative political candidates.</p> <p>Dislike myself.</p> <p>Am often down in the dumps.</p> <p>Have frequent mood swings.</p> <p>Panic easily.</p> <p>Seldom feel blue. (R)</p> <p>Feel comfortable with myself. (R)</p> <p>Rarely get irritated. (R)</p> <p>Am not easily bothered by things. (R)</p> <p>Am very pleased with myself. (R)</p>

Note. (R) = Reverse scored. From “A broad-bandwidth, public-domain, personality inventory measuring the lower-level facets of several five-factor models,” by L. R. Goldberg, 1999. In I. Mervielde, I. J. Deary, F. De Fruyt, & F. Ostendorf (Eds.), Personality Psychology in Europe, Vol. 7. Tilburg, The Netherlands: Tilburg University Press, pp. 7-28.

However, Steers and Braunstein's (1976) measure is fraught with psychometric problems. Specifically, reliabilities are low and negative in some cases, and the factor structure is not reliable (Blackburn, 1981; Dreher & Mai-Dalton, 1983; Joiner, 1982; Konovsky, Dalton, & Todor, 1986; Williams & Woodard, 1980). Accordingly, though it is desirable to measure manifest needs through a measure designed to assess behavior expressly in work settings, a different measure of these four needs was chosen.

The four individual manifest need strengths (i.e., Achievement, Affiliation, Autonomy, and Dominance) were assessed with the Personality Research Form E (PRF; Jackson, 1999). This instrument was actually the genesis for the MNQ; the MNQ items were written to reflect behaviors one would be likely to engage in at work if he or she had a high level of a particular need. However, direct comparisons of the MNQ and the PRF have endorsed the PRF (Mayes & Ganster, 1983). Additionally, it is a more broadly relevant instrument; results are expected to be applicable to a variety of settings such as colleges, clinics and guidance centers, and in business and industry.

The PRF scale contains 64 items, sixteen items for each of the four needs measured, and uses a true/false response scale. Scale scores are created by summing responses keyed in the positive direction. Reliability estimates for this form range from .72 - .73 for Achievement, .76 - .81 for Affiliation, .69 - .78 for Autonomy, and .85 - .86 for Dominance. Split-half and test-retest reliability estimates were also acceptable, ranging from .77 - .92 and .87 - .93, respectively. Items were used with permission from Sigma Assessment Systems, P.O. Box 610984, Port Huron, MI 48061-0984. A research licensing agreement precludes the reproduction of the items in this dissertation.

Although this measure was specifically chosen to overcome reliability problems with the MNQ, the PRF did not reach acceptable reliability estimates in this study for two of the four scales. Particularly, the Need for Achievement and the Need for Autonomy scales both obtained reliability estimates of .67. The Need for Affiliation and Need for Dominance scales were acceptably reliable, with coefficient alphas of .79 and .85, respectively.

Locus of Control. Work Locus of Control (Spector, 1988) was measured with 16 items on a six-point Likert response scale (i.e., “Disagree very much,” “Disagree moderately,” “Disagree slightly,” “Agree slightly,” “Agree moderately,” and “Agree very much”). A scale score is created by summing responses to items; lower scores represent internality. Previously reported coefficient alpha reliabilities range between .75 and .85. In this study, coefficient alpha was .82. Items included in this scale appear in Table 3-4.

Analyses

As an initial step, the sample was split into a scale construction sample and a holdout sample. In the interest of scale construction, items from the Employment Goal Questionnaire were subjected to a series of exploratory factor analyses. Items were retained based upon appropriate factor loadings. Coefficient alpha was then calculated using the holdout sample. Finally, a confirmatory factor analysis was also conducted on the revised scale using the entire usable sample of 302 participants.

Following this scale development work, unit-weighted scale scores were used for subsequent analyses. To show that the resultant measures of employment goals differentially relate to other variables of interest, bivariate correlations between the three employment goal subscale scores, Big Five personality dimensions, manifest needs, and

Table 3-4

Work Locus of Control Scale

Items
1. A job is what you make of it (R)
2. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish. (R)
3. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you. (R)
4. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it. (R)
5. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.
6. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune.
7. Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort. (R)
8. In order to get a really good job you need to have family or friends in high places.
9. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.
10. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know.
11. Promotions are given to employees that perform well on the job. (R)
12. To make a lot of money you have to know the right people.
13. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.
14. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it. (R)
15. Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do. (R)
16. The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.

Note. (R) = Reverse scored. From "Development of the work locus of control scale," by

P. E. Spector, 1988, Journal of Occupational Psychology, 61, p. 340.

locus of control were then be examined. The entire sample was used to test hypotheses two through four. Hinkin (1995) citing Campbell (1976) proposes that it is inappropriate to use the same sample for both scale development and construct validity (also see Cureton, 1950).

It should be noted that common method variance is a possibility in this study by virtue of the fact that all data was collected from the participants in one questionnaire. As this study examines the relationship of employment goals to personal attributes, multiple source data was not appropriate. However, as noted in chapter two, only certain employment goals are hypothesized to relate to certain subscales of the Big Five and the Manifest Needs Questionnaires, and the employment goals are hypothesized to relate differentially to Work Locus of Control. The presence of these differential, and sometimes opposite relationships with each of the three types of employment goals does not support the presence of common method variance. Furthermore, multiple source data was to be collected in Study Two.

Study Two

In this study, further scale development work was conducted upon the Personalized Employment Goals subscale. Additionally, each of the Employment Goal Questionnaire subscales was validated against work attachment and behavioral measures. Behavioral validation is considered the most compelling by Briggs and Cheek (1986), providing further evidence as to the viability of the measure of employment goals.

Participants

Three distinct samples were used in this study. They were attained through researcher contacts. Each distinct sample is described separately in the following sections. The descriptive statistics associated with the entire sample are also included.

Sample 1. The first sample was a group of Executive and Professional MBA students from a large, Southeastern university. Of 54 students solicited to participate in the study, 15 returned completed, usable surveys (27.8% response rate). Ages of the participants ranged from 28 to 50, with an average age of 36.73. This did not differ from the average age of the entire sample solicited. The majority of participants from this sample were male ($n = 12$) and white ($n = 14$), but again, these proportions did not differ from the sample solicited. All of the participants in this sample had completed a Bachelor's degree, as they were enrolled in an MBA program. Two participants reported having completed a Master's degree, presumably in a field other than business administration.

The average organizational tenure reported was 6.72 years ($SD = 5.84$), and the average time participants had been in their present jobs was 2.15 years ($SD = 1.50$). Most were in supervisory positions ($n = 11$), reporting between three and 165 subordinates (M excluding non-supervisory responses = 35.36, $SD = 50.53$).

As described below in the procedures segment, the participants were also asked to deliver a survey to an "other" rater (referred to in this document as a second-source rating). In this sample, twelve second-source ratings were collected (85.7% response rate). Of the twelve, five were supervisors, six were coworkers, and one reported some other relationship.

Sample 2. The second sample was solicited from a large southeastern utility company. Professional employees that had attended an organizationally-sponsored employee orientation session within the past two years were solicited for data ($N = 129$); 33 participants returned usable questionnaires (25.5% response rate). Respondents, although similarly tenured with the organization, represented a broad array of functional areas and occupations, including accounting, marketing, and engineering.

Respondents ranged in age from 21 to 52 ($M = 34.19$, $SD = 10.71$). Most were white ($n = 30$), and male ($n = 26$). None of these sample statistics differed significantly from that of the entire group of employees surveyed. The majority of participants had degrees beyond high school. Six reported having earned a Master's degree, while 14 had earned Bachelor's degrees. The remainder reported having either high school diplomas ($n = 9$) or Associate's degrees ($n = 3$).

The majority of participants in this sample were not in supervisory positions ($n = 28$); however, the remaining portion of the sample reported supervising between one and eight people (M excluding non-supervisory responses = 3.25, $SD = 3.30$). Finally, the average organizational tenure reported was 2.63 years ($SD = 4.28$), and the average time participants had been in their present jobs was approximately 11.5 months ($M = 0.96$; $SD = 1.05$). The former statistic did significantly differ from that of the entire group of employees surveyed; average organizational tenure among the whole group was 6.12 years ($t = -4.61$, $p < 0.01$).

Ten second-source ratings were collected in this sample (response rate = 30.3%). Of the ten, six of the respondents reported a supervisory relationship to the participant, three reported a mentoring role, and one reported some other relationship.

Sample 3. The third sample was solicited from a large industrial services conglomerate based in the Southeastern United States. The corporation subsumes three organizations – a large food products distributor, a cleaning products distributor, and a small research and development laboratory. All employees from the corporation were solicited for data; that is, employees in production, sales, and staff functions received surveys in each of the three organizations. A total of 1083 employees were surveyed; 263 responded (response rate = 24.3%).

Respondents ranged from age 20 to 69 ($M = 39.92$, $SD = 10.24$). This was significantly older than the entire sample's average age of 37.48 ($t = 3.54$, $p < 0.01$). Most were male ($n = 180$), and Caucasian ($n = 217$), but these proportions were representative of those in the entire sample. Additionally, a large majority of respondents reported high school as the last level of education completed ($n = 141$), while others reported having earned Associate's degrees ($n = 32$), Bachelor's ($n = 53$) and Master's ($n = 8$) degrees.

The majority of participants in this sample reported not holding supervisory positions ($n = 166$); however, the portion of the sample having direct reports supervised between 1 and 70 people (M excluding non-supervisory responses = 7.45, $SD = 10.40$). The average organizational tenure reported was 6.53 years ($SD = 7.97$) and the average time participants had been in their present jobs was 4.87 years ($SD = 6.02$).

Second-source ratings in this sample numbered 113 (response rate = 43.1%). Of the 113, 38 of the respondents reported a supervisory relationship to the participant, 48 reported being a coworker to the respondent, two reported a mentoring role, and 25 reported some other relationship.

Full Sample. In total, 1266 participants were solicited for data; 311 responded (overall response rate = 24.6%). Usable data was obtained for 310 of 311 respondents; thus, the functional response rate was virtually unchanged. Ages of the participants ranged from 20 to 69, with an average age of 39.06 (SD = 10.32 years). Most of the participants that reported gender and race were male (n = 218, 77.9%) and Caucasian (n = 261, 92.6%). The remainder of the sample was African American (n = 4, 1.4%), Hispanic (n = 8, 2.8%), or “other” (n = 9, 3.2%), with the remainder of participants not reporting race. The largest part of the sample reported having earned a high school diploma (n = 150, 53.4%) or Bachelor’s degree (n = 80, 28.5%); smaller numbers reported holding Associate’s degrees (n = 35, 12.5%) or Master’s degrees (n = 16, 5.7%). Average organizational tenure was 6.07 years (SD = 7.60 years); average job tenure was 4.23 years (SD = 5.64 years).

For the Personalized Employment Goals subscale, a scale development sample of 203 was used, with a holdout sample of 107. The entire sample was used in confirmatory analyses and hypothesis tests. For the hypothesis tests, the sample of 310 provides acceptable power. For a moderately small correlation (i.e., .224 and .316 as established by Cohen, 1977) a power coefficient of over 90% to 100% is obtained with this sample (Borenstein, Rothstein, & Cohen, 1997).

Procedure

Although very similar, three slightly different procedures were used for each of the three samples. Slight variations in procedure were made in order to tailor the procedure to the organization and to ensure the utmost efficiency and the highest response rate. The procedure for each respective sample is described below.

Sample 1. Survey packets were mailed to current students in each of two MBA programs (i.e., Professional and Executive) at a large, southeastern university. These packets included the survey that appears in Appendix D, a cover letter from the researcher, and a return envelope. Within the survey, it was stressed that participation was completely voluntary. Students were also assured that data reported to the MBA Program Directors would only be in group format; at no time would individual responses be divulged.

A second, sealed envelope containing a survey to be completed by another individual was also included in the packet described above. This second survey was incorporated to collect behavioral data from another source, in particular, an individual who was familiar with the participant's training and career development activity. The participant was to place his or her name on the outside of the envelope and give it to a supervisor, co-worker, or mentor to complete. This supervisor, co-worker, or mentor was then asked, in writing, to complete the survey appearing in Appendix E. Their responses were returned separately using another self-addressed envelope included with the materials. Upon arrival to the researcher, each survey was associated with that of the participant by a matching code number.

Participants were given two weeks to return the survey, and they were asked to do so by delivering the survey via U. S. Mail using a self-addressed stamped envelope included with the materials. A follow-up postcard was sent to each of the 52 students two weeks following the initial survey delivery. This postcard thanked the participants who had returned surveys and reminded others of the return deadline.

Members of this sample were offered an inducement for participating. One \$100 cash prize was given to the winner of a raffle available to participants only. Raffle forms were included in the initial survey packet and returned in the envelope with the survey. Raffle forms were separated from the surveys as soon as they were received; thus, data was kept completely confidential.

Sample 2. For the utility sample, it was determined that an electronic distribution of the surveys would provide the highest response rate. Employees in this sample had recently completed a new professional employee orientation session and were made aware of the study through email. Specifically, orientation session trainers sent a message describing the purpose and procedures involved in the study. An electronic version of the survey was attached to this initial email. An internal contact in the company's Organizational Development Department monitored the entirety of the electronic distribution.

A similar survey to that in Appendix D was used. It was stressed that participation was completely voluntary, and that group data would be reported to the HR and OD staffs for strategy and planning purposes. Participants were again given two weeks to return the survey, and they were asked to do so by attaching the document to an email sent directly to the researcher. A follow-up email was sent by the internal contact to all employees approximately 10 days following the initial message. This email thanked the participants who had returned surveys and reminded others of the return deadline.

In order to collect observational data from a secondary source, each participant was asked to provide the name and email address of a supervisor, co-worker, or mentor

who was familiar with his or her developmental activity. An email was then sent directly to this individual requesting his or her participation. The supervisor, co-worker, or mentor then completed an electronic version of the survey appearing in Appendix E. Their responses were returned via email attachment to the researcher. Upon arrival to the researcher, the two surveys were matched by name, and then assigned matching code numbers. All emails with identifying information were destroyed once the surveys were matched; thus, data were kept completely confidential.

Due to policy issues internal to the organization, inducements such as raffles were not allowed, and other forms of inducement were difficult as the survey was conducted electronically. Every attempt was made to maximize response rate in this sample without using inducements; the ease of the electronic format was considered to be a key factor in response rate with this particular group of participants.

Sample 3. In the corporate sample described above, employees were made aware of the study by way of an internal memo included with their paychecks before the survey was distributed. Surveys were distributed two weeks later with the next scheduled paycheck, along with a second internal memo from the president of their respective organization. A return envelope with an address label was provided such that employees could use the U. S. Mail for survey return.

A similar survey to that in Appendix E was used. As with the newspaper sample in Study One, HR staff requested that additional items be added to the survey to gauge employee satisfaction in tandem with an HR audit being conducted throughout the organization. Open-ended comments were also collected. Within the survey, it was noted that the questionnaire had this mixed purpose, but that analyses would not be

conducted at the corporate headquarters. It was stressed that participation was completely voluntary and that only group data would be reported to the corporate HR staff.

A second, sealed envelope containing a survey to be completed by another individual was also included in the packet. This second survey was included to collect behavioral data from another source, in particular, an individual who was familiar with the participant's training and career development activity. The participant was to place his or her name on the outside of the envelope and give it to a supervisor, co-worker, or mentor to complete. This supervisor, co-worker, or mentor then completed the survey appearing in Appendix E. Their responses were returned separately using a self-addressed envelope included with the materials. Upon arrival to the researcher, each survey was associated with that of the participant by a matching code number.

Participants were given two weeks to return the survey, and they were asked to do so by delivering the survey via U. S. Mail using a self-addressed stamped envelope included with the materials. In lieu of a raffle, the corporation requested that the researcher sponsor organization-wide picnics to reward employees for their participation in this survey and other organizational audit activities. Thus, the communication and distribution of inducements was handled by the organization.

Measures

Participants completed the revised form of the Employment Goal Questionnaire and the Demographics described in Study One. They also completed several other scales included in the survey, as described below. Moreover, a supervisor, coworker, or mentor selected by the employee completed the career self-management subscales and reported

on the relative amount of developmental training the participant had completed within the past year.

Organizational Commitment. Three facets of organizational commitment (i.e., affective, continuance, and normative) were assessed with Allen and Meyer's (1990) measure. Each of the facets is measured with eight items, using a seven-point Likert scale. Scale scores are created by averaging the responses to each item per scale. Reported coefficient alpha reliabilities were .87 for the affective commitment scale, .75 for the continuance commitment scale, and .79 for normative commitment. In this study, reliability estimates were .86, .72, and .75, respectively.

Other studies have also found the scale to be reliable; however, the continuance commitment scale has been found to be two- rather than one-dimensional (Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda, 1994; McGee & Ford, 1987). In this study, the two-factor model fit the continuance commitment items slightly, although not conclusively better than a one-factor model. The associated confirmatory factor analysis results are reported in Appendix F, and Hypothesis 5 results are reported for the one- and two-factor models for this dimension. Items included on this scale appear in Table 3-5.

Participation in Training and Development. Participation in training was measured in two ways. First, a single-item, "Estimate the average number of hours spent per year on training and development activities," was asked. Secondly, participation in specific developmental activities was assessed via a frequency scale (i.e., the number of times the activity was undertaken in the past 24 months) created by Baumann (2000). Grouped into four categories (i.e., classes or seminars, interpersonal relations, job experiences, and general developmental efforts), this scale offers a more detailed

Table 3-5

Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scales

Dimension	Items
Affective	<p>I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.</p> <p>I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.</p> <p>I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.</p> <p>I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)</p> <p>I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)</p> <p>I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)</p> <p>This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.</p> <p>I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)</p>
Continuance (Personal Sacrifice)	<p>It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.</p> <p>Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.</p> <p>It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. (R)</p> <p>One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.</p>
Continuance (Lack of Alternatives)	<p>I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (R)</p> <p>Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.</p> <p>I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization. One of the few serious consequences of this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.</p>

Table 3-5. Continued.

Dimension	Items
Normative	<p>I think that people these days move from company to company too often.</p> <p>I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. (R)</p> <p>Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. (R)</p> <p>One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.</p> <p>If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.</p> <p>I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.</p> <p>Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.</p> <p>I do not think that wanting to be a “company man” or “company woman” is sensible anymore. (R)</p>

Note. (R) = Reverse scored. From “The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization,” by N. J. Allen and J. P. Meyer, 1990, Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63, p. 6-7.

description of the types of training activities undertaken. Behaviors in this scale appear in Table 3-6. Second-source ratings of the amount of training and participation undertaken were also collected for each target.

Career Self-Management. Kossek, Roberts, Fisher, and Demarr, (1988) define career self-management as participation in two main behaviors: developmental feedback seeking and job mobility preparedness. Two frequency scales measure these behaviors, with six items and eight items, respectively. The five-point response scale assesses the extent to which the individual has participated in the behavior during the last six months (i.e., “Not at all” to “A great deal”). A third, single-item measure assessing the currency of one’s resume was also included. For this item, a five-point frequency scale was used (i.e., “Very dated” to “Very Current”). Developmental reliabilities were acceptable for the two multi-item scales (i.e., .76 and .84, respectively). Reliabilities in this study also surpassed the .70 standard for reliability estimates (i.e., .87 and .78, respectively). Items from these scales appear in Table 3-7. Second-source ratings of the items in this scale were also collected for each target.

Analyses

For the further refinement of the Personalized Employment Goals subscale, the sample was initially split into a scale construction sample of 203 and a holdout sample of 107. In the interest of scale construction, items from the subscales were subjected to a series of exploratory factor analyses. Items were retained based primarily upon appropriate factor loadings, although reliability estimates also guided item retention. Coefficient alpha was then calculated for this subscale using the holdout sample.

Table 3-6

Developmental Activities Scale

Dimension	Items
Class or seminar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Took a class at a college or university. • Attended a training class, workshop, or seminar for technical, interpersonal, or managerial skills, or for leadership development. • Attended a professional conference.
Interpersonal Relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Met with my boss to discuss my development. • Met with a professional development coach. • Met with my mentor. • Actively created or sought out professional networking opportunities. • Participated in a discussion group with colleagues in my career field.
Job Experiences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requested a lateral transfer, job rotation, or overseas assignment. • Requested a challenging job assignment. • Been a member or officer of a professional society. • Served on the Board of another organization.

Table 3-6. Continued.

Dimension	Items
General Development Efforts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Created a development plan. • Read relevant books, business magazines, or professional journals. • Reviewed videos, audiotapes, or books on tape relevant to my development goals. • Attended a career fair or expo. • Voluntarily completed skill/interest assessments or inventories.

Note. From “An Investigation of Factors Relating to Managerial Performance Improvement in Response to 360-Degree Feedback,” by L. B. Baumann, 2000, Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, p. 64. Reprinted with permission.

Table 3-7

Career Self Management Scales

Dimension	Items
Feedback-Seeking	<p>Over the past six months, to what extent have you solicited feedback on your... job performance from your immediate supervisor?</p> <p>job performance from individuals other than your supervisor?</p> <p>service to your customers (which are people you serve either internally or externally by performing your job)?</p> <p>career progress to date?</p> <p>training and development needs?</p> <p>opportunities for future career development?</p>
Job Mobility Preparedness	<p>How current is your resume?</p> <p>Over the past six months, to what extent have you reviewed internal job postings?</p> <p>Over the past six months, to what extent have you actively investigated internal job postings?</p> <p>Over the past six months, to what extent have you discussed future job openings within your internal network?</p> <p>Over the past six months, to what extent have you discussed future job postings within your external network?</p> <p>Over the past six months, to what extent have you thought about what position you would like to have next?</p> <p>To what extent do you actively seek out information about job opportunities outside the organization?</p> <p>To what extent have you sought out any new personal connections at work in the past 6 months for the purpose of furthering your career?</p> <p>To what extent have you sought out any new personal connections outside of work for the purpose of furthering your career?</p>

Table 3-7. Continued.

Note. From “Career self-management: A quasi-experimental assessment of the effects of a training intervention,” by E. E. Kossek, K. Roberts, S. Fisher, and B. Demarr, 1998, Personnel Psychology, 51, 961-962.

The successful scale development analyses from Study One were then repeated in order to cross-validate the results. This satisfies a recommendation that factor structures be replicable before proceeding with use of the measure (Briggs & Cheek, 1986). Specifically, items from all subscales were fit to a confirmatory factor analysis to verify the measure’s structure, and estimates of internal consistency reliability were calculated. Then, bivariate correlations were examined between each of the employment goal subscales, organizational commitment, participation in training and development, and career self-management to test hypotheses five through seven. Additionally, exploratory analyses were carried out on the related research question. The results from these and all other analyses in this dissertation appear in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Pilot Study

Prior to the testing of the hypotheses, a pilot study was conducted to gauge the feasibility of the item format and to initially narrow the number of items. The items examined in the pilot study were written specifically to measure the employment goals concept as discussed in the previous chapter, and the items had been substantively evaluated by advanced graduate students.

Several items were used for each set of employment goals, which has been shown to increase population factor pattern recovery in Monte Carlo analyses (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988; Velicer & Fava, 1998). Specifically in their recommendations for applied researchers, Guadagnoli and Fava (1988) advise that a pattern composed of many variables per component should be an accurate solution in all but the lowest of sample sizes ($N > 150$). In many cases, the loadings in this pilot study were low to moderate, increasing the probability of an accurate solution for this population. Furthermore, Guadagnoli and Fava (1988) note that at the low saturation (i.e., low loading) level, there is a tendency for a component to be underdefined rather than overdefined. In other words, there are more variables not identified as measuring a factor (i.e., Type II error) than there are variables identified as measuring a factor (i.e., Type I error). Thus, the items retained on the basis of the pilot study have emerged despite a large Type II error rate. Finally, using a regression equation predicting the average squared difference between a given sample pattern and its corresponding population pattern (Guadagnoli &

Velicer, 1988), the pilot results are predicted to achieve acceptability (see Appendix G for calculations). In sum, while the results of the pilot study are limited to some extent by the size and nature of the sample, they were worthy of attention and some degree of deference when further developing the measure for use in studies one and two.

Exploratory Factor Analyses

Two exploratory factor analyses were conducted with the entire usable sample of 262 participants. The first exploratory factor analysis used a principal axis extraction and an oblique rotation (i.e., Direct Oblimin) in order to ascertain the correlations between the factors. Given that these correlations were moderate to low (i.e., the correlation between the relational and personalized factor was .39, the correlation between the relational and transactional factor was .12, and the other coefficient was near zero), an orthogonal, varimax rotation was used. This rotation maximizes the variances of the squared factor loadings by column, facilitating simple structure (Finch & West, 1997).

Factors were retained primarily on the basis of theoretical expectations (i.e., three factors). However, eigenvalues greater than one and evidence gained from a scree plot were also examined (cf. Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Both of the latter are recommended, as the eigenvalue retention rule generally overestimates the number of viable factors (Briggs & Cheek, 1986; Comrey, 1978). Ultimately, a three-factor model was retained.

Items were selected based upon appropriate factor loadings of .40 and above, with no cross-loadings above .30. Thirty-seven items survived this analysis: thirteen Relational Employment Goals items, fourteen Transactional Employment Goals items,

and ten Personalized Employment Goals items. The results associated with the three-factor model and Varimax rotation appear in Table 4-1.

Reliability

Coefficient alpha was calculated on the items surviving the exploratory factor analysis discussed above. Alphas for the relational, transactional, and personalized subscales were .85, .83, and .79, respectively. Admittedly, the coefficient alpha calculated on these items is most likely inflated; using the same sample to conduct item analyses and calculate reliability estimates capitalizes on sampling error. However, these analyses were conducted to determine the range of alpha values to be expected in future studies.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis was then conducted on the 37 surviving items. Results from this analysis appear in Table 4-2. The most acceptable fit indices for the present study show adequate fit (e.g., RMSEA = .063; DF ratio = 2.03). However, a high correlation emerged between Relational and Personalized Employment Goals. While the other two correlations were low ($\Phi = -.05$ and $\Phi = .19$), the correlation between the Relational and Personalized factors was .62. Attention was paid to the redundancy of these constructs in the additional scale development work.

Item Selection

Fifteen items per dimension were then selected to be used in Study One. Initial item selection for each dimension is described below. Then, before their use in Study One, five items were revised based upon the results from this study and two additional substantive analyses.

Table 4-1

Pilot Study: Exploratory Factor Analysis (Principal Axis Extraction and Varimax Rotation)

Items	Factor Loadings		
	R	T	P
I am the most satisfied when I do something that accomplishes an organization's goals. (R.75)*	.611	-	-
I want a long-term future in one particular organization. (R.41)*	.585	-	-
I fully expect to give my loyalty to the organization with which I work. (R.38)*	.578	-	-
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it rewards my loyalty. (R.7)*	.577	-	-
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for belonging. (R.6)*	.575	-	-
I would like to stay with only one or two organizations until I retire. (R.61)*	.555	-	-
People should use the word "loyalty" to describe their relationships with organizations. (R.17)*	.534	-	-
It is important to me that my supervisor treats me like family. (R.74)*	.534	-	-
I am willing to contribute 100% to an organization in return for promises of future employment. (R.31)*	.532	-	-
To me, working in an organization is like being a member of a family. (R.25)*	.524	-	-
Job security is more important than most people think. (R.64)*	.507	-	-
As soon as I am able, I'd like to be a part of an organization's management succession plan. (R.72)	.481	-	-

Table 4-1. Continued.

Items	Factor Loadings		
	R	T	P
The job security offered by an organization is important to me. (R.29)	.441	-	-
I owe it to my employer to stay as long as possible. (R.48)*	.439	-	-
I measure my career success by my tenure in the organization. (R.66)*	.433	-	-
The organization in which I work is more important than the work that I do. (R.21)	-	.408	-
I am hesitant to do too many things not required by my job description. (T.51)*	-	.647	-
The quality of pay and benefits I receive is more important than the work that I do. (T.16)*	-	.567	-
It is important not to get too involved in non-compensated work activities. (T.37)*	-	.566	-
It is not worth it to attend training that doesn't directly help me on my job. (T.30)*	-	.554	-
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it pays me for work that is up to a predefined standard. (T.28)*	-	.538	-
As long as I reach the standards specified in my job, I am satisfied with my work. (T.47)*	-	.528	-
Unless spelled out in a contract, I wouldn't make promises to my employer. (T.27)*	-	.519	-
I work purely to achieve the short-term goals of my job. (T.40)*	-	.514	-
Financial security is more important than job security. (T.44)*	-	.503	-
I would prefer to spend my free time doing things wholly unrelated to work. (T.57)*	-	.487	-

Table 4-1. Continued.

Items	Factor Loadings		
	R	T	P
I work for the money. (T.34)*	-	.472	-
A job is just an agreement one has with their employer to provide work for money and benefits. (T.8)*	-	.439	-
I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours. (T.15)*	-	.410	-
Training that is of the most value to me is that which helps me earn my paycheck. (T.63)	-	.410	-
My primary expectation is a fair day's pay for a fair day's work. (T.36)*	-	.402	-
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my economic needs. (T.23)	.457	-	-
Before I decide to leave an organization, I owe the management their desired notice (e.g., two weeks notice). (T.68)	-	-	.445
I am not satisfied with my work unless it is up to my full potential. (P.32)*	-	-	.576
If doing so developed my own skills, I would do things for the organization that are not required by my job. (P.14)*	-	-	.526
I am loyal to the idea of achieving my own personal success. (P.71)*	-	-	.523
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it provides challenging job opportunities. (P.11)*	-	-	.510
It is important to me that my supervisor recognizes my desires to learn and grow. (P.56)	-	-	.455
I am willing to contribute 100% to an organization in return for challenging work. (P.22)*	-	-	.443
One of the primary things I owe an organization is the application of my specialized skills. (P.5)	.414	-	.442

Table 4-1. Continued.

Items	Factor Loadings		
	R	T	P
I prefer not to consider how long my relationship with an organization will be until I consider growth opportunities. (P.12)*	-	-	.438
The work that I do means more to me than just a means of paying the bills. (P.69)*	-	-	.438
It is solely my responsibility to seek out career opportunities and generate career plans. (P.19)*	-	-	.427
I am loyal to the idea of achieving my own personal success. (P.70)*	-	-	.419
I expect to receive training in an organization that I can transfer to new jobs or organizations. (P.46)*	-	-	.414
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for growth and development. (P.24)	.451	-	-
I am most attracted to organizations that provide for my personal career growth. (P.54)	.421	-	-

Note. Items are omitted that did not manifest loadings on any factor. R=Relational, T=Transactional, P=Personalized. Numbers in parentheses are pilot study item numbers. Dashes (-) indicate that the loading was below 0.4. Asterisks (*) indicate those items that were retained on the basis of appropriate loadings.

Table 4-2

Pilot Study: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Items	Factors		
	Relational	Transactional	Personalized
R.6	0.871		
R.61	0.855		
R.41	0.845		
R.7	0.843		
R.74	0.803		
R.75	0.761		
R.38	0.709		
R.25	0.700		
R.31	0.683		
R.17	0.662		
R.48	0.652		
R.64	0.605		
R.66	0.562		
T.30		0.942	
T.51		0.826	
T.47		0.814	
T.27		0.800	
T.37		0.793	
T.16		0.783	
T.34		0.744	
T.40		0.733	
T.15		0.716	
T.28		0.716	
T.8		0.687	
T.57		0.675	
T.44		0.632	
T.36		0.513	
P.71			0.770
P.11			0.722
P.32			0.713
P.22			0.691
P.69			0.688
P.70			0.688
P.19			0.575
P.14			0.540
P.46			0.516
P.12			0.474

Table 4-2. Continued.

Note. Numbers in parentheses are pilot study item numbers. $\chi^2 = 1268.86$, $df = 626$, $p = 0.00$, df Ratio = 2.03, CFI = .75, RMSEA = .06.

For the Relational Employment Goals subscale, 13 items survived the factor analysis. Two additional items were selected on the basis of factor loadings, the initial substantive analysis, and construct coverage. Specifically, the items selected loaded moderately on the Relational Employment Goals factor, and one of the two items attained initial substantive agreement as judged by the SMEs. It is important to note, however, that the item selected that did not attain initial substantive agreement was discussed and agreed upon by the SMEs in a meeting with the author.

Fourteen Transactional Employment Goals items remained after the analyses described above. One additional item was selected as above. Specifically, the selected item selected loaded moderately on the Transactional Employment Goals factor and was discussed and agreed upon by the SMEs in a meeting with the author.

Finally, five additional items were selected for the Personalized Employment Goals subscale; these were added to the ten items that emerged in the empirical analyses described above. Again, all of the items loaded moderately on their intended construct, and two also attained substantive agreement among the SMEs. The other three items (i.e., “The only job security is to ensure that one always has marketable skills,” “As my personal career goals change, I will change jobs and/or organizations,” and “When I am no longer learning new skills, I am likely to change jobs”), while also discussed and

agreed upon by the SMEs, were further justified for inclusion due to their strong theoretical associations with the concept of Personalized Employment Goals.

As a last step before utilizing this set of items in Study One, items were subjected to the two additional substantive analyses described in Chapter 3. The results of the Pilot Study and the two additional substantive analyses were then used to revise the items one last time before conducting Study One. Five items were revised. These five items did not satisfy at least two of the following three criteria: simple-structure loadings above .40 on the Pilot Study factor analysis, agreement in the second substantive analysis, and agreement in the third substantive analysis. In sum, then, the questionnaire used in Study One had been revised and shortened based upon the results of three separate substantive analyses and a pilot study. The resulting set of items appears in Table 4-3.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to assess the feasibility of the item format and to initially narrow the number of items. Three factors emerged that adequately represented Relational, Transactional, and Personalized Employment Goals. After examining the results from the substantive analysis, the empirical findings, and content coverage, fifteen items for each subscale were retained to be used in Study One.

While this study allowed the number of items to be narrowed from 75 to a more manageable 45, the psychometric analyses involved in this study clearly needed to be replicated. First, the sample used was comprised of students. Because the employment goals concept is relevant to a broader population than students, these results must be replicated with members of that population, namely, members of organizations. Thus, an exploratory factor analysis using an organizational sample was warranted.

Table 4-3

Items To Be Utilized in Study One

Dimension	Items
Relational	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for belonging. (R.6) <li>2. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it rewards my loyalty. (R.7) <li>3. People should use the word “loyalty” to describe their relationships with organizations. (R.17) <li>4. I hope to gain promotions within a company the longer my tenure with the company. (R.18) <li>5. To me, working in an organization is like being a member of a family. (R.25) <li>6. I am willing to contribute 100% to an organization in return for promises of future employment. (R.31) <li>7. I fully expect to give my loyalty to the organization with which I work. (R.38) <li>8. I want a long-term future in one particular organization. (R.41) <li>9. If it helped the organization, I would do otherwise undesirable things that were not required by my job. (R.43) <li>10. I owe it to my employer to stay as long as possible. (R.48) <li>11. I would like to stay with only one or two organizations until I retire. (R.61) <li>12. Job security is more important than most people think. (R.64) <li>13. I measure my career success by my tenure in the organization. (R.66) <li>14. It is important to me that my supervisor treats me like family. (R.74) <li>I am the most satisfied when I do something that accomplishes an organization’s goals. (R.75)

Table 4-3. Continued.

Dimension	Items
Transactional	15. A job is just an agreement one has with their employer to provide work for money and benefits. (T.8)
	16. I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours. (T.15)
	17. The quality of pay and benefits I receive is more important than the work I do. (T.16)
	18. Unless spelled out in a contract, I wouldn't make promises to my employer. (T.27)
	19. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it pays me for work that is up to a predefined standard. (T.28)
	20. It is not worth it to attend training that doesn't directly help me on my job. (T.30)
	21. I work for the money. (T.34)
	22. My primary expectation is a fair day's pay for a fair day's work. (T.36)
	23. It is important not to get too involved in non-compensated work activities. (T.37)
	24. I work to achieve the purely short term goals of my job. (T.40)
	25. Financial security is more important than job security. (T.44)
	26. As long as I reach the standards specified in my job, I am satisfied with my work. (T.47)
	27. I am hesitant to do too many things not required by my job description. (T.51)
	28. I would prefer to spend my free time doing things wholly unrelated to work and my career. (T.57)
	29. Training that is of the only value to me is that which helps me earn my paycheck. (T.63)

Table 4-3. Continued.

Dimension	Items
Personalized	30. In return for the use of my skills, an organization owes me training in areas that are of use to other organizations. (P.2)
	31. The only real job security is to ensure that one always has marketable skills. (P.9)
	32. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it provides challenging job opportunities. (P.11)
	33. I prefer not to consider how long my relationship with an organization will be until I consider growth opportunities. (P.12)
	34. If doing so developed my own skills, I would do things for the organization that are not required by my job. (P.14)
	35. It is solely my responsibility to seek out career opportunities and generate career plans. (P.19)
	36. I am willing to contribute 100% to this organization in return for challenging work. (P.22)
	37. I am not satisfied with my work unless it is up to my full potential. (P.32)
	38. An organization should be viewed as a stepping stone in one's career development. (P.45)
	39. I expect to receive training in an organization that I can transfer to new jobs or organizations. (P.46)
	40. When I am no longer learning new skills, I am likely to change jobs. (P.65)
	41. As my personal career goals change, I will change jobs and/or organizations. (P.67)
	42. The work that I do means more to me than just a means of paying the bills. (P.69)
	43. I like the idea of skill-based pay rather than longevity-based pay. (P.70)

Table 4-3. Continued.

Dimension	Items
Personalized	44. I am loyal to the idea of achieving my own personal success. (P.71)

Note. Numbers in parentheses are Pilot Study item numbers. Due to an administrative error, only 44 of the 45 items were included on the survey.

Furthermore, due to the sample size of 262 in the Pilot Study, a confirmatory factor analysis and estimates of reliability on a holdout sample of at least 100 was not feasible. Subsequent studies were needed to conduct this analysis, and an independent estimate of reliability was necessary.

Study One – Scale Development

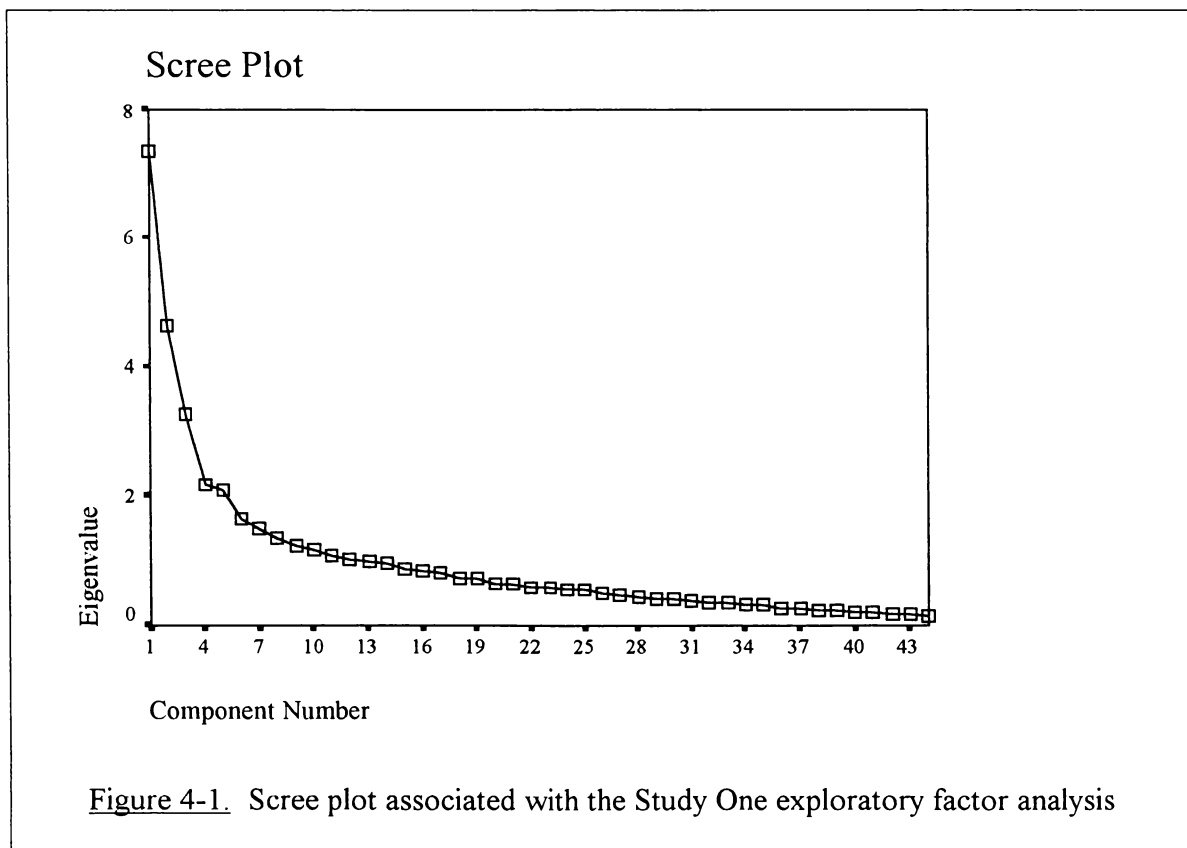
The primary purpose of this study was to further the scale's development. Specifically, the factor analysis and reliability calculations conducted in the Pilot Study were repeated and additional item selection occurred based upon item psychometric properties. These results were then cross-validated with confirmatory factor analysis.

Exploratory Factor Analyses

As an initial step, the sample was split into a scale construction sample and a holdout sample. Using the scale construction sample of 200, items from the Employment Goal Questionnaire were subjected to a series of two exploratory factor analyses. The first exploratory factor analysis used a principal axis extraction and an oblique rotation (i.e., Direct Oblimin) in order to ascertain the correlations between the factors. These correlations were low (i.e., the correlation between the relational and transactional factor was near zero, the correlation between the relational and personalized factor was .18, and

the correlation between the transactional and personalized factor was $-.10$), so an orthogonal, varimax rotation was then used. As discussed in the previous section, this rotation facilitates simple structure, and is the preferred orthogonal rotation (Finch & West, 1997).

Factors were retained primarily on the basis of theoretical expectations (i.e., three factors); however, eigenvalues greater than one and evidence gained from a scree plot were also examined (cf. Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Both of the latter are recommended, as the eigenvalue retention rule generally overestimates the number of viable factors (Briggs & Cheek, 1986; Comrey, 1978). At the conclusion of these investigations, a viable three-factor model emerged. The scree plot appears in Figure 4-1.



Items were selected based upon appropriate factor loadings of .40 and above, with no cross-loadings above .30. In one case, (i.e., Personalized Employment Goals item number 9) an item was retained with a loading of .39. This item loaded appropriately in the previously conducted orthogonal rotation and was deemed similar in content to the other scale items. Twenty-seven items survived this analysis: eleven Relational Employment Goals items, nine Transactional Employment Goals items, and seven Personalized Employment Goals items. The results associated with the three-factor model and Varimax rotation appear in Table 4-4.

It is noteworthy that only seven items were retained from the Personalized Employment Goals subscale. Upon further examination, it was determined that this subscale most likely contained two separate factors. Those items that were retained represented a career self-management subfactor, while those that were discarded were concerned with challenging work provided by the organization. It appears that the facet of the new career mentality that is associated with managing one's own career while collecting training and other valuable experiences is the most distinguishable from Relational and Transactional Employment goals. Clearly, further scale development was necessary given this narrowed focus of Personalized Employment Goals. This course of action is discussed in more detail in the following sections.

Table 4-4

Study One: Exploratory Factor Analysis (Principal Axis Extraction with VarimaxRotation)

Items	Factor Loadings		
	R	T	P
People should use the word “loyalty” to describe their relationships with organizations. (R.34)*	.659	-	-
I want a long-term future in one particular organization. (R.25)*	.557	-	-
I would like to stay with only one or two organizations until I retire. (R.31)*	.553	-	-
It is important to me that my supervisor treats me like family. (R.38)*	.525	-	-
To me, working in an organization is like being a member of a family. (R.5)*	.514	-	-
I am willing to contribute 100% to an organization in return for promises of future employment. (R.22)*	.514	-	-
I am the most satisfied when I do something that accomplishes an organization’s goals. (R.17) ^a	.511	-	-
Job security is more important than most people think. (R.12)*	.487	-	-
I owe it to my employer to stay as long as possible. (R.28)*	.487	-	-
I fully expect to give my loyalty to the organization with which I work. (R.7)*	.480	-.335	-
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for belonging. (R.19)	.431	.300	-
I measure my career success by my tenure in the organization. (R.13)*	.422	-	-
I hope to gain promotions within a company the longer my tenure with the company. (R.41)	.422	-	.312

Table 4-4. Continued.

Items	Factor Loadings		
	R	T	P
The only training that is of value to me is that which helps me earn my paycheck. (T.30)*	-	.626	-
I work to achieve the purely short-term goals of my job. (T.8)*	-	.566	-
As long as I reach the standards specified in my job, I am satisfied with my work. (T.27)	.369	.551	-
The quality of pay and benefits I receive is more important than the work I do. (T.18)*	-	.554	-
I am hesitant to do too many things not required by my job description. (T.10)*	-	.529	-
It is important not to get too involved in non-compensated work activities. (T.39)*	-	.526	-
A job is just an agreement one has with their employer to provide work for money and benefits. (T.45)*	-	.529	-
Unless spelled out in a contract, I wouldn't make promises to my employer. (T.6)*	-	.505	-
It is not worth it to attend training that doesn't directly help me on my job. (T.40)*	-	.502	-
I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours. (T.15)*	-	.459	-
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it pays me for work that is up to a predefined standard. (T.33)	.505	.438	-
My primary expectation is a fair day's pay for a fair day's work. (T.23)	.428	-	-
I am loyal to the idea of achieving my own personal success. (P.16)*	-	-	.523

Table 4-4. Continued.

Items	Factor Loadings		
	R	T	P
I prefer not to consider how long my relationship with an organization will be until I consider growth opportunities available. (P.3)*	-	-	.515
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it provides challenging job opportunities. (P.29)	.332	-	.481
When I am no longer learning new skills, I am likely to change jobs. (P.4)*	-.300	-	.477
I am willing to contribute 100% to this organization in return for challenging work. (P.37)	.357	-.305	.476
An organization should be viewed as a stepping-stone in one's career development. (P.24)	-	.467	.453
The only real job security is to ensure that one always has marketable skills. (P.32)*	-	-	.443
As my personal career goals change, I will change jobs and/or organizations. (P.42)*	-.370	-	.439
If doing so developed my own skills, I would do things for the organization that are not required by my job. (P.35)*	-	-.385	.418
It is solely my responsibility to seek out career opportunities and generate career plans. (P.9)*	-	-	.391

Note. Items are omitted that did not manifest loadings on any factor. R=Relational, T=Transactional, P=Personalized. Numbers in parentheses are study one item numbers. Dashes (-) indicate that the loading was below 0.3. Asterisks (*) indicate those items that were retained on the basis of appropriate loadings.

^aThis item was later removed due to a correlation with social desirability.

Social Desirability

Initially, each of the items retained in the factor analysis was then examined to assess its relationship with social desirability. It was determined that correlations above .30 were problematic. In other words, when approximately 10% of the variance in an item was explained by the relationship with social desirability, it was to be omitted. By taking this measure, it was hoped that the operation of self-presentation biases, which are to some degree inherent in all self-report measures, would be reduced. Only one retained item (i.e., Relational Employment Goals item number 17) manifested such a correlation with social desirability ($r = .32, p < .01$); thus, it was omitted from all further analyses.

Reliability

A holdout sample of 107 participants was used to calculate coefficient alpha on the remaining items in each of the three subscales. This holdout sample provided the independent confirmation of the reliability estimate that was impossible in the Pilot Study due to low sample size. Two of the scales, Relational and Transactional Employment Goals reached acceptable levels (alpha = .79 and alpha = .81, respectively). However, the seven Personalized items did not attain the acceptable level of .70 as established by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) for new scales. Rather, coefficient alpha for this scale was estimated at .60.

Owing to the revised focus of the measure, scale development for the Personalized Employment Goals subscale was to continue in Study Two, providing another opportunity to increase its internal consistency. As determined by the Spearman Brown prophecy formula, an acceptable level of reliability was possible if items were selected and included that were conceptually similar to the narrowed Personalized focus.

The Spearman Brown prophecy formula allows one to estimate the number of times a test would have to be lengthened (k) in order to obtain a specific reliability. One caveat to this formula is that the new items must have item-total correlations that are similar to that of the current items (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). To obtain a coefficient alpha of .70 on the revised Personalized Employment Goals subscale, it was required to lengthen the scale by a factor of 1.53. In other words, the subscale needed to be lengthened to include 11 items, approximately the same length of each of the other subscales.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Finally, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the revised scale using the entire sample of 302 participants. Results from this analysis appear in Table 4-5. The most acceptable fit indices for the present study show adequate fit (e.g., RMSEA = 0.073; DF ratio = 2.91). However, it is important to note that a moderate correlation emerged between Transactional and Personalized Employment Goals. While the other two correlations were low ($\Phi = .15$ and $\Phi = -.01$), the correlation between the Transactional and Personalized factors was moderate ($\Phi = .35$).

Although somewhat disconcerting, this correlation is not entirely unexpected. Redefining the Personalized Employment Goals scale as primarily concerned with career self-management aligns the construct much more closely with Transactional Employment Goals in a conceptual sense. Both Transactional and Personalized Employment Goals are instrumentally focused; that is, they must be satisfied in the short-term in order for the organization to ensure continued tenure and performance. However, the content of the goal category that must be fulfilled is different.

Table 4-5

Study One: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Items	Factors		
	Relational	Transactional	Personalized
R.31	.908		
R.34	.893		
R.25	.876		
R.28	.786		
R.22	.781		
R.5	.761		
R.38	.749		
R.13	.643		
R.7	.523		
R.12	.498		
T.30		.946	
T.8		.936	
T.6		.932	
T.10		.890	
T.45		.890	
T.18		.826	
T.15		.787	
T.40		.707	
T.39		.640	
P.16			.781
P.3			.721
P.9			.672
P32			.642
P.42			.548
P.4			.528
P.35			.256

Note. Numbers in parentheses are study one item numbers. $\chi^2 = 859.76$, df = 296, p =

0.00, df Ratio = 2.91, CFI = .64, RMSEA = .07.

Specifically, desires of those with Transactional Employment Goals are satisfied by money and benefits, while desires of those with Personalized Employment Goals are satisfied by experience and learning. That being said, further attention was paid to the relationship between the two constructs in the remainder of the hypotheses tests.

Item Selection

In short, the 26 items that loaded appropriately in the exploratory analysis while failing to manifest a relationship with social desirability were retained for use in Study Two. These items demonstrated acceptable reliability estimates and the resulting scale scores also did not show pervasive relationships with social desirability. It should be noted that one subscale, Relational Employment Goals, showed a correlation of .30 with social desirability when the entire sample was used. However, when only the MBA sample was used to investigate this relationship, the correlation became small and non-significant ($r = .05$, ns). Because the responses from the other two samples were returned to an internal organizational contact and then forwarded to the researcher, some degree of social desirability, particularly with regard to the Relational Employment Goals subscale, was expected in the responses. The MBA sample was the only sample in this study that returned completed questionnaires directly to the researcher. Thus, the available evidence suggests that there is only slight, if any, warranted concern about social desirability and the Relational Employment Goals subscale.

For all intents and purposes, the Relational and Transactional Employment Goals subscales were considered viable. They each had an adequate number of items and showed acceptable reliability estimates. It was not deemed necessary to continue their development in this dissertation. Conversely, while seven Personalized Employment

Goals items were retained, the reliability estimate was not adequate. As discussed in the previous section, adding four additional, similarly inter-correlated items to the Personalized subscale would most probably produce reasonable reliability estimates. Therefore, in Study Two, seven items from the Pilot Study were reintroduced along with the seven surviving items from Study One. Additionally, two items that did not load appropriately in Study One but were similar to the career self management focus were retained. In all, a total of 16 Personalized Employment Goal items were used in Study Two. Additional items to be included in the Personalized Employment Goals subscale were selected for their conceptual cogency with the revised career self-management focus. In most cases, these items were excluded from use in Study One due to marginally low factor loadings and cross-loadings with other variables. Because the factor was now narrowed in focus, however, these same items might manifest stronger and cleaner loadings with the items selected on the basis of the evidence gained in this study.

Given that a version of each of the items to be included in the revised Personalized Employment Goals scale appeared in the pilot survey, one final analysis was possible before proceeding. It was feasible to analyze the unidimensionality of the construct by subjecting the entire group of items to be used in Study Two to a principal components analysis in which only one factor was extracted. The loadings of each of the items were above .30 in this analysis, and the scree plot supported a one-factor model (see Table 4-6 and Figure 4-2). Therefore, these 16 items were included in Study Two such that further scale development and item selection for this particular subscale could continue. Accordingly, the hypotheses discussed below concerning Personalized Employment Goals should be considered exploratory at this point.

Table 4-6

Unidimensional Exploratory Factor Analysis for Expanded Set of Personalized Items

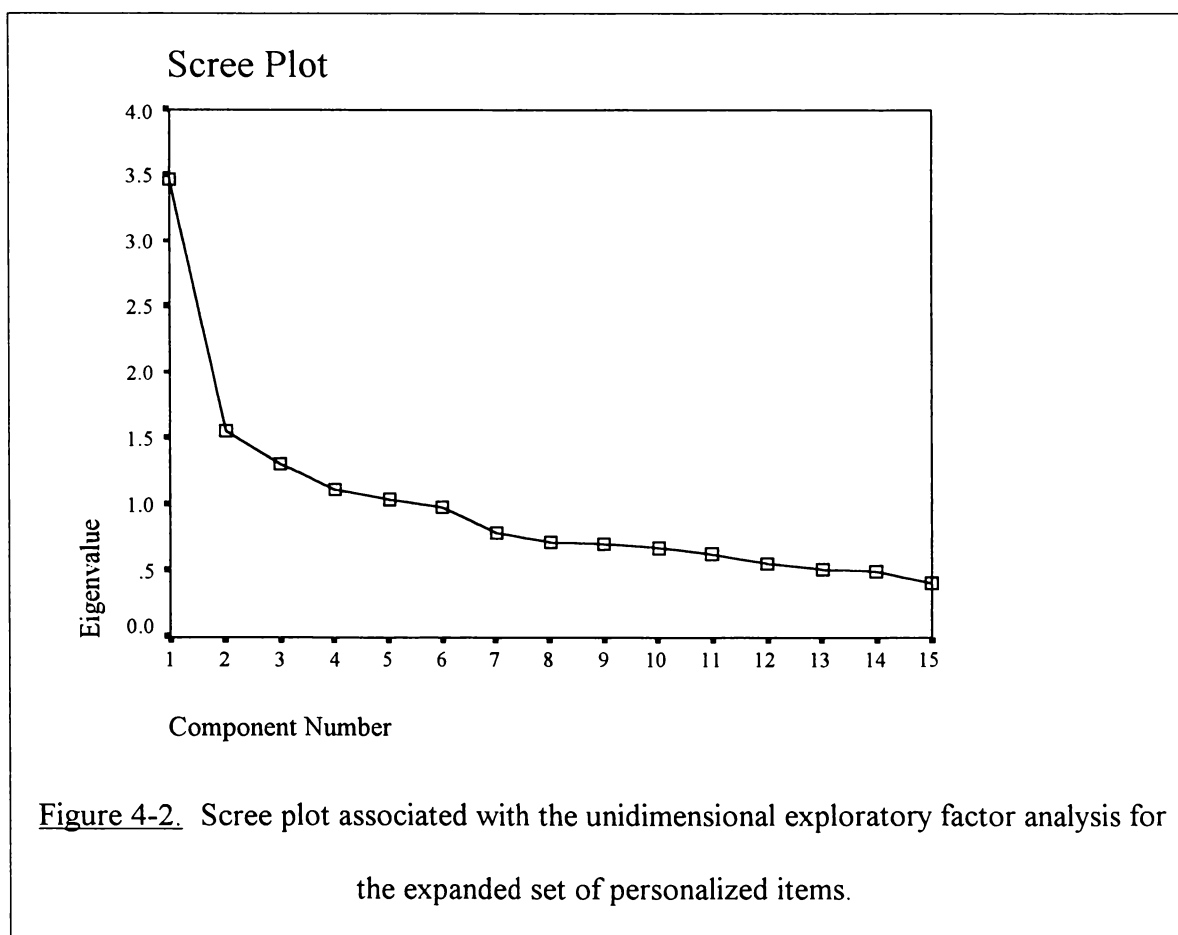
Item	Loading ^a
I am loyal to the idea of achieving my own personal success. (P.71)	.638
I expect to receive training in an organization that I can transfer to new jobs or organizations. (P.46)	.580
I work primarily to gain experience and knowledge. (P.58)	.574
If doing so developed my own skills, I would do things for the organization that are not required by my job. (P.14)	.563
It is important to me that my supervisor recognizes my desires to learn and grow. (P.56)	.550
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for growth and development. (P.24)	.542
An organization should be viewed as a stepping stone in one's career development. (P.45)	.524
I prefer not to consider how long my relationship with an organization will be until I consider growth opportunities available. (P.12)	.492
It is solely my responsibility to seek out career opportunities and generate career plans. (P.19)	.492
The knowledge and skills gained from working are more important than the specific work that I do. (P.26)	.452
It is not the organization's responsibility to help employees move up the career ladder. (R.1)	.395
I measure my career success by my own standards, not those of any organization. (P.42)	.388
As my personal career goals change, I will change jobs and/or organizations. (P.67)	.369
When I am no longer learning new skills, I am likely to change jobs. (P.65)	.350

Table 4-6. Continued.

Item	Loading ^a
The only real job security is to ensure that one always has marketable skills. (P.9)	.327
I disregard organizational definitions of success in favor of my own definition of success. (P.39)	.304

Note. Numbers in parentheses are pilot study item numbers. Dashes (-) indicate that the loading was below .30.

^aThis component explained 23.11% of the variance in the items.



Study One – Hypothesis Tests

A secondary purpose of this study was to conduct initial examinations of the nomological net surrounding the employment goals construct; hypotheses two through four were tested toward this end. Following the scale development work discussed above, unit-weighted scale scores were used for these analyses. In essence, to show that the resultant measures of employment goals differentially relate to other variables of interest, bivariate correlations between Relational, Transactional, and Personalized Employment Goal scale scores, Big Five personality dimensions, manifest needs, and locus of control were examined. Again, however, note that the hypotheses concerning Personalized Employment Goals are considered to be exploratory in this study, as further scale development is needed. Means and standard deviations of aforementioned substantive variables and continuous demographic variables appear in Table 4-7.

Preliminary Analyses

Power. For the hypothesis tests, the usable sample of 302 provided acceptable power. For a moderately small correlation (i.e., .224 and .316 as established by Cohen, 1977) a power coefficient of over 90% is obtained (Borenstein, Rothstein, & Cohen, 1997).

Relationships with demographic variables. Some relationships emerged between the variables of interest in this study (i.e., Relational, Transactional, and Personalized Employment Goals) and demographic variables collected from each of the participants. Correlations appear in Table 4-8. ANOVA results for categorical variables appear in Tables 4-9 through 4-11.

Table 4-7

Means and Standard Deviations for Study One Variables

	N Reporting	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Relational Goals	302	2.20	7.00	4.90	0.86
Transactional Goals	302	1.22	7.00	3.57	0.99
Personalized Goals	302	2.00	6.86	4.98	0.80
Social Desirability	298	0.00	13.00	7.95	3.12
Extraversion	296	1.10	5.00	3.19	0.76
Agreeableness	296	2.20	5.00	3.95	0.57
Conscientiousness	296	1.78	5.00	3.89	0.56
Emotional Stability	296	1.60	5.00	3.41	0.70
Intellect	296	2.30	4.90	3.60	0.54
NAchievement	301	1.00	16.00	10.92	3.06
NAffiliation	301	0.00	16.00	9.41	3.75
NAutonomy	301	0.00	14.00	6.07	3.03
NDominance	301	0.00	16.00	9.40	4.28
Locus of Control	299	1.14	4.50	2.56	0.66
Age	282	16	74	36.93	11.59
Org. Tenure	217	0.08	44.17	9.95	9.92
Job Tenure	192	0.08	39.17	6.21	6.91
FT Work Exp.	49	0	17.50	5.04	4.08

Table 4-8

Study One: Correlations among Employment Goals and Demographic Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Rel. Goals	1.00						
2. Trans. Goals	.029	1.00					
3. Pers. Goals	.066	.210**	1.00				
4. Age	.180**	-.190**	-.225**	1.00			
5. Org. Tenure	.044	-.130	-.112	.519**	1.00		
6. Job Tenure	.139	.059	-.035	.317**	.691**	1.00	
7. FT Work Exp. ^a	-.059	.066	-.023	.956**	-	-	1.00

^aThis Demographic variable was collected from the MBA student sample in lieu of organizational and job tenure.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 4-9

Study One: One-way ANOVA on the Effect of Gender upon Employment Goals

	Source	SS	df	MS	F
Relational Goals	Between	2.70	1	2.70	3.72
	Within	210.16	289	0.73	
	Total	212.87	290		
Transactional Goals	Between	5.97	1	5.97	6.43*
	Within	268.50	289	0.93	
	Total	274.47	290		
Personalized Goals	Between	0.28	1	0.28	0.44
	Within	186.44	289	0.65	
	Total	186.73	290		

* $p < .05$

Table 4-10

Study One: One-way ANOVA on the Effect of Race upon Employment Goals

	Source	SS	df	MS	F
Relational Goals	Between	2.13	4	0.53	0.71
	Within	207.77	279	0.75	
	Total	209.90	283		
Transactional Goals	Between	17.24	4	4.31	4.73**
	Within	253.78	279	0.91	
	Total	271.01	283		
Personalized Goals	Between	5.12	4	1.28	2.01
	Within	177.81	279	0.64	
	Total	182.93	283		

** $p < .01$

Table 4-11

Study One: One-way ANOVA on the Effect of Education upon Employment Goals

	Source	SS	df	MS	F
Relational Goals	Between	25.50	4	6.37	9.53**
	Within	183.523	274	0.67	
	Total	208.73	278		
Transactional Goals	Between	6.17	4	1.54	1.69
	Within	249.67	274	0.91	
	Total	255.85	278		
Personalized Goals	Between	10.99	4	2.75	4.60**
	Within	163.58	274	0.60	
	Total	174.57	278		

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Age was related to each type of employment goal. Specifically, age was positively related to Relational Employment Goals ($r = .18$, $p < .01$) and negatively related to Transactional ($r = -.19$, $p < .01$) and Personalized Employment Goals ($r = -.23$, $p < .01$). It appears that older employees are more likely to embrace job security and loyalty as currencies of exchange, while younger employees are more likely to endorse either money and benefits or experience and skills as acceptable inducements. This result is supportive of the Generation X literature, which notes that older employees are more likely to view organizations as a long-term “home,” while younger employees may feel more comfortable moving from job to job. Moreover, this literature notes that Generation X employees are more likely to pursue jobs in organizations that increase their level of skill and experience.

Race, education, and gender also manifested some relationships with the variables of interest as determined by ANOVA. In particular, Transactional Employment Goals showed an overall relationship with race. Using Tukey's post-hoc test to further examine this relationship, Asian respondents showed significantly higher scores on the Transactional Employment Goals subscale ($M = 4.37$, $SD = 1.15$) than did Caucasian respondents ($M = 3.43$, $SD = 0.90$). The underlying cause of this relationship cannot be adequately discerned; however, its presence was noted throughout the hypotheses tests. In fact, when controlling for this unexplainable relationship, the nature of the results did not change.

Education also showed a significant overall relationship with Relational and Personalized Employment Goals. Particularly for Personalized Employment Goals, the post-hoc examination showed that those with Master's degrees scored higher on this subscale than those with High School Diplomas ($M = 5.29$, $SD = 0.83$ and $M = 4.80$, $SD = 0.76$, respectively). This is expected, given that those with Master's degrees show a obvious value for training and skill development. It follows that scores on this subscale for those with Master's degrees would be higher. A clear relationship also emerged with Relational Employment Goals and the level of education. Specifically, using Tukey's post-hoc test, those with High School and Associate's Degrees had significantly higher Relational Employment Goals ($M = 5.05$, $SD = 0.77$ and $M = 5.35$, $SD = 0.85$, respectively) than those with Bachelor's and Master's degrees ($M = 4.57$, $SD = 0.85$ and $M = 4.39$, $SD = 0.92$, respectively). It appears that those with more years of education place less emphasis on job security and loyalty. This is understandable, given that those

individuals are most likely able to find another job quickly under conditions of job insecurity.

Finally, Transactional Employment Goals were significantly related to gender. Following up the ANOVA with an independent samples t-test, it was shown that males scored significantly higher on the Transactional Employment Goals subscale than did females ($M = 3.68$, $SD = 0.95$ and $M = 3.40$, $SD = 0.98$, respectively). Thus, it appears that females put less emphasis on money and benefits in their relationships with organizations. Because the nexus of this relationship is debatable, the hypothesis tests concerning Transactional Employment Goals were also examined while controlling for gender. For the most part, this precautionary measure did not change the overall nature of the results, with the exception of one correlation. The quantifiable degree of change in the correlation was negligible; however, one relationship predicted in Hypothesis 3b failed to attain statistical significance when controlling for gender. This relationship is noted in the next section.

Relationships with Sample. Because three separate samples were used, the relationship between employment goals and sample was also examined. ANOVA results for this investigation appear in Table 4-12. Sample affected the mean levels of each of the variables of interest in this study; Tukey's post-hoc tests elucidated the following relationships. As a whole, the MBA sample scored lower on the Relational Employment Goals subscale ($M = 4.49$, $SD = 0.81$ versus $M = 5.01$, $SD = 0.87$ and $M = 4.97$, $SD = 0.83$) and higher on the Personalized Employment Goals subscale ($M = 5.39$, $SD = 0.73$ versus $M = 4.84$, $SD = 0.74$ and $M = 4.89$, $SD = 0.83$) than the other two samples. This is not unexpected, as those pursuing an MBA degree value training and experience, and

may be less attached to organizations than those without an advanced degree. Moreover, the other two samples received their surveys through internal company mail. To the extent that subjects in the two organizational samples perceived a relationship between their employing organization and their survey responses, they may have endorsed more Relational Employment Goals items. Alternatively, one may need to be a permanent member of an organization to fully realize his or her Relational needs. Both alternatives would be interesting areas of future research.

Table 4-12.

Study One: One-way ANOVA on the Effect of Sample upon Employment Goals.

	Source	SS	df	MS	F
Relational Goals	Between	10.41	2	5.21	7.37**
	Within	211.33	299	0.70	
	Total	221.74	301		
Transactional Goals	Between	23.14	2	11.57	12.88**
	Within	268.61	299	0.90	
	Total	291.75	301		
Personalized Goals	Between	11.14	2	5.57	9.15**
	Within	182.13	299	0.61	
	Total	193.27	301		

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Additionally, as a whole, the restaurant sample scored significantly higher than the other two samples on the Transactional Employment Goals subscale ($M = 3.84$, $SD = 1.09$ versus $M = 3.49$, $SD = 0.68$ and $M = 3.23$, $SD = 0.84$). While the underlying cause of this relationship is debatable, it is conceivable that this sample contained more workers that were solely focused on the extrinsic aspects of their employment with the restaurant chain. This industry often attracts many high school and college students who work simply in order to earn money while also attaining an education. It follows that neither the relational aspects (i.e., loyalty to the company or the industry) nor the personalized aspects (i.e., skills gained that may be wholly unrelated to the individual's course of study) are as relevant as the transactional aspects of employment in the restaurant setting. Indeed, when comparing the mean on the Transactional Employment Goals subscale for those that are employees (i.e., servers, food preparation, and commissary workers) at the restaurant versus those that are either in management or general office positions, those that are categorized as employees have higher Transactional Employment Goals scores ($M = 3.93$, $SD = 1.08$ and $M = 3.14$, $SD = 0.94$, respectively). This mean difference is significantly different ($t = 3.33$, $p < .01$). Moreover, when conducting an additional ANOVA to discern the differences in Transactional Employment Goals between samples while using only the management/general office portion of the restaurant sample, the differences based upon sample for this variable are no longer statistically significant ($F(2, 179) = 2.27$, ns). While difficult to draw conclusions on this matter with a high degree of certainty, the statistical evidence reported here supports the explanation offered above. Overall, despite the strong differences in employment goals based upon sample,

none of the hypothesized relationships changed as a result of controlling for sample in the hypothesis tests.

Hypothesis 2

Hypotheses 2a through 2c were concerned with the relationships between employment goals and the Big Five personality characteristics. Specifically, Hypothesis 2a predicted that Relational Employment Goals would show positive relationships with Agreeableness and Conscientiousness and a slight negative association with Intellect. Two of the three relationships were found; Relational Employment Goals manifested significant, positive relationships with both Agreeableness ($r = .16, p < .01$) and Conscientiousness ($r = .16, p < .01$). While the correlation with Intellect was in the expected direction, it did not reach significance. Thus, Hypothesis 2a is only partially supported.

Hypothesis 2b predicted that Transactional Employment Goals would be negatively associated with Conscientiousness. Indeed, Transactional Employment Goals were negatively associated with this trait ($r = -.19, p < .01$); thus, Hypothesis 2b is supported.

Lastly, Hypothesis 2c postulated that Personalized Employment Goals would be strongly positively related to Intellect and somewhat positively related to Extraversion and Conscientiousness. Only one of these relationships was found, and it was not quite as strong as expected. Specifically, Personalized Employment Goals manifested a positive association with Intellect ($r = .29, p < .01$), but non-significant relationships with the other variables. However, the relationships found were in the expected direction.

Thus, Hypothesis 2c is only partially supported. A full correlation matrix appears in Table 14-13, which may be referred to for this and all other Study One Hypotheses.

Hypothesis 3

The next set of hypotheses addressed the relationships between employment goals and manifest needs. Specifically, Relational Employment Goals were hypothesized to be positively related to the Need for Affiliation and negatively related to the Need for Autonomy in Hypothesis 3a. Only one of the two relationships was found. Scores on the Relational Employment Goal subscale were negatively related to Need for Autonomy ($r = -.18, p < .01$) but unrelated to Need for Affiliation. Accordingly, this hypothesis is only partially supported.

Hypothesis 3b predicted a positive relationship between Transactional Employment Goals and Need for Autonomy. Supporting this hypothesis, a positive relationship was found ($r = .12, p < .05$). Note that this relationship is weakened and non-significant when controlling for gender ($r = .11, ns$), as mentioned above.

Hypothesis 3c was concerned with Personalized Employment Goals. Specifically, it was proposed that Personalized Employment Goals would be positively related to the Needs for Achievement and Autonomy. One of these two relationships was found; Personalized Employment Goals was positively related to the Need for Autonomy ($r = .12, p < .05$). Thus, this hypothesis is partially supported.

Table 4-13.

Study One: Correlations among Substantive Variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Relational Goals	1.00												
2. Transactional Goals	.029	1.00											
3. Personalized Goals	.066	.210**	1.00										
4. Social Desirability	.307**	-.029	-.004	1.00									
5. Extraversion	-.021	-.028	.061	-.043	1.00								
6. Agreeableness	.155**	-.369**	.089	.136*	.268**	1.00							
7. Conscientiousness	.164**	-.188**	.020	.287**	.052	.364**	1.00						
8. Emotional Stability	.008	-.162**	-.015	.278**	.250**	.165**	.282**	1.00					
9. Intellect	-.015	-.180**	.292**	-.011	.281**	.386**	.305**	.096	1.00				
10. NAchievement	.131*	-.357**	.047	.125*	.153**	.262**	.336**	.158**	.301**	1.00			
11. NAffiliation	.028	-.162**	.023	.086	.610**	.336**	.099	.259**	.255**	.339**	1.00		
12. NAutonomy	-.175**	.134*	.121*	-.088	-.046	-.223**	-.202**	-.091	.082	-.009	-.183**	1.00	
13. NDominance	-.046	-.141*	.206**	-.076	.384**	.146*	.131*	.171**	.407**	.392**	.400**	.091	1.00
14. Locus of Control	.268**	-.340*	.076	-.225**	-.084	-.238**	-.263**	-.238**	-.165**	-.292**	-.200**	.169**	-.109

Hypothesis 4

The last set of hypotheses to be tested in this study had to do with the Locus of Control variable. Specifically, it was hypothesized that those with Relational Employment Goals would be more likely to manifest an external locus of control while those with Transactional and Personalized Employment Goals were more likely to manifest an internal locus of control. Low scores represent internality on the Work Locus of Control scale used. Thus, a negative relationship was predicted in Hypothesis 4a and positive relationships were predicted in Hypotheses 4b and 4c. Hypotheses 4a and 4b were supported ($r = .27, p < .01$, and $r = -.34, p < .01$, respectively); however, Hypothesis 4c was not supported.

Summary

The primary intention of Study One was to investigate the factor structure and psychometric properties of the subscales associated with the Employment Goals Questionnaire developed in the pilot study. The Relational and Transactional Employment Goals subscales factored as expected, and they attained acceptable estimates of internal consistency reliability. The Personalized Employment Goals subscale did not factor as expected (i.e., a two factor model was suspected); consequently, the concept was redefined using the statistical evidence obtained. The group of surviving items associated with this redefinition did not reach an acceptable level of reliability in this study; however, it was possible to continue this subscale's development in Study Two. Thus, additional items were added based upon the construct's narrowed focus upon training, development, and career self-management, and all related hypotheses associated with Personalized Employment Goals were considered to be exploratory in this study.

Eleven of the twelve hypotheses in this study received some degree of support; however, many of the predicted relationships did not emerge and effect sizes were generally low (i.e., r^2 ranging from .01 to .12). It appears that the construct validity of the employment goals concept vis-à-vis the individual difference variables examined in this study is more complex than first thought. In-depth explanations of the results of the hypotheses tests appear in the next chapter.

Nonetheless, the pattern of results in the hypothesis tests buttresses the positive results in the scale development work that was the primary purpose of this study. Specifically, the differential relationships that emerged with each individual difference variable support the notion that each type of employment goal is a distinct and viable category of expectations associated with the psychological contract. Further construct validity for Relational, Transactional, and Personalized Employment Goals continued in Study Two.

Study Two – Scale Development

Although the primary purpose of this study was not intended to be scale development, the scale properties of the Personalized Employment Goals subscale were in need of further examination following Study One. Therefore, exploratory analyses were conducted for this scale. Reliability estimates were then calculated on a holdout sample for this subscale only.

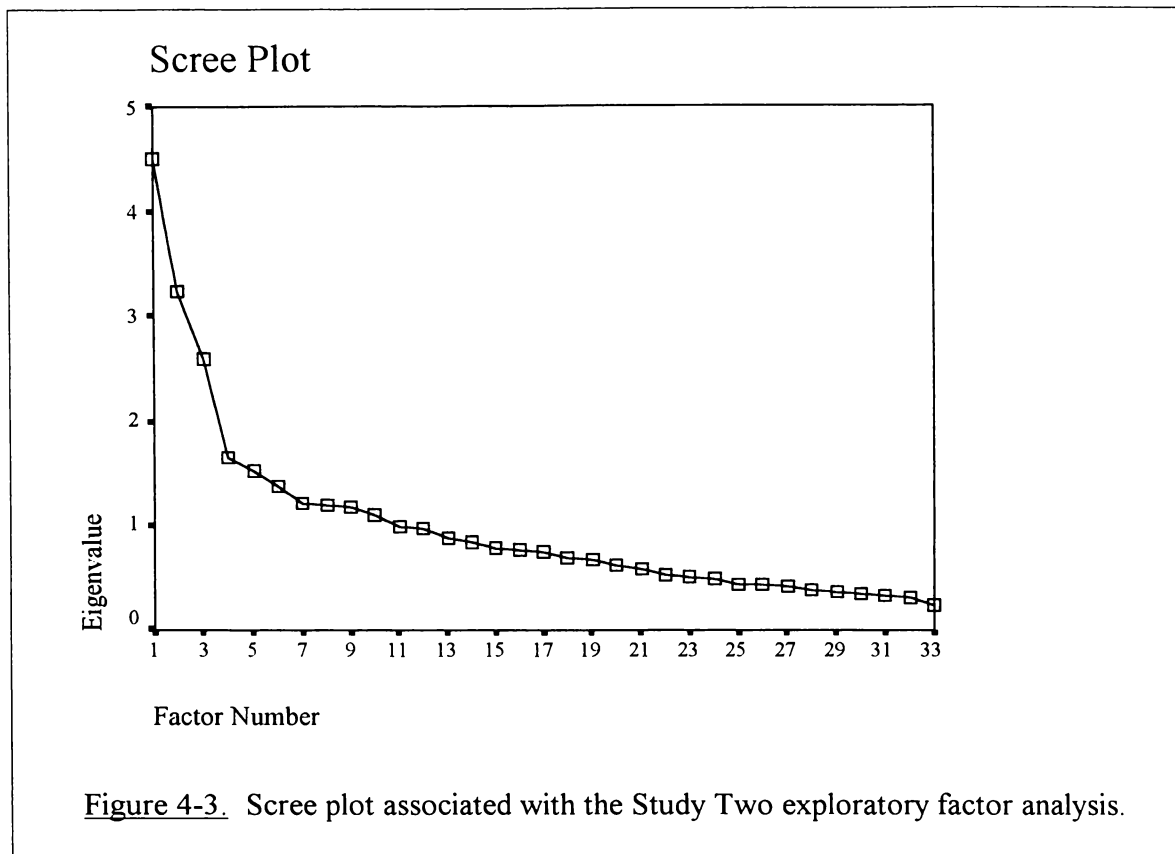
Then, in order to cross-validate the successful scale development work in study one, estimates of internal consistency reliability on the Relational and Transactional subscales were calculated, and items from all subscales were fit to a confirmatory factor analysis using the entire sample to verify the measure's structure.

Exploratory Factor Analyses

As in Study One, the sample was split into a scale construction sample and a holdout sample. Using the scale construction sample of 203, all items from the Employment Goal Questionnaire were subjected to a series of two exploratory factor analyses. The first exploratory factor analysis used a principal axis extraction and an oblique rotation (i.e., Direct Oblimin) in order to ascertain the correlations between the factors. These correlations were low (i.e., the correlations between the relational and each of the other two factors were near zero and the correlation between the transactional and personalized factor was .13), so an orthogonal, varimax rotation was then used. As discussed previously, this rotation facilitates simple structure, and is the preferred orthogonal rotation (Finch & West, 1997).

As in both previous studies, factors were retained primarily on the basis of theoretical expectations (i.e., three factors); however, eigenvalues greater than one and evidence gained from a scree plot were also examined (cf. Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). The scree plot associated with these analyses appears in Figure 4-3.

Focusing only on the results for the Personalized subscale, items were selected based upon appropriate factor loadings of .40 and above, with no cross-loadings above .30. In one case, (i.e., Personalized Employment Goals item number 14) an item was retained with a loading of .36; cross loadings on this item were near zero, so it was deemed appropriate to retain the item.



Despite valiant attempts to increase the number of items loading on the Personalized Employment Goals subscale, only seven items loaded appropriately given the criteria above. The results associated with the three-factor model and Varimax rotation appear in Table 4-14.

Reliability

A holdout sample of 107 participants was used to calculate coefficient alpha on the seven surviving items in the Personalized Employment Goals subscale. This holdout sample provided an independent estimate of internal-consistency reliability. The seven

Table 4-14

Study Two: Exploratory Factor Analysis (Principal Axis Extraction with Varimax
Rotation)

Items	Factor Loadings		
	R	T	P
It is important to me that my supervisor treats me like family. (R.17)	.606	-	-
I owe it to my employer to stay as long as possible. (R.28)	.555	-	-
People should use the word “loyalty” to describe their relationships with organizations. (R.35)	.520	-	-
It is important to me that my supervisor treats me like family. (R.38)	.506	-	-
Job security is more important than most people think. (R.12)	.498	-	-
To me, working in an organization is like being a member of a family. (R.5)	.457	-.302	-
I would like to stay with only one or two organizations until I retire. (R.31)	.443	-	-
I measure my career success by my tenure in the organization. (R.13)	.404	.383	-
I hope to gain promotions within a company the longer my tenure with the company. (R.2)	-	-	-
The only training that is of value to me is that which helps me earn my paycheck. (T.30)	-	.641	-
I am hesitant to do too many things not required by my job description. (T.10)	-	.617	-
It is not worth it to attend training that doesn’t directly help me on my job. (T.26)	-	.616	-
Unless spelled out in a contract, I wouldn’t make promises to my employer. (T.6)	-	.581	-

Table 4-14. Continued.

	Factor Loadings		
	R	T	P
It is important not to get too involved in non-compensated work activities. (T.1)	-	.564	-
I work to achieve the purely short-term goals of my job. (T.8)	-	.526	-
A job is just an agreement one has with their employer to provide work for money and benefits. (T.37)	-	.481	-
The quality of pay and benefits I receive is more important than the work I do. (T.18)	-	.421	-
I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours. (T.15)	-	-	-
As my personal career goals change, I will change jobs and/or organizations. (P.23)	-	.307	.578
When I am no longer learning new skills, I am likely to change jobs. (P.4)	-	-	.467
I work primarily to gain experience and knowledge. (P.34)	-	-	.445
An organization should be viewed as a stepping-stone in one's career development. (P.24)	-	-	.426
I expect to receive training in an organization that I can transfer to new jobs or organizations. (P.21)	-	-	.423
It is important to me that my supervisor recognizes my desires to learn and grow. (P.11)	-	-	.402
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for growth and development. (P.14)	-	-	.357

Note. Items are omitted from the Personalized Employment Goals subscale that did not manifest loadings on any factor. R=Relational, T=Transactional, P=Personalized.

Numbers in parentheses are study two item numbers. Dashes (-) indicate that the loading was below 0.4.

Personalized items retained in this study did not attain the acceptable level of .70 as established by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) for new scales. Rather, coefficient alpha for this scale was estimated at .57.

Given that only seven items loaded properly on this scale, it is not surprising to see such a low coefficient alpha. To increase the number of items on the scale and therefore increase its reliability, it was deemed appropriate to include items that had been generated to reflect this subscale, but had not properly loaded on any of the three Employment Goals subscales. That is, the non-loading items written to reflect the Personalized Employment Goals subscale were included in the scale if they did not cross-load on the Relational or Transactional subscales. Two additional items (Personalized items 3 and 16) fit this description. By including these items, the coefficient alpha reaches the more acceptable level of .63. Moreover, the scale scores created by the 7- and 9-item subscales are highly correlated ($r = .87, p < 0.01$), and each of the nine items loaded above .30 when subjected to a unidimensional, principal components analysis. This supplementary factor analysis appears in Table 4-15.

As the scale development of the Relational and Transactional scales had been successful in Study One, internal consistency reliability estimates were calculated using the entire sample. Both scales reached acceptable levels of internal consistency. Coefficient alpha for the Relational Employment Goals subscale was .75; coefficient alpha for the Transactional Employment Goals subscale was .77.

Table 4-15

Unidimensional Exploratory Factor Analysis for Personalized Items

Item	Loading ^a
As my personal career goals change, I will change jobs and/or organizations. (P.23)	.676
An organization should be viewed as a stepping-stone in one's career development. (P.24)	.596
I work primarily to gain experience and knowledge. (P.34)	.588
When I am no longer learning new skills, I am likely to change jobs. (P.4)	.520
I expect to receive training in an organization that I can transfer to new jobs or organizations. (P.21)	.481
I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for growth and development. (P.14)	.472
It is important to me that my supervisor recognizes my desires to learn and grow. (P.11)	.367
I prefer not to consider how long my relationship with an organization will be until I consider growth opportunities available. (P.3)	.362
I disregard organizational definitions of success in favor of my own definition of success. (P.36)*	.348
The knowledge and skills gained from working are more important than the specific work that I do. (P.29)*	.306
I am loyal to the idea of achieving my own personal success. (P.16)	.303

Note. Numbers in parentheses are study two item numbers. Items that did not load above .30 are not included in the table.

^aThis component explained 17.36% of the variance in the items.

*These items were omitted from the final usable scale due to cross-loadings on the other two subscales.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Finally, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the revised scale using the entire sample of 310 participants. Results from this analysis appear in Table 4-16. The most acceptable fit indices for the present study show adequate fit (e.g., RMSEA = 0.062; DF ratio = 2.18). It is important to note that the correlation between the Transactional and Personalized factor ($\Phi = .33$) and the correlation between the Transactional and Relational factor ($\Phi = .30$) were moderate. On the other hand, the correlation between the Personalized and Relational factor was small ($\Phi = .17$).

Study Two – Hypothesis Tests

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between each of the Employment Goals subscales and attitudinal and behavioral variables, namely, organizational commitment, participation in training and development activities, and career self-management. As in the first study, unit-weighted scale scores were used for these analyses. Moreover, data was collected from a second source with regard to the following career self-management behavioral variables: participation in training, feedback seeking, and job mobility preparedness. Means and standard deviations of aforementioned substantive variables and continuous demographic variables appear in Table 4-17.

Table 4-16

Study Two: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Items	Factors		
	Relational	Transactional	Personalized
R.28	0.969		
R.17	0.948		
R.22	0.880		
R.13	0.838		
R.35	0.804		
R.31	0.655		
R.12	0.558		
R.5	0.507		
R.2	0.391		
T.26		1.063	
T.30		0.906	
T.10		0.887	
T.1		0.860	
T.6		0.859	
T.8		0.815	
T.37		0.775	
T.18		0.757	
T.15		0.684	
P.23			0.903
P.24			0.843
P.34			0.691
P.21			0.655
P.4			0.593
P.3			0.519
P.14			0.457
P.16			0.346
P.11			0.308

Note. Numbers in parentheses are study one item numbers. $\chi^2 = 699.56$, df = 321, p =

0.00, df Ratio = 2.18, CFI = .74, RMSEA = .06.

Table 4-17

Means and Standard Deviations for Study Two Variables

	N Reporting	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Relational Goals	310	2.22	7.00	5.03	0.85
Transactional Goals	310	1.22	6.78	3.02	0.97
Personalized Goals	310	2.67	7.00	4.68	0.76
Affective Commitment	307	1.00	7.00	4.55	1.16
Calculative Commitment	307	1.25	6.50	4.27	1.01
Normative Commitment	307	1.38	6.88	4.57	0.95
Training Hours Per Year	243	0	1000	54.57	109.95
Feedback Seeking	301	0.33	5.00	2.69	0.94
Job Mobility Preparedness	301	0.00	5.00	2.22	0.86
Currency of Resume	299	1	5	3.41	1.34
Second source: Amount of Training	138	1	5	3.54	0.99
Second source: Feedback Seeking	139	1.00	5.00	3.28	0.85
Second source: Job Mobility Preparedness	136	1.00	5.00	2.51	0.92

Preliminary Analyses

Power. For the hypothesis tests, the usable sample of 310 provided acceptable power. For a moderately small correlation, a power coefficient of over 90% is obtained (Borenstein, Rothstein, & Cohen, 1997).

Relationships with demographic variables. Again, some relationships emerged between the variables of interest in this study (i.e., Relational, Transactional, and Personalized Employment Goals) and demographic variables collected from each of the participants. Correlations appear in Table 4-18. ANOVA results for categorical variables appear in Tables 4-19 through 4-21.

Table 4-18

Study Two: Correlations among Employment Goals and Demographic Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Rel. Goals	1.00					
2. Trans. Goals	.212*	1.00				
3. Pers. Goals	.100	.209**	1.00			
4. Age	-.099	-.083	-.245**	1.00		
5. Org. Tenure	.052	.108	-.169**	.467**	1.00	
6. Job Tenure	.025	.114	-.133*	.405**	.696**	1.00

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 4-19

Study Two: One-way ANOVA on the Effect of Gender upon Employment Goals

	Source	SS	df	MS	F
Relational Goals	Between	0.19	1	0.19	0.27
	Within	196.31	278	0.71	
	Total	196.50	279		
Transactional Goals	Between	6.78	1	6.78	7.46**
	Within	252.61	278	0.91	
	Total	259.39	279		
Personalized Goals	Between	0.67	1	0.67	1.17
	Within	159.25	278	0.57	
	Total	159.92	279		

* $p < .05$, ** $p < 0.01$

Table 4-20

Study Two: One-way ANOVA on the Effect of Race upon Employment Goals

	Source	SS	df	MS	F
Relational Goals	Between	8.35	3	2.78	3.96**
	Within	195.17	278	0.70	
	Total	203.52	281		
Transactional Goals	Between	16.04	3	5.35	6.07**
	Within	244.83	278	0.88	
	Total	260.87	281		
Personalized Goals	Between	1.94	3	0.65	1.14
	Within	157.07	278	0.57	
	Total	159.00	281		

** $p < .01$

Table 4-21

Study Two: One-way ANOVA on the Effect of Education upon Employment Goals

	Source	SS	df	MS	F
Relational Goals	Between	21.41	3	0.49	10.82**
	Within	182.78	277	0.58	
	Total	204.19	280		
Transactional Goals	Between	4.46	3	7.14	1.58
	Within	260.66	277	0.66	
	Total	265.12	280		
Personalized Goals	Between	1.48	3	0.49	0.86
	Within	159.27	277	0.58	
	Total	160.75	280		

** $p < .01$

In this study, age was related only to Personalized employment goals ($r = -.25$, $p < .01$). For reasons discussed in the previous section, this result was not unexpected. It appears that younger employees are more likely to embrace training and experience as acceptable currencies of exchange in an employment relationship. Personalized Employment Goals were also negatively related to both job ($r = -.13$, $p < .05$) and organizational tenure ($r = -.17$, $p < .01$). One interpretation of this relationship is that those holding Personalized Employment Goals may not prefer to accrue tenure with any one organization; they may voluntarily turnover in favor of experiences and skills to be gained in other organizations. However, because age is positively related to organizational tenure ($r = .47$, $p < .01$) and job tenure ($r = .41$, $p < .01$), the nature of this relationship is not completely discernable. Accordingly, it may also be those individuals

that haven't had the opportunity to accrue tenure are also younger employees that happen to embrace Personalized Employment Goals. Thus, the correlation between organizational tenure and Personalized Employment Goals may simply be an artifact. It appears that the latter explanation is more appropriate. When controlling for age, the correlations between organizational and job tenure and Personalized Employment Goals are small and non-significant ($r = -.08$, ns and $r = -.03$, ns, respectively).

Race, education, and gender also manifested some relationships with the variables of interest as determined by ANOVA. In particular, Relational and Transactional Employment Goals showed overall relationships with race. Using Tukey's post-hoc test to further examine this relationship, it appears that those of Hispanic descent ($M = 5.88$, $SD = 0.72$) score higher on the Relational Employment Goals subscale than do Caucasians ($M = 4.98$, $SD = 0.84$). A similar pattern exists with Transactional Employment Goals: those of Hispanic descent ($M = 3.88$, $SD = 1.08$) score higher than Caucasians ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 0.93$), as do those reporting an "other" race ($M = 4.02$, $SD = .89$). The underlying cause of this relationship cannot be adequately discerned; however, its presence was noted throughout the hypotheses tests. Only one hypothesized relationship changed when controlling for race; Hypothesis 6c was no longer supported due to a non-significant correlation when controlling for race. This is discussed below in the section pertaining to Hypothesis 6.

Education also showed a significant overall relationship with Relational Employment Goals. Tukey's post-hoc test was used to examine this relationship. Simply stated, those with High School and Associate's Degrees had significantly higher Relational Employment Goals ($M = 5.25$, $SD = 0.85$ and $M = 5.12$, $SD = 0.78$,

respectively) than those with Bachelor's and Master's degrees ($M = 4.67$, $SD = 0.74$ and $M = 4.56$, $SD = 0.85$, respectively). Again, it appears that those with more years of education place less emphasis on job security and loyalty. This is understandable, given that those individuals are most likely able to find another job quickly under conditions of job insecurity.

Finally, Transactional Employment Goals were again significantly related to gender. Following up the ANOVA with an independent samples t-test, it was shown that males scored significantly higher on the Transactional Employment Goals subscale than did females ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 1.02$ and $M = 2.75$, $SD = 0.65$, respectively). Thus, it appears that females put less emphasis on money and benefits in their relationships with organizations. The hypothesis tests concerning Transactional Employment Goals were also examined while controlling for gender. For the most part, this precautionary measure did not change the overall nature of the results, with the exception of one correlation mentioned below. The quantifiable degree of change in the correlation was negligible; however, one relationship predicted in Hypothesis 7c failed to attain statistical significance when controlling for gender. This relationship is noted in the next section.

Relationships with Sample. Because three separate samples were used, the relationship between employment goals and sample was also examined. ANOVA results for this investigation appear in Table 4-22. Sample affected the mean levels of the Personalized and Relational goals subscales. Tukey's post-hoc tests elucidated the following relationships. As a whole, the MBA sample scored lower on the Relational Employment Goals subscale ($M = 4.40$, $SD = 0.47$ versus $M = 5.10$, $SD = 0.85$ and $M = 5.03$, $SD = 0.85$) and higher on the Personalized Employment Goals subscale ($M = 5.27$,

Table 4-22

Study Two: One-way ANOVA on the Effect of Sample upon Employment Goals

	Source	SS	df	MS	F
Relational Goals	Between	9.77	2	4.88	6.98**
	Within	214.92	307	0.70	
	Total	224.69	309		
Transactional Goals	Between	2.76	2	1.38	1.46
	Within	290.62	307	0.95	
	Total	293.37	309		
Personalized Goals	Between	5.85	2	2.93	5.27**
	Within	170.27	307	0.56	
	Total	176.12	309		

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

SD = 0.46 versus M = 4.64, SD = 0.77 and M = 4.74, SD = 0.63) than the other two samples. This is not unexpected, as those pursuing an MBA degree, particularly after they have gained some work experience, value training and growth and may be less attached to organizations than those without an advanced degree. Moreover, the other two samples received their surveys through internal company mail. To the extent that subjects in the two organizational samples perceived a relationship between their employing organization and their survey responses, they may have endorsed more Relational Employment Goals items. As when controlling for gender, one relationship predicted in Hypothesis 7c failed to attain statistical significance when controlling for sample.

Hypothesis 5

Hypotheses 5a through 5c dealt with the relationship between organizational commitment and the three types of employment goals under study. Three facets of organizational commitment were examined: affective, continuance, and normative (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Moreover, two subfactors (i.e., personal sacrifice and lack of available alternatives) of continuance commitment found in previous research were investigated separately. (See Chapters 2 and 3 and Appendix F for more information on these factors). A full correlation matrix including all Study Two variables appears in Table 4-23.

Hypothesis 5a dealt with the association between Relational Employment Goals and organizational commitment. As hypothesized, one's score on the Relational Employment Goals subscale was positively related to affective commitment ($r = .37, p < .01$) and normative commitment ($r = .63, p < .01$). Counter to this hypothesis, however, Relational Employment Goals were not negatively related to continuance organizational commitment; rather, they were significantly positively related ($r = .29, p < .01$). Further analysis elucidates this finding, however. Specifically, Relational Employment Goals were much more highly related to the personal sacrifice subfactor of continuance commitment ($r = .31, p < .01$) than to the lack of available alternatives subfactor of continuance commitment ($r = .17, p < .01$), indicating that individuals with Relational Employment Goals felt bound to the organization for internal rather than external reasons. Despite this, these findings remain at odds with that which was hypothesized. Accordingly, Hypothesis 5a is only partially supported.

Table 4-23.
Study Two: Correlations among Substantive Variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Relational Goals	1.00											
2. Transactional Goals	.212**	1.00										
3. Personalized Goals	.100	.209**	1.00									
4. Affective Commitment	.366**	-.197**	-.166**	1.00								
5. Calculative Commitment	.285**	.145*	-.021	.161**	1.00							
6. Normative Comm.	.627**	-.102	-.148**	.574**	.267**	1.00						
7. Training Hours/Year	.047	-.048	.169**	.132*	.059	.061	1.00					
8. Feedback Seeking	.108	-.245**	.125*	.242**	-.034	.107	.220**	1.00				
9. Job Mobility Preparedness	-.050	.035	.259**	-.243**	.002	-.180**	-.012	.341**	1.00			
10. Currency of Resume	-.179**	-.140*	.162**	-.217**	-.154**	-.249**	-.080	.067	.219**	1.00		
11. Second source: Training	-.193*	-.283**	.125	-.021	-.051	-.125	.188*	.316**	.139	.069	1.00	
12. Second source: Feedback	-.187*	-.369**	.002	-.021	.013	-.052	.150	.453**	.299**	.130	.586**	1.00
13. Second source: Mobility	.020	-.193*	.146	-.004	.141	-.055	.031	.234**	.413**	.014	.284**	.469**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Completely contrary to Hypothesis 5a, Hypothesis 5b posited that Transactional Employment Goals would be negatively related to affective and normative commitments but positively related to continuance commitment. Indeed, Transactional Employment Goals manifested negative relationships with both affective ($r = -.20, p < .01$) and normative ($r = -.10, ns$) commitments; however, the latter relationship did not attain statistical significance. Moreover, Transactional Employment Goals were positively related to continuance commitment ($r = .15, p < .05$). This relationship held with the logical subfactor of continuance commitment, lack of available alternatives ($r = .17, p < .01$), as well. The relationship with personal sacrifice was non-significant ($r = .08, ns$). Accordingly, Hypothesis 5b is only partially supported.

Finally, Hypothesis 5c predicted that Personalized Employment Goals would show a positive relationship with affective commitment, but negative relationships with continuance and normative commitments. Again, this hypothesis received partial support. As predicted, Personalized Employment Goals manifested negative relationships with normative ($r = -.15, p < .05$) and continuance ($r = -.02, ns$) commitments, although the latter relationship was non-significant. Furthermore, neither relationship with the subfactors of continuance commitment was significant. Contrary to this hypothesis, Personalized Employment Goals showed a negative relationship with affective commitment as well ($r = -.17, p < .05$). Comments on one conceivable cause of the latter finding can be found in Chapter 5.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 dealt with participation in voluntary training and development as a function of employment goals. Both the participant and the “other” rater that the

participant identified as described in Chapter 3 provided an estimate of training participation. The participant was asked to estimate the number of hours spent per year in training and development. The second-source rater was asked to rate this person's participation on a 5-point frequency scale. Both of these operationalizations of training and development activity were considered in the hypothesis tests.

Hypotheses 6a predicted that Relational Employment Goals would be positively related to participation in training and development activity. Hypotheses 6a, although in the appropriate direction using the participant's estimate of training hours, did not reach statistical significance ($r = .04$, ns). Moreover, when using the second-source rating of training activity, the relationship between Relational Employment Goals and training is in the opposite direction ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$). Hypothesis 6a was not supported.

Hypothesis 6b assumed a negative relationship with Transactional Employment Goals. This relationship did not attain statistical significance using the participant's estimate of training hours ($r = -.05$, ns). However, the relationship between Transactional Employment Goals and the second source ratings of training activity is in the predicted direction and is statistically significant ($r = -.28$, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 6b received partial support.

Finally, Hypothesis 6c, positing that Personalized Employment Goals would be positively related to participation in training and development, was supported using the participant's estimate of training hours ($r = .17$, $p < .01$). However, it should be noted that this relationship does not hold when controlling for race ($r = .06$, ns), nor does it remain when using the second-source ratings of training participation ($r = .13$, ns). Again, this hypothesis received only partial support.

Research Question

Data was also collected on the types of developmental activity that individuals pursue. Specifically, participants were asked to report the frequency with which they've participated in 17 different types of developmental activity, including participation in activities associated with job experience, engaging in interpersonal relationships to develop oneself and advance one's career, taking courses or seminars, or engaging in general development efforts. To explore the relationships between participation in various types of career development activity and employment goals, four separate multiple regression equations were fit to the data. Multiple regression analyses appear in Table 4-24.

In sum, these results show that Transactional Employment Goals are negatively related to participation in developmental efforts of all kinds, as all beta-coefficients for Transactional Employment Goals are negative and significant. Those with higher Personalized Employment Goals predictably reported participating in all types of developmental activities; however, these relationships were less strong across all four categories of developmental activity. Results concerning Relational Employment Goals were less clear-cut. In each case, the beta-coefficient was negative, indicating a lower likelihood of participating as Relational Employment Goals are increasingly endorsed. However, these relationships were only significant with regard to classes and seminars and job experiences; Relational Employment Goals were not predictive of fostering instrumental interpersonal relationships or participating in more general developmental efforts.

Table 4-24

Multiple Regression Analyses Examining the Relationships Between Employment Goals and Participation in Various Types of Developmental Activities

Type of Activity	Regression Component	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Model R-Square
		B	Standard Error	Beta	T	
Class/Seminar	Constant	2.11	0.46		4.64**	0.10
	Relational	-0.16	0.07	-0.13	-2.30*	
	Transactional	-0.27	0.06	-0.26	-4.62**	
	Personalized	0.17	0.08	.12	2.22*	
Interpersonal Relationships	Constant	2.64	0.58		4.57**	0.15
	Relational	-0.13	0.08	-0.09	-1.58	
	Transactional	-0.49	0.08	-0.36	-6.56**	
	Personalized	0.34	0.10	0.19	3.55**	0.11
Job Experiences	Constant	1.32	0.43		3.05**	
	Relational	-0.21	0.06	-0.18	-3.29**	
	Transactional	-0.20	0.06	-0.18	-3.30**	
	Personalized	0.27	0.07	0.21	3.78**	
General Development Efforts	Constant	3.34	0.71		4.69**	0.13
	Relational	-0.15	0.10	-0.08	-1.43	
	Transactional	-0.55	0.09	-0.33	-5.96**	
	Personalized	0.29	0.12	0.14	2.47*	

*p < .05, **p < .01

It should be noted that the variance accounted for by each regression equation was very low in all cases (R^2 ranging from .10 to .15). It appears that employment goals have little relationship with the amount of training and development undertaken (as shown with the partial support of Hypothesis 6), and have very little impact upon the types of developmental activity that individuals may choose.

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 pertained to the relationship between employment goals and career self-management activity. Career self-management is made up of developmental feedback seeking, job mobility preparedness, and the degree to which one's resume is current. Again, both the participant and the "other" rater that the participant identified as described in Chapter 3 provided an estimate of career self-management activity. These second-source raters provided ratings on feedback seeking and job mobility preparedness; thus, both operationalizations of these variables were considered when testing Hypotheses 7a through 7c.

Hypothesis 7a predicted that Relational Employment Goals would be positively related to developmental feedback seeking, but negatively related to job mobility preparedness and the currency of the participant's resume. While in the appropriate direction, Relational Employment Goals were not significantly related to developmental feedback seeking ($r = .11$, ns) or job mobility preparedness ($r = -.05$, ns), but were significantly negatively related to resume currency ($r = -.18$, $p < .05$) when using the participant's ratings of these variables. When using the second-source ratings, the relationship with developmental feedback seeking was in the opposite direction ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$), and again, the relationship with job mobility preparedness was non-significant (r

= .02, *ns*). Thus, this hypothesis received minimal support, evidenced only by the negative relationship with resume currency.

Hypothesis 7b posited that Transactional Employment Goals would be negatively related to developmental feedback seeking, but positively related to job mobility and resume preparedness. When considering the participant's own reports of these variables, the first relationship is supported; a negative correlation occurred between Transactional Employment Goals and developmental feedback seeking ($r = -.25, p < .01$). This relationship held when using the second-source ratings of feedback seeking ($r = -.37, p < .01$). However, the hypothesized relationships with job mobility and resume preparedness were not supported. When using the participant's responses, the relationship with job mobility preparedness was non-significant ($r = .04, ns$) and the relationship with resume currency was in the opposite direction ($r = -.14, p < .05$). Moreover the second-source rating of job mobility preparedness also produced a negative relationship with Transactional Employment Goals ($r = -.19, p < .05$). Accordingly, Hypothesis 7b attained only partial support, particularly with regard to developmental feedback seeking.

Personalized Employment Goals were hypothesized to be positively related to developmental feedback seeking, job mobility preparedness, and resume currency in Hypothesis 7c. This hypothesis was supported when using the participant's ratings of career self management, but was not supported by the second source ratings. Specifically, when using the participant's data, the correlations with developmental feedback seeking ($r = .13, p < .05$), job mobility preparedness ($r = .26, p < .01$), and resume currency ($r = .16, p < .01$) were all positive and significant. Note that when

controlling for gender and sample, however, the first two correlations became non-significant ($r = .11$, ns and $r = .09$, ns, respectively). Additionally, when considering the second-source ratings, the correlations with developmental feedback seeking ($r = .00$, ns) and job mobility preparedness ($r = .15$, ns) were non-significant. Once again, this hypothesis received only partial support.

Summary

In summary, the Relational and Transactional Employment Goals subscales continued to be viable throughout Study Two as evidenced by the successful cross-validation of reliability and an acceptable confirmatory factor analysis. Complete success with regard to the Personalized Employment Goals subscale remained elusive despite actions taken at the conclusion of Study One to increase its viability. Nonetheless, a 9-item scale, though unreliable, was retained for use with the hypothesis tests. This is considered a conservative scenario, as results found with the Personalized Employment Goals subscale would be attenuated rather than inflated under conditions of low reliability.

Eight of nine hypotheses received some degree of support, and again the bi-directional correlational results further support the scale development work carried out in this and previous studies. On the other hand, an exploratory analysis of the research question did not produce results of interest. All of the results and some supplementary analyses are discussed in further detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The current research was designed to serve a dual purpose. First, it intended to measure of the concept of employment goals as put forth by Shore and Tetrick (1994). Employment goals can be defined as those objectives that an individual seeks to accomplish through the eventual psychological contract established with an organization. Although a key antecedent to the formulation of such a psychological contract, this concept had yet to be operationalized. Of particular interest was the capacity of employment goals to encompass the new career mentality. Thus, the traditional content areas of psychological contracts (i.e., transactional and relational) were operationalized, as was a new content area based upon the new career mentality (i.e., personalized employment goals). While several authors have speculated about the ramifications of this new career mentality, several empirical questions cannot be answered until the new career mentality is reasonably measured.

This dissertation, then, was comprised of two related efforts, both in the interest of new scale creation, that were carried out over three studies. The first effort was an iterative scale development process in which items were generated, content analyzed, and then tested and revised using three independent samples. The objectives of this effort were to create three distinct employment goals subscales (i.e., relational, transactional, and personalized) that had acceptable internal consistency and factor structure.

The second effort was to examine the convergent and discriminant validity of the scales using predictions based upon available theory and past research. Specifically, each of the subscales was validated against individual difference variables, attitudes, and behaviors in one of two successive studies. Each of these efforts is discussed below, logically beginning with scale development.

Scale Development

As described in Chapters 3 and 4, the development of the Relational and Transactional employment goals subscales proceeded according to plan. An adequate number of acceptable items emerged at each step in the process, and the viability of the resulting scales was successfully cross-validated in both a same-study holdout sample and an independent sample. The Personalized Employment Goals subscale, on the other hand, did not attain an acceptable estimate of reliability, and a complete, coherent set of items (as determined by factor analysis) remained elusive.

Relational and Transactional Employment Goals

Two sets of twenty-five items each were originally created to measure Relational and Transactional Employment Goals. Following the Pilot Study, each subset of items was reduced to fifteen, and ultimately they each contained nine items. Internal consistency was estimated using independent samples in Study One and Study Two. For Relational Employment Goals, these estimates were .79 and .75, respectively. For Transactional Employment Goals, internal consistency reliability in these two studies was estimated at .81 and .77. Thus, viable subscales were created for these two constructs. The final set of items for each of these subscales appears in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1

Final Employment Goal Questionnaire

Dimension	Items
Relational	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It is important to me that my supervisor treats me like family. 2. I owe it to my employer to stay as long as possible. 3. People should use the word "loyalty" to describe their relationships with organizations. 4. It is important to me that my supervisor treats me like family. 5. Job security is more important than most people think. 6. To me, working in an organization is like being a member of a family. 7. I would like to stay with only one or two organizations until I retire. 8. I measure my career success by my tenure in the organization. 9. I hope to gain promotions within a company the longer my tenure with the company.
Dimension	Items
Transactional	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It is important not to get too involved in non-compensated work activities. 2. I work to achieve the purely short-term goals of my job. 3. A job is just an agreement one has with their employer to provide work for money and benefits. 4. The quality of pay and benefits I receive is more important than the work I do. 5. I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours. 6. The only training that is of value to me is that which helps me earn my paycheck. 7. I am hesitant to do too many things not required by my job description.

Table 5-1. Continued.

Dimension	Items
Transactional	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>8. It is not worth it to attend training that doesn't directly help me on my job. <li>9. Unless spelled out in a contract, I wouldn't make promises to my employer.
Dimension	Items
Personalized	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. As my personal career goals change, I will change jobs and/or organizations. <li>2. An organization should be viewed as a stepping-stone in one's career development. <li>3. I work primarily to gain experience and knowledge. <li>4. When I am no longer learning new skills, I am likely to change jobs. <li>5. I expect to receive training in an organization that I can transfer to new jobs or organizations. <li>6. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for growth and development. <li>7. It is important to me that my supervisor recognizes my desires to learn and grow. <li>8. I prefer not to consider how long my relationship with an organization will be until I consider growth opportunities available. <li>9. I am loyal to the idea of achieving my own personal success.

Personalized Employment Goals

As with the other two subscales, twenty-five items were originally created to measure Personalized Employment Goals. The Pilot Study produced 10 viable items, and five additional items were added to increase the construct's coverage to parallel that theorized in Chapter 2. However, the initial factor analyses conducted for Study One showed that this scale was likely two distinct factors, one focusing on the individual's relationship with the organization and the other focused on the employability and career self-management components of the new career mentality. Remarkably, it is this unique combination of factors characterizing the new career mentality that make it most intriguing – individuals are truly attached to organizations, taking advantage of challenging job opportunities while contributing fully to the accomplishment of the organization's goals. However, all the while, these same individuals strive to maintain employability, indeed nimbleness, when it comes to organizational movement.

This duality has not gone unnoticed in the theoretical works that formed the foundation for the Personalized Employment Goals construct. Hall and Mirvis (1996) note that either party has the freedom to bring an end to the employment relationship (similar to a transactional orientation), but it may come to pass that any particular relationship with an organization can become a long-term and highly valued one (similar to a relational orientation). Hall goes on to note, "...this is something other than simply a relational or transactional contract" (1996, p. 22). In a theoretical sense, it seems the ultimate form of the new career mentality has yet to be determined with regard to the psychological contract. Nevertheless, a measure of the existing new career mentality was

forged for this study. Regrettably, the hybridization and extension of relational and transactional relationships that guided the operationalization of Personalized Employment Goals in Study One was not wholly successful. Rather, the scale development results in Study One forced a choice between these two competing components.

The subfactor that emerged in Study One that captured the individual's relationship with the organization was deemed similar to the Relational Employment Goals concept; thus, it was concluded that the career self-management subfactor was most distinguishable and therefore would be pursued in Study Two. Tactically speaking, the seven items that survived the Study One analyses that were also congruent with the career self-management focus were carried forward to Study Two, in addition to several items resurrected from the original, twenty-five item scale. These items were selected for use on the basis of their similarity to the narrowed Personalized Employment Goals focus: Individuals exchange the management of their own career for skills and training that are marketable to other organizations.

In Study Two, the Personalized Employment Goals subscale items emerged as a distinct factor, as they had in other studies. The scree plot showed rather convincingly that a factor reasonably independent from Relational and Transactional Employment Goals existed; however, item loadings were only acceptable for seven of the sixteen items included on the scale. The item content of those acceptable items was compared to that of those items that did not factor as expected; however, the difference between the two groups of items was not intuitively discernable. As can be seen in Table 4-6, each of the 16 items included in the Study Two survey conceivably reflected the narrowed focus of

Personalized Employment Goals mentioned above. Moreover, the set of items were assumed to be reasonably unidimensional, as shown by the principal component analysis in Table 4-6. However, these items were not subjected to a content analysis following the conceptual shift that occurred based upon the empirical evidence garnered in Study One. It is certainly possible that confirmatory bias on the part of the researcher misguided the creation of a subscale that concentrated on career self-management and employability. As will be discussed later in this chapter, a viable Personalized Employment Goals subscale did not result in this work; however, the complexity of the construct has become much more apparent following these studies.

Nevertheless, the seven items that were retained from the factor analysis, in addition to two items that did not manifest strong cross-loadings with Relational and Transactional Employment Goals, were used to calculate scale scores for the Study Two hypothesis tests. These nine items appear in Table 5-1. Reliability for this subscale again did not attain an acceptable level, even for research purposes (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Capitalizing on the coefficient alpha gained by including two additional items, the reliability estimate was only .63.

Scale Development Summary

Although one of the major objectives of this dissertation was not accomplished, sound measures of Relational and Transactional Employment Goals were created. This represents a major contribution to the psychological contract literature, as this important precursor to psychological contract formulation had not yet been operationalized. Indeed, to test such developmental models of psychological contract formation as that put

forth by Shore and Tetrick (1994), it is crucial that this construct, representing contract expectations independent of one's interactions with organizations, is measurable. Moreover, much of the current focus in the psychological contract realm is with contract breach (cf. McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson, 1995; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; 2000; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 1999; 2000); it seems warranted that one outcome of contract breach would be a revision in one's employment goals. The generally accepted scale development methodology used to create these scales, in addition to the convergent and discriminant validity results discussed in the next section, permits their immediate use in such investigations.

These positive results notwithstanding, this study did not accomplish its original goal to measure the new career mentality via the employment goals concept. Rather, the operationalization of the construct remained elusive. At least two explanations for this are reasonable. First, it is possible, although not necessarily probable that the new career mentality as described by innumerable authors is not viable. Indeed, it could be that the model new career mentality as embodied by the boundaryless career (Arthur, 1994; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), protean career (Hall, 1996; Hall and Mirvis, 1996; Mirvis & Hall, 1994), free agency (Gould, Weiner, & Levin, 1997; Hirsch, 1987; Waterman, Waterman, & Collard, 1994), and spiral career (Brousseau, 1988) is more prescriptive than descriptive. In other words, these authors could be describing the preferred state of the individual's career following such frame-breaking events as downsizing and organizational restructuring. More fundamentally, it is open to question whether these

works on the new career mentality are even worthy of scientific study. It is doubtful that the new career mentality could be considered “theory,” as it is described in such a broad manner that empirical refutation becomes difficult. This lack of falsifiability contravenes our notions of adequate scientific theory (Bacharach, 1989).

That being said, the formulation of the supposed new career mentality by these authors seemingly does have utility, a second key characteristic of adequate theory (Bacharach, 1989). Specifically, it both explains and predicts behavior in the new industrial landscape. In explanation, it describes a shift in individual expectations and desires based upon a shattered relational psychological contract in the face of downsizing and other organizational actions – it explains the arrival of this new career mentality. Although only by one known study, this idea has received some credibility. Cavanaugh and Noe (1999) found that work experiences such as involuntary job loss, organizational change, and violation of contractual obligations predicted changes in the psychological contract. These changes in the psychological contract entailed a personal responsibility for career development, commitment to type of work (rather than employer), and expectations of job insecurity. Furthermore, the new career writers make some viable predictions about behavior; changed expectations are the one prediction that was focused upon in the creation of the Personalized Employment Goals measure.

While too broad to satisfy the falsifiability criteria as discussed above, new career theory is clearly not fatally flawed. Rather, its predictive tenants need be more specific and grounded in well-accepted psychological theory. It is this shortcoming that the current research attempted to address by aligning new career thought with the

psychological contract and measuring the new career mentality using psychological contract concepts.

This brings one to the second of two explanations for the failed development of Personalized Employment Goals. Perhaps the operationalization of the new career mentality via employment goals was misguided by the theorized new career at the expense of the actual new career. Though based upon state-of-the-art ideas in this area and substantively evaluated by multiple individuals, perhaps Personalized Employment Goals is simply not descriptive of the manifestation of concepts such as the boundaryless career and free agency. It is intuitively appealing that the individualized nature of the new career simply preempts its measurement in any elegant manner. Rather, individuals expect and then create psychological contracts that are idiosyncratic to their needs and desires. Certainly time-tested, the relational and transactional components of this idiosyncratic contract may be relatively stable, although present in differing degrees based upon the individual. While desires for training and development may be present in some sets of employment goals, this component of expected or actual psychological contract may not yet pervasive be enough to produce a reliable factor across many individuals in many different work settings.

This explanation would also support the equivocal findings in the field with regard to training and the psychological contract. Training is often used as an additional currency for these contracts, sometimes loading on the transactional side and other times loading on the relational side (Arnold, 1996) when all currencies are factor analyzed. One study to date, by Irving and Bobocel (2001), conducted a study in which an entire

factor, labeled “Development and Challenge,” emerged separate from relational and transactional inducements. However, these authors did not propose a distinct psychological contract based upon development and challenge as was done here. Thus, depending upon the relative composition of idiosyncratic psychological contracts and preferences for such in a given sample, desires for training and development may emerge as a distinct factor or may simply fuse with the stronger relational and transactional concepts.

Even if one prefers this latter explanation to the first, it produces more questions than it answers. For instance, is the new career mentality subject to a slow, evolutionary process of which we are seeing the first evidence in our ambiguous empirical results? Or, rather, is the new career truly idiosyncratic? If so, how would one measure it for empirical study? Of course, if its measurement is elusive, new career thought does not meet the falsifiability criterion of good theory. Must we then acknowledge ideas such as the boundaryless career, free agency, and the protean career as grand illusions? To answer these questions will be no small endeavor, but some initial studies are proposed following a discussion of the validity findings and study limitations.

Convergent and Discriminant Validity

As a companion effort to scale development, convergent and discriminant validity were assessed for each of the three subscales. A variety of variables were considered in these efforts: individual differences variables, organizational attachment (i.e., organizational commitment) and behavioral variables. Bivariate correlations were

examined between these variables and Relational, Transactional, and Personalized Employment Goals.

Individual Differences

Several individual difference variables were considered in Study One. Namely, bivariate correlations were calculated between each of the employment goals subscales and the Big Five personality characteristics (i.e., Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Intellect, and Emotional Stability), four manifest needs (i.e., Achievement, Affiliation, Autonomy, and Dominance), and Work Locus of Control. Before discussing the results of these efforts, it is important to note that the correlations, although statistically significant, were relatively low. On average, individual differences explained only one to twelve percent of the variance in the employment goals construct. This could be due to the fact that the psychological contract, and by default employment goals, are a more cognitively based construct rather than one based upon personality. By definition, the psychological contract is an individual's perception of the fair exchange of his or her contributions for organizational inducements. While one's definition of "fair" and "contributions" may be in part influenced by personality variables, the contract itself is created by largely cognitive means. By extension, then, perhaps the situation and past experiences are cognitively considered when adopting certain employment goals and these have more of an effect than underlying personality traits. This would be supported by Cavanaugh and Noe's (1999) study, which found changes in the psychological contract due to past experiences with work in organizations.

Relational Employment Goals. Relational Employment Goals were found to be positively related to Agreeableness and Conscientiousness, and Work Locus of Control and negatively related to Need for Autonomy, as hypothesized. It appears that those expecting to exchange loyalty for job security are concerned with harmonious relationships, as indicated by the positive correlation with Agreeableness. Indeed the contracts formulated by those with Relational Employment Goals would be characterized by trust and cooperation, both also indicative of agreeable individuals. Moreover, high endorsement of Relational Employment Goals was also associated with being dependable and hardworking, both of which the individual may associate with loyalty to the organization. Admittedly, though, this study does not provide evidence of the relative importance of personality variables.

Those with higher Relational Employment Goals also exhibited lower autonomy and an external locus of control. This is expected in that those individuals formulating relational psychological contracts may perceive a paternal relationship with their employer. The notion of job security is certainly part of a larger perception that the organization will care for the individual throughout his or her career. The ability to turn this important responsibility over to an entity such as an organization is easily reconcilable with the findings regarding autonomy and locus of control.

Counter to hypotheses, Relational Employment Goals did not manifest any relationships, positive or negative, with Intellect and Need for Affiliation. Although only a slight negative relationship was hypothesized with Intellect, it is surprising that no relationship was found with Need for Affiliation. It appears that Relational Employment

Goals are more of a function of the desire to relinquish control for one's career (as shown in the negative relationships discussed above) than desires to form close relationships with others. However, when drawing this conclusion, one must also consider the significant (albeit small) relationship between Relational Employment Goals and Agreeableness. Where the Agreeableness items focus on the individual's interactions with others in general, no matter the form of the relationship, Need for Affiliation describes those relationships that have reached the status of "friendship." This is exemplified in Need for Affiliation items such as "I spend a lot of time visiting friends" and "I try to be in the company of friends as much as possible" (Jackson, 1999). Although Agreeableness and Need for Affiliation are moderately correlated ($r = .34, p < .01$), it appears that the focus on friendships in the Need for Affiliation variable does not reconcile as easily with Relational Employment Goals. To the extent that one views the organization as a generalized entity rather than capable of becoming a "friend," this result is not entirely unexpected.

In addition to those relationships hypothesized, Relational Employment Goals were also positively related to Need for Achievement ($r = .13, p < .05$). It is conceivable that ascendancy within a particular organization may be desired by those with Relational Employment goals, which would also be related to Need for Achievement. However, it is expected that job security is much more important to those with Relational Employment Goals than is ascendancy within an organization. One explanation is that ascendancy is a signal of job security for individuals adopting these types of goals, and to the degree to which the Need for Achievement measure used acknowledges these types

of desires for ascendancy, it is intuitively acceptable that this relationship would emerge. In fact, the Personality Research Form (Jackson, 1999) does include some items geared toward ascendancy in one's field, such as the reverse-scored item: "It doesn't really matter to me whether or not I become one of the best in my field".

Transactional Employment Goals. As predicted, Transactional Employment Goals were negatively related to Conscientiousness. It appears that those that desire only to exchange performance on the minimum requirements of their job for pay and benefits are also individuals who do not view themselves as hard, dependable workers. Transactional Employment Goals was also positively related to Need for Autonomy and highly associated with an internal locus of control. It appears that those with Transactional Employment Goals desire firm control over their work outcomes. As such, those holding these types of employment goals desire the relationship to be purely contractual, such that one knows exactly what is required in order to receive valued outcomes. This provides such control, in that the performance of certain work tasks is certain to produce a given set of outcomes.

In addition to the relationships that were hypothesized, some unexpected yet reasonable relationships also emerged with regard to Transactional Employment Goals. Specifically, Transactional Employment Goals manifested negative relationships with Intellect ($r = -.18, p < .01$), Agreeableness ($r = -.37, p < .01$), Need for Achievement ($r = -.36, p < .01$), and Need for Affiliation ($r = -.16, p < .01$). It was originally supposed that while those with high scores on the Transactional Employment Goals subscale would probably not manifest openness to new experience, achievement strivings, or affiliation

and agreeableness with others at work, they might do so in other settings of their lives. Because these individual difference measures were relevant for the entirety of one's behavior, rather than just behavior at work, relationships between these variables were not expected. However, it seems that the drivers associated with Transactional Employment Goals are pervasive; those individuals that wish to perform a defined set of tasks, limit training to only that which helps them on their jobs, and value money and benefits above all else are also individuals who do not possess high Needs for Achievement and Affiliation, Agreeableness, and Openness to New experience in work or non-work aspects of life. Moreover, the correlations with the Need for Achievement and Agreeableness variables are moderate, indicating that these traits may be more indicative of the Transactional Employment Goal mentality than some of the other traits that were actually hypothesized.

Personalized Employment Goals. It was expected that Personalized Employment Goals would manifest some relationships similar to those of Relational Employment Goals, and some relationships similar to those of Transactional Employment Goals, owing to the hybridized concept discussed throughout this dissertation and revisited in the scale development discussion above. Some unique relationships were also predicted with regard to this variable, such as a positive relationship with Intellect. This hypothesis was supported, providing a key piece of evidence with regard to convergent validity. Specifically, those with Personalized Employment Goals are supposed to thrive on learning and self-development, both activities indicative of curiosity and broad-mindedness, which are anchor characteristics of the Intellect dimension of personality.

Moreover, Personalized Employment Goals were positively related to Need for Autonomy, owing to the desires of those with a new career mentality to manage their own careers and personal development.

Though these key relationships were found, Personalized Employment Goals were not related to Conscientiousness, Need for Achievement, and internal locus of control. The lack of findings with these variables is of great concern. While it is certainly possible that those individuals willing to move at will from one organization to another do not view themselves as dependable, a key feature of the Conscientiousness construct, they certainly should view themselves as hard workers. This same line of reasoning holds for the Need for Achievement construct, as the accomplishment of personal goals through one's work is certainly encompassed by one's desires to achieve. As concerning, if not more so, is the lack of findings with regard to work locus of control. Managing one's own career, training, and personal development is without doubt behavior indicative of an individual that views work outcomes as a result of one's own activities and achievements rather than fate, luck, or politics. Further development of a measure of the new career mentality, be it through Personalized Employment Goals or some other means, should strive to rectify these troubling findings. It is doubtful that the available theory on the new career mentality has misconstrued the probable relationships with these constructs, as personal success and career self management are cornerstones of the concept.

Although not hypothesized, Personalized Employment Goals manifested a positive relationship with Need for Dominance ($r = .16, p < .01$). As it is operationalized

by Jackson (1999) in the Personality Research Form (PRF), Need for Dominance refers to the motive to direct and influence the activities of others. Because the operationalization of Personalized Employment Goals was not intended to gauge the degree to which individuals feel the need to direct others, a relationship between these two variables was not expected. However, participating in training and development activities and striving for growth and new experience may include desires to gain management skills or other experience that involves coordinating and advising the activities of others. The correlation is not a strong one, indicating that other forms of experience and training may also be desired by those with Personalized Employment Goals; however, it is clear that individuals adopting these types of goals are not immune to aspirations toward management positions within organizations.

Organizational Attachment

Relationships with organizational attachment variables were investigated in Study Two. Specifically, Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-facet measure of organizational commitment was used. The deployment of such a measure allowed an examination of affective, continuance, and normative commitments as they related to each of the three employment goals under study. Furthermore, as discussed in Appendix F, the continuance commitment scale likely contains two related subfactors: personal sacrifice and lack of alternatives. Hypotheses concerning this variable were considerate of these findings regarding continuance commitment.

Relational Employment Goals. As hypothesized, Relational Employment Goals were significantly related to affective and normative commitments. Undoubtedly, those

individuals preferring to exchange loyalty for job security are also likely to be committed to their organizations out of a strong belief in the organization's goals and values, the hallmark of affective commitment. Interestingly, Relational Employment Goals were highly related to normative commitment ($r = .63, p < .01$), or organizational commitment based upon a sense of duty. Examining the items on this scale, one can conceive of the close interrelationship of the two constructs. Normative commitment items such as "I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization," and "One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain" focus on loyalty as a key component of this form of commitment, aligning it closely with the preferred exchange of those with Relational Employment Goals.

Counter to hypotheses, continuance commitment was also related to Relational Employment Goals ($r = .29, p < .01$). As all facets of commitment are indicative of low intentions to turnover, as conceptualized by Meyer and Allen (1997), it is conceivable that even continuance commitment, albeit commitment based upon instrumental and calculative reasons, would manifest a relationship with Relational Employment Goals. This relationship is further elucidated, though, when considering the two-factor model of continuance commitment.

The lack of available alternatives subfactor of continuance commitment focuses upon the availability of suitable alternatives to the current employment relationship. When no suitable alternatives are detected in the environment, the individual remains committed to the organization. Alternatively, the personal sacrifice subdimension of

continuance commitment is based primarily upon Becker's (1960) notion of side-bets. Side-bets, he proposes, are those interests that influence behavior because they will be forfeited if an individual does not behave in a certain manner. More specifically, individuals will remain within organizations the greater their investments in such things as pensions, seniority, or simply their own reputation for trustworthiness. Relational Employment Goals were much more highly related to the personal sacrifice subfactor of continuance commitment ($r = .31, p < .01$) than to the lack of available alternatives subfactor of continuance commitment ($r = .17, p < .01$). It appears that individuals holding higher Relational Employment Goals are more concerned with personal sacrifice of those things invested in the employment relationship than they are with alternatives external to the organization. Based upon the definitions and operationalizations of both constructs, this explanation is plausible.

Transactional Employment Goals. Relationships between Transactional Employment Goals and each commitment variable were low, although each was in its expected direction. In general, it seems that organizational commitment is not a relevant variable for those individuals with high preferences for extrinsic reward at work. This is reasonable, as organizational commitment refers to a more active relationship with one's organization than can be embodied by a transactional psychological contract.

Nevertheless, two of the three predicted associations attained statistical significance.

Transactional Employment Goals were significantly negatively related to affective commitment ($r = -.20, p < .01$), and negatively (although not significantly) related to normative commitment. For virtually opposite reasons that the above

relationships with Relational Employment Goals emerged, one would expect these relationships with Transactional Employment Goals. Individuals wishing only to exchange the work required in their job description for money and benefits likely do not have strong beliefs in the goals and values held by the organization, nor do they feel a moral obligation to remain in an organization if not being provided a fair day's work for a fair day's pay.

Conversely, as expected, Transactional Employment Goals were positively related to continuance commitment ($r = .15, p < .05$). Furthermore, this relationship held with the logical subfactor of continuance commitment, lack of available alternatives ($r = .17, p < .01$), as well. The relationship with personal sacrifice was non-significant ($r = .08, ns$). Conceivably, those holding Transactional Employment Goals are relatively more concerned with available alternatives at other organizations, particularly if the extrinsic rewards associated with the alternative are greater. If there is indeed a lack of available alternatives, individuals may feel some degree of allegiance, although extremely instrumental allegiance, to their current organization.

Personalized Employment Goals. It was supposed that Personalized Employment Goals would be positively related to affective commitment and negatively related to continuance and normative commitments. The first relationship, with affective commitment, did not hold and was in fact in the opposite direction ($r = -.17, p < .05$). This lack of findings with regard to affective commitment is not entirely unexpected, as the focus of the Personalized Employment Goals variable has changed somewhat from its original conception. Prior to Study Two, Personalized Employment Goals were

conceptualized to include a desire for challenging work provided by the organization in addition to career self-management. After examining the results in Study One, the variable was refocused in order to emphasize the career self-management facet of Personalized Employment Goals. Given the variable's new meaning, it seems much less likely that a positive relationship would be found with affective organizational commitment.

As borne out by the low, negative correlations with continuance and normative commitments, those with personalized employment goals do not necessarily remain with the organization because of instrumental reasons or obligation ($r = -.02$, ns and $r = -.15$, $p < .05$, respectively). Rather, it is proposed that they do so because of continued psychological success and skill development.

Correlations with the two subfactors of continuance commitment were low and non-significant as well ($r = .00$, ns; $r = -.04$, ns). Individuals embracing new careers will probably strive to remain nimble, minimizing investments within the organization that may later become sunk costs (e.g., firm-specific knowledge and non-transferable benefits). Moreover, it is questionable that those adopting a new career orientation would perceive that there is an utter lack of available alternatives; individuals pursuing these sorts of careers are supposedly constantly monitoring their environments and considering alternatives to the present state of affairs.

Supplemental Analyses. In addition to the data collected for the hypothesis tests, an intent to turnover scale was included in the questionnaire. Because of its close association with organizational commitment, results from these analyses are reported

here. Relationships were as expected. Intentions to turnover were negatively related to Relational Employment Goals ($r = -.29, p < .01$) and positively related to Transactional ($r = .12, p < .05$) and Personalized Employment Goals ($r = .24, p < .01$). These relationships further support the theoretical foundation of the scales, even though they were not formally hypothesized.

Behavioral Variables

Two behavioral variables were examined: participation in training and development and career self-management. The career self-management concept was investigated using a three-dimension questionnaire. It is supposed by Kossek, Roberts, Fisher, and Demarr (1988) that those managing their own careers engage in developmental feedback seeking, have high job mobility preparedness, and have current resumes. Additionally, data were collected with regard to the types of training and development in which individuals chose to partake. Although firm hypotheses were not forwarded about the relationship of the three types of employment goals with types of developmental activity, they were explored in a related research question.

Where appropriate, data were also collected from a second source on each of these behavioral variables to avoid mono-method bias. While these ratings certainly served that purpose, there remains some question as to the observability of career self-management behaviors by supervisors, mentors, or peers that participants had identified as being familiar with their career development activity. Specifically, second source raters were asked to report on the relative amount of training, developmental feedback seeking, and job mobility preparedness of the participants. To the extent that participants

disguised any career self management efforts in order to maintain a seemingly committed relationship with the employing organization, the selected “other” may not have observed such behaviors by design. Indeed, managerial perceptions of affective commitment have been shown to be positively related to promotability, perceptions of employee potential, and reward (Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995). To the extent that affective commitment is not congruent with proactive career self-management behaviors, it seems reasonable that employees may go to great lengths to keep participation in such behaviors discreet in order to reap the benefits of their supervisor’s perceptions of their affective commitment. In sum, while data from these second-source raters are reported below, it is likely that any relationships are attenuated by the observability of such behaviors on the part of the second rater selected.

Relational Employment Goals. Relational Employment Goals were not found to be related to training and development activity as reported by the participant or the second source, nor were the analyses concerning the types of developmental activities conclusive. It seems as though the concept of Relational Employment Goals is not any more informative with regard to participation in training and development than that of the actual relational psychological contract. As mentioned above, training is often used as a currency when measuring psychological contracts; sometimes training loads on the transactional factor and other times it loads on the relational factor (Arnold, 1996). To be precise, the companion Relational Employment Goals construct did not elucidate the reasons behind the inconclusive results with regard to relational psychological contracts and participation in training and development.

Specifically, it was hypothesized that Relational Employment Goals would be positively related to participation in training and developmental activities. While not undertaken for the same reasons as those of individuals with Personalized Employment Goals, it was proposed that Relational Employment Goals would not preclude one's participation in training and development. It appears that the number of training hours per year (as reported by the participant) are practically uninfluenced by desires for a job security/loyalty exchange with organizations. The relative amount of training and development activity as reported by the second source was actually negatively related to Relational Employment Goals. Likewise, in analyzing the research question, one's lack of Relational Employment Goals significantly predicted participation in classes and seminars and developmental job experiences as shown in Table 4-24. Relational Employment Goals were not predictive of the other two categories of developmental activity: fostering instrumental interpersonal relationships or participating in more general developmental efforts. As in the past research discussed above, these results are inconclusive.

Relational Employment Goals also manifested few relationships with career self-management activity. Although in the hypothesized directions, Relational Employment Goals were not significantly related to developmental feedback seeking or job mobility preparedness. However, the higher one's Relational Employment Goals, the less current one's resume. This latter finding is conceptually appealing, as one who has offered his or her loyalty in exchange for job security would have little motivation to keep his or her resume current. Again, when using the second source ratings, an unexpected negative

relationship emerged. Relational Employment Goals were negatively related to developmental feedback seeking as rated by the second source. That is to say, individuals purportedly loyal to their organizations are perceived to engage in little feedback seeking by supervisors, mentors, and peers selected by the participants themselves. The positive relationship between Relational Employment Goals and developmental feedback seeking was initially proposed to reflect a supposed desire on the part of individuals holding such goals to be put in contact with other organizational members through developmental feedback seeking. It appears that this is not the case. Rather, as Relational Employment Goals increase, there are few changes in the amount of developmental feedback seeking. By virtue of the second source ratings, the amount of developmental feedback seeking actually decreases. Although little can be concluded from these findings, it may be useful to consider the function that feedback seeking serves for those individuals with Relational Employment Goals. If not a signal of job security and a means to be put in contact with other organizational members, perhaps feedback seeking is simply not considered an important activity by those holding more relational expectations of their employment relationships.

Transactional Employment Goals. Transactional Employment Goals also did not manifest any relationship with training and development activity as reported by the participant; however, the second source ratings of training and development activity produced a moderate negative relationship ($r = -.28, p < .01$), as hypothesized. Moreover, each beta coefficient for Transactional Employment Goals when predicting participation in various types of developmental activity is significantly large and

negative. Although the participant's number of training hours reported per year was not lower given higher Transactional Employment Goals, these two other sources of data tell a different story. Those holding Transactional Employment Goals are less likely to be perceived to participate in large amounts of training and development activity relative to others, and they do not participate as highly in classes and seminars, developmental job experiences, or more general developmental efforts, nor do they foster instrumental interpersonal relationships as shown in Table 4-24.

Moreover, those with Transactional Employment Goals are highly unlikely to pursue developmental feedback seeking, as shown by negative correlations with both the participant's and the second source ratings of this career self-management activity ($r = -.25, p < .01$ and $r = -.37, p < .01$, respectively). This finding is intuitively sound in that those individuals wishing only to perform the duties outlined in their job description up to some predefined standard would likely not solicit input on their performance or their future career development. The consistency of his or her paycheck would provide this feedback in a more indirect, passive manner that is likely appealing to those holding Transactional Employment Goals.

It was also hypothesized that those with Transactional Employment Goals would be prepared for job mobility. It seemed reasonable that individuals interested only in extrinsic rewards and benefits would likely change jobs if better extrinsic rewards and benefits existed elsewhere. While this desire for reward maximization may be a characteristic of those holding these types of employment goals, the data do not support that individuals holding such goals prepare for organizational exit in an active manner.

Indeed, relationships between Transactional Employment Goals and the participant's reports of job mobility preparedness and resume currency were non-significant, and the relationship with the second source ratings of job mobility preparedness was negative ($r = -.19, p < .05$). To the extent that these items represent an active approach to one's career management, it is not unlikely that Transactional Employment Goals are simply unrelated to these variables. Perhaps those with Transactional Employment Goals more passively seek better alternatives, choosing only to change jobs and organizations when it is relatively easy to do so. This proposition is supported by the substantial negative relationship found with Need for Achievement in Study One; those with Transactional Employment Goals are simply not proactive in work or non-work areas of their lives.

Personalized Employment Goals. As expected, Personalized Employment Goals were positively related to training and development activity, but only when examining the participant's own estimate of number of training hours per year ($r = .17, p < .01$). This result is further supported when examining the multiple regression analyses conducted for the research question. All beta coefficients were positive and significant for Personalized Employment Goals predicting participation in each of the four categories of developmental activity as shown in Table 4-24. However, the relationship with the second source ratings of participation in training and development, although in the appropriate direction, did not obtain statistical significance. On the whole, the results support that Personalized Employment Goals are related to participation in training and development, although relationships were not as strong as expected.

Career self-management is also a key variable when considering Personalized Employment Goals; as such, each facet of this construct was supposed to related positively to Personalized Employment Goals. In fact, all correlations between Personalized Employment Goals and the participant's own ratings of developmental feedback seeking, job mobility preparedness, and resume currency were positive and significant. It is important to note; however, that the former two relationships did not hold when using the second source ratings of career self-management. At this point, it seems plausible that these individuals were disguising any activity that signaled intentions to turnover, as discussed above. However, it is concerning that none of the correlations with career self management activities are particularly high ($r = .13, p < .05$; $r = .26, p < .01$; and $r = .16, p < .01$) given such a critical variable with regard to career self-management. Part of the attenuation of these correlations may be due to the unreliability of the Personalized Employment Goals variable. Indeed, when correcting for unreliability, these correlations are somewhat more acceptable ($r = .16, r = .33$, and $r = .20$, respectively).

Convergent and Discriminant Validity Summary

The convergent and discriminant validity results associated with Relational and Transactional Employment Goals, on the whole, further supported the positive scale development results garnered over the three studies. Many of the proposed relationships held, and those that did not hold were not considered crucial such that the conceptual soundness of the variables was challenged. Of course, the ultimate test of the utility of these variables is a longitudinal one. If, in fact, employment goals are a precursor to the

psychological contract, they should almost perfectly predict the psychological contract formed. Longitudinal studies are proposed below as an area for future research.

Turning now to Personalized Employment Goals, the convergent and discriminant validity results are a clear signal of the construct's true complexity and, accordingly, its oversimplification in this study. Although several proposed relationships were found, many characteristics and behaviors thought to be crucial to the construct were found to be unrelated. Particularly troubling were the null findings with regard to Conscientiousness, Need for Achievement, and internal locus of control, and the small correlations with training and development and career self management. Future research should seek to explain these findings; a tentative research agenda for the Personalized Employment Goals subscale is discussed below. First, however, limitations of the current study are considered.

Study Limitations

In his clever chapter about the three-horned dilemma that plagues research design, McGrath (1982) illustratively stated, "It is not possible, in principle, to do an unflawed study," or, more pointedly, "Fantasize, if you will, about lying in clover, but be prepared to awake on a bed of horns." In order to deliberately preclude such fantasies, the limitations of the current study are discussed below.

Response Rate

Response rates for each sample were low, although not unlike that typically seen in survey research. Response rates ranged from 24.3% to 31.6%, with an average response rate over the six samples of just over one-quarter (Average response rate =

27.97%). While this produced reasonable samples in each of the two studies to conduct scale development work, larger samples would be more desirable. Specifically, the sample of approximately 300 in Studies One and Two allowed exploratory factor analyses to be conducted on a reasonable sample of approximately 200, and coefficient alpha to be cross validated on a holdout sample of approximately 100. However, this sample did not allow confirmatory factor analysis to be conducted on a completely independent sample, as the holdout sample of 100 was too small for such efforts. Ideally, the holdout sample would contain at least 200 data points such that the confirmatory factor analysis could be conducted completely independently from the exploratory factor analysis and resulting item selection. It is important to note that the term “ideally” is used loosely; for any scale development effort, even larger samples (i.e., 500 to 1000 participants) would be desirable. The sample of 400 should be considered an “ideal” minimum.

Sampling Error

In all cases, some demographic information was available on the entire group of individuals surveyed. Specifically, average age and proportions of each gender and race were made available for all six samples used. In some cases, average organizational tenure was also available. In five of six samples, those responding were significantly different, on average, than the entire sample surveyed, indicating that there is some degree of sampling error present in the data collected for each subsample. However, utilizing multiple samples that had broad variety in each study make it unlikely that the overall results were significantly biased by sampling error, as discussed below.

In four of the six samples, participants significantly differed with regard to age. In three of these samples, participants were significantly older, and in one sample participants were significantly younger. In all cases, however, the mean differences were slight, approximately 1.5 to 2.5 years. Moreover, the range of ages in both studies was considered adequate and broad in scope. In Study One, ages ranged from 16 to 74 years of age. In Study Two, ages ranged from 20 to 69 years of age. Although statistically significant differences were present with regard to this demographic variable, the use of multiple samples provided an adequate range of ages. Furthermore, although some relationships appeared between the variables of interest and age, they were in the expected direction based upon the generational literature associated with the new career mentality.

In one of the three Study One samples, the race composite of those responding to and returning the questionnaire was significantly different than the race composite in the entire sample of individuals surveyed. Again, however, the proportion of individuals reporting membership in each race was acceptable when considering the entire Study One sample. Specifically, the proportions of Caucasian (71.3%), African Americans (13.4%), Asian (4.2%), and Hispanic (2.3%), or "other" ($n = 9$, 2.9%) were comparable to those found in the entire population, nationwide (Fullerton, 1999). Of more concern is the composition of race in Study Two. Although not significantly different from the organizational samples from which they were drawn, the group of respondents included an inordinately high number of Caucasian respondents (92.6%). To ameliorate any biases with regard to race, race was controlled in the convergent and discriminant validity

analyses in all cases in which race was related to the variables of interest. This produced some changes in the results, as discussed in Chapter 4.

Finally, in one of the three Study Two samples, the average organizational tenure of those responding was significantly lower than that of the entire sample surveyed. Particularly, those that responded reported tenure of just over two years ($M = 2.63$), while the average tenure in the entire sample was 6.12 years. Upon further examination, however, it was determined that the average organizational tenure over the entire sample was significantly positively skewed (skew = 1.59, $SE = .198$, $t = 8.03$). Moreover, the median organizational tenure for this sample was 2 years, approximately equal to the average tenure reported by the respondents. In this particular case, it does not appear that the evidence of sampling error would in any way contaminate the results.

Intrusiveness

As with all self-report measures, one must be conscious of the fact that the actual information being requested from individuals may not be relevant to their routine decision-making. Schwarz (1999) distinguishes between information that accessible to individuals temporarily and information that is more chronically accessible. Temporarily accessible information may come to mind only through contextual influences. One hopes that the contextual influence of the self-report measure itself is of similar magnitude to the contextual influence of the theoretical processes surrounding the construct, in this case, the formulation of the psychological contract. However, often researchers cannot make such distinctions. Schwarz (1999) further notes that there are typically pronounced differences in open and closed ended question formats. Precisely, individuals may much

more frequently endorse a provided response option than they verbalize that same answer in an open-ended question (cf. Schuman & Presser, 1981). Although this study did not specifically deal with open and closed ended question formats, one must be concerned that by virtue of asking the question, individuals are cognizing about employment goals much more than they do at any other time – when considering employment alternatives and formulating psychological contracts, for instance. Future success in the development of the employment goals concept coupled with an adequate, longitudinal test of Shore and Tetrick's (1994) developmental model of psychological contract would make the intrusiveness of the measure much less of a concern. Rather, longitudinal studies would show that the same (or similar) information was recalled again at a theoretically appropriate time. However, in this study, the assessment of employment goals and their relationship to personality, attitude, and behavioral variables was contained within an extremely narrow temporal boundary (i.e., the time needed to complete the measure), making it possible that the instrument assessed information that, while made temporarily available by virtue of completing the measure, will never resurface again.

Lack of Control

Referring again to the apt description provided by McGrath (1982), this study is not immune to the three-horned dilemma. Precisely, while maximizing the generalizability of the results by collecting data from a variety of individuals in a variety of industries having a variety of demographic characteristics (i.e., grabbing on tightly to the generalizability horn), this research design leaves the researcher to sit, balanced but rather uncomfortably on the horns of context and precision of measurement.

The first weakness considered is the lack of contextual information with regard to one's employment goals. Namely, information was not available on one's current psychological contract with an organization or how that psychological contract developed. Due to the intrusiveness concerns discussed above, it was deemed inappropriate to ask about one's current situation when it was simultaneously stressed that employment goals were completely independent of one's current situation. Moreover, longitudinal studies of psychological contract are needed in order to establish their development. This scale development effort was concerned with correlates rather than antecedents and consequences; however, without having privilege to longitudinal data, one cannot argue convincingly (i.e., with empirical evidence) that employment goals are a relevant antecedent to the formation of the psychological contract.

Secondly, many of the behavioral variables may be affected by unmeasured variables. Specifically, the number of training hours that one participates in per year is likely influenced by the availability of training opportunities, a variable that was unmeasured in this study. Similarly, solicitation of developmental feedback may depend primarily on the skills of relevant others in giving such feedback; if the participant did not seek developmental feedback because he or she found it utterly unhelpful, this unmeasured variable may have unduly impacted the results.

Implications

From a scientific standpoint, the measurement of relational and transactional employment goals is a crucial step forward. The psychological contract literature clearly benefits from the operationalization of employment goals; specifically, the model of

psychological contract development proposed by Shore and Tetrick (1994) can now be tested and validated. Moreover, the current research supports the robustness of a two-dimensional construct space for psychological contract content. Based on time-tested social-exchange theory put forth by Blau (1964) and refined by MacNeil (1980), the relational and transactional aspects of one's psychological contract appear to be the most distinguishable from other currencies of exchange.

With regard to the new career mentality, implications are less certain, but certainly no less important. First and foremost, the new career mentality is complex and not readily discernable from the tried and true expectations of job security and extrinsic reward. Further research is needed into the measurement of this construct, and as a first step, attention must be paid to its mere existence as a universal set of expectations for training and career development. As discussed above, the new career mentality, by virtue of its individualized nature, may be largely idiosyncratic. If this is the case, measurement becomes much more difficult, and must focus upon the ability of any given organization to meet one's expectations, whatever they may be.

Moreover, the elusiveness of a universal notion of the new career mentality as measured by employment goals should be a word of caution to those suggesting prescriptions for organizations that are based only upon theoretical notions of the new career (cf. Callanan & Greenhaus, 1999; DeMeuse & Tornow, 1990; Hall & Mirvis, 1995; Hall & Richter, 1990; Hiltrop, 1995). In the end, we don't yet know. We don't know if the provision of training and development in and of itself is attractive to individuals pursuing new careers, or if the *opportunity* to pursue one's own development

is attractive. Stated more broadly, we don't know if one package of inducements is appealing to new careerists, or if the flexibility to create one's own package, be it with job security, extrinsic rewards, learning, or all three, that is of the most appeal.

Future Research

Based upon the results of this study, there are several areas that lend themselves to further investigation. First and foremost, there are unanswered questions regarding the new career mentality. Secondly, several paths of inquiry are now open with regard to relational and transactional employment goals. Each of these areas of future research is discussed below.

The New Career Mentality

An operational representation of the new career mentality is warranted, if not overdue. Pressing practical and scientific questions cannot be answered until a method of measuring this construct exists. Broadly, questions as to the most appropriate HR practices and the mechanisms with which to foster commitment-like outcomes need to be investigated. More specifically, how can organizations that value retention foster that retention among those embracing the new career mentality? Are there specific types of training opportunities or cultural characteristics that allow those with personalized career goals to satisfy their desires for personal growth and psychological success within one organization? These questions illustrate the practical applicability of such a measure; once the new career mentality can be reliably and validly assessed, answers to these questions can be pursued.

Given the construct's convolution as measured in this study, there are several ways to proceed. First, psychological contract has been measured several ways in the past; measures utilizing absolute rating scales are not the first evolution of measurement in this arena. It follows that other methods of measuring psychological contract content may also be useful for measuring employment goals. Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) point out that one alternative method is to measure the terms of the psychological contract by asking respondents to endorse those contract terms that are contained in their perception of reciprocal obligations with the organization. It is then possible, if desired, to aggregate these terms by way of factor scores, canonical correlation, or cluster analysis. In other words, instead of creating multi-item scales to measure each hypothesized category of employment goals, one would provide lists of preferred contract terms and empirically determine their appropriate grouping. Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) note that this measurement methodology is not without problems, such as factor instability and the artificial bifurcation of employer and employee obligations in what is believed to be a perceived exchange. However, measuring contract terms does represent an alternative course of action to that employed in the present study.

Under a different assumption, that employment goals was not a reasonable framework in which to couch the new career mentality, one could attempt to create a measure independent of attachment concepts such as the psychological contract, organizational commitment, and the like. Although more simplistic, this approach is much more atheoretical, and it ignores the fact that the new career mentality has strong roots in attachment as illustrated by both its stated causes and current prescriptions. As

discussed in Chapter 1, the inception of the new career mentality was a response to the separation of employees from their organizations and subsequent disruption of the collective psychological contract (Gould, Weiner, & Levin, 1997; Hall & Mirvis, 1996). Likewise, new career thought suggests that individuals capitalize on the organization's redefinition of the psychological contract by reconsidering their own obligations to commit to their employer.

A third option would be to take advantage of qualitative methodologies, often neglected in the realm of Industrial/Organizational Psychology. Although fraught with problems of control and generalizability, these types of methods may be useful in ascertaining the current form of the new career mentality as it is manifested in actual employment relationships. Building a measure upon this evidence in concert with the bountiful theory addressing the topic would almost certainly produce a more robust, practically useful measure of the concept.

At any rate, there are compelling reasons to pursue the measurement of this construct, as it may very well alter some of the most fundamental assumptions in the field. Illustratively, organizational commitment is a variable about which one thing is certain; intent to turnover is less likely as organizational commitment becomes greater. Conversely, intentions to turnover are likely much higher among those pursuing new careers. Under this scenario, there are two possibilities for our knowledge of organizational commitment. Organizational commitment may be completely incompatible with the new career such that one predicts intentions to turnover positively and one predicts them negatively. Or, given both organizational commitment and the

pursuit of the new career, our stringent notion that organizational commitment always lessens intentions to turnover must be revised. Perhaps an exaggerated example, but these types of questions need asked, and more importantly, answered. A necessary first step is the creation of a sound measure.

Relational and Transactional Employment Goals

As noted several times throughout this work, Shore and Tetrick (1994) proposed a model of psychological contract development, including the concept of employment goals as an individual difference variable that affects contract formation. Specifically, information transmitted from the organization assumes meaning based upon these employment goals such that they shape individuals' perceptions of obligations on the part of themselves and the organization. Ashford and Cummings' (1983) feedback seeking model is implicated in Shore and Tetrick's notion of psychological contract formation.

Although formulated several years ago, this model has yet to be tested, perhaps due to a lack of operationalization of employment goals. Now that measures have been created for relational and transactional employment goals, the entire model may be tested, an advancement to psychological contract theory in and of itself. Other intriguing questions associated with the model may also be investigated. Specifically, the degree to which individuals attend to various types of information may be largely based upon employment goals. Those with relational employment goals most likely select an organization based upon possibilities for job security, and those with transactional employment goals likely select based upon financial benefits.

The relative influence of the person and the situation in psychological contract formation is also of interest. Rousseau and Wade-Benzoni (1994) offered a typology of tactics used to formulate desirable contracts based upon the organization's strategy. The impact of these tactics is yet to be investigated, as is the relative influence of the individual factors associated with psychological contracting, although several have noted the probable influence of the individual (Freese & Schalk, 1996; Guest, 1998a; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1995; Spindler, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

Conclusion

By reviewing the new career literature and examining the psychological attachment literature in light of the emergent new career orientation, the shortcomings of well-accepted psychological contract content to explain the relationship between organizations and individuals adopting a new career orientation have been shown. To address this deficiency, an extension of Shore and Tetrick's (1994) model of psychological contract development, a new "employment goal" was conceptualized.

The purpose of this dissertation, then, was to successfully measure the concept of employment goals (i.e., relational and transactional employment goals) and to show empirically that the concept should be revised and extended (i.e., to include personalized employment goals). Items were generated and iteratively tested, and convergent and discriminant validity investigations were carried out. Two viable scales (i.e., relational and transactional employment goals) were created in this study. However, it appears that the new career mentality as represented by personalized employment goals is a much more complex construct than originally thought.

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APPENDICES

A. EMPLOYMENT GOAL QUESTIONNAIRE
USED IN THE PILOT STUDY

Instructions and Informed Consent

The information at the bottom of this sheet (except for your signature) must be completed for attendance credit. By completing the items on the following pages of this survey, you agree to the use of this data for a study conducted by Jennifer Burgess. The study involves an investigation of individuals' preferred relationships with their employers.

Every attempt will be made to keep your responses to the items confidential. This sheet will be detached from the rest of the survey immediately after it is collected such that no identifying information will appear with the item responses. In addition, your BA 220 instructor and teaching assistants will not have access to individual item responses. Data will be reported only in aggregate form.

A written explanation of your participation in this survey is available as you exit this room. If at any time you wish to withdraw your data from the study, or if you have questions concerning the research, please contact Jennifer Burgess at 974-3161 or jdykes3@utk.edu.

This page will serve both as your attendance record and as an informed consent to participate in the study. If you wish to participate, complete the information below and then continue on to the instructions and the items on the next page. If you do not wish to participate, but wish to receive attendance credit, complete all of the information except for the signature and return the blank survey. Note that you must remain in the room for the duration of the class period to receive attendance credit.

Name (print) _____

Student ID number _____

I agree to participate in the study described above.

Signature _____

Date _____

Instructions: Below are 75 items describing various relationships with organizations. Specifically, these items reflect what you, as an employee, prefer to contribute to the organization and what you expect from the organization in return. In responding to these items, think of your preferred contributions and expectations independent of your specific organizational experiences. That is, try not to think of the relationship you may have with your current or past organizations. Please respond to these items using the following, seven-point scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. It is the organization's responsibility to help loyal employees move up the company career ladder.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. In return for the use of my skills, an organization owes me training in areas that are of use to other organizations.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I expect performance-based pay.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I am willing to contribute 100% to an organization in return for a paycheck.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. One of the primary things I owe an organization is the application of my specialized skills.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for belonging.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it rewards my loyalty.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. A job is just an agreement one has with their employer to provide work for money and benefits.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. The only job security is to ensure my own employability.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I work purely to fulfill my job requirements.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it provides challenging job opportunities.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I prefer not to consider how long my relationship with an organization will be until I consider growth opportunities.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. It is important to me that I am promoted and rank so I can show a group of employees the benefits of the organization in which I chose to work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. If doing so developed my own skills, I would do things for the organization not required by my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. The work I do is not as important as the quality of pay and benefits I receive.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. People should use the word "loyalty" to describe their relationships with organizations.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I expect to gain promotions within a company the longer my tenure with the company.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. It is solely my responsibility to seek out career opportunities and generate career plans.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I expect to be paid for any overtime I do.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. The work I do is not as important as the organization in which I will do it.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I am willing to contribute 100% to this organization in return for challenging work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my economic needs.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for growth and development.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. To me, working in an organization is like being a member of a family.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. The work I do is not as important as the knowledge and skills gained from doing it.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

27. Unless spelled out in a contract, I wouldn't make long-term promises to my employer.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it pays me for work that is up to a predefined standard.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. The job security offered by an organization is important to me.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. It is not worth it to attend training that doesn't directly help me on my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I am willing to contribute 100% to an organization in return for promises of future employment.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I am not satisfied with my work unless it is to my full potential.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I would like to work in an organization where my career path is clearly structured.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. I work for the money.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. As I increase my tenure with an organization, I expect more from the organization.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. My primary expectation is a fair day's pay for a fair day's work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. It is important not to get too involved in non-compensated work activities.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. I fully expect to give my loyalty to the organization with which I work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. I disregard organizational definitions of success in favor of my own definition of success.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. I work to achieve the purely short term goals of my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. I want a long-term future in one particular organization.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. I measure my career success by my own standards, not those of any organization.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. If it helped the organization, I would do things not required by my job that did not benefit me.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. Job security is less important than financial security.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. An organization should be viewed as a stepping stone in one's career development.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. I expect to receive training in an organization that I can transfer to new jobs or organizations.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. As long as I reach the standards specified in my job, I am satisfied with my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. I owe it to my employer to stay as long as possible.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. I am hesitant to work in an organization that uses team-based pay.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. I would prefer to spend my free time learning new skills that I can apply to my work and other areas of my life.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. I am hesitant to do too many things not required by my job description.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. I would relocate to stay with an organization to which I was committed.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. It is important to me that an organization supports me in my personal problems.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. I am most attracted to organizations that provide for my personal career growth.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. A company's pay and benefits package tell you a lot about what it would be like to work there.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. It is important to me that my supervisor recognizes my desires to learn and grow.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. I would prefer to spend my free time doing things wholly unrelated to work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. I work primarily to gain experience and knowledge.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. I prefer to spend my free time with friends made at work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. It is important to me that my supervisor realizes my financial needs.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. I would like to stay with only one or two organizations until I retire.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. I measure my career success by my ability to provide for myself and/or my family.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

63. Training that is of the most value to me is that which helps me earn my paycheck .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. Job security is more important than most people think	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. When I am no longer learning new skills, I am likely to change jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66. I measure my career success by my tenure in the organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67. As my personal career goals change, I will change jobs and/or organizations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68. Before I decide to leave an organization, I owe the management their desired notice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69. The work that I do means more to me than just a means of paying the bills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
70. I like the idea of skill-based pay	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
71. I am loyal to the idea of achieving my own personal success	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72. As soon as I am able, I'd like to be a part of an organization's management succession plan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
73. I would relocate for the opportunity to grow my skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
74. It is important to me that my supervisor treats me like family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
75. I am the most satisfied when I do something that accomplishes an organization's goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B. INSTRUCTIONS USED FOR THE FOLLOW-UP SUBSTANTIVE ANALYSIS

Introduction and Directions

It is common knowledge that employees join organizations for different reasons. Just a few years ago, we may have grouped these reasons into two categories: money and job security. However, today's employees may also join organizations primarily for experience and skills, those things that can be successfully marketed when they decide to move on...or when the organization downsizes or folds.

This study is the first that attempts to measure the goals or desires that an individual expects to achieve in organizations. Three main categories of goals are under investigation. While the formal definitions of these categories cannot be provided to you in this task for research reasons, they can be broadly described as those goals that have to do with:

- 1. Feelings of job security and belonging**
- 2. Money and benefits**
- 3. Experience and learning**

Below are 45 items, presented in random order, which were generated to reflect each of these three types of goals. Your task is simply to categorize each of the items into one of the three employment goal categories. Sometimes the items are worded in the negative rather than the positive. In all cases, try to think of the spirit of the item rather than the particular words that are used.

Although it initially may seem like a trivial task, assuring that items in the same category *appear* to be measuring the same type of employment goal is a crucial step in the development of any measurement system. Moreover, the task may require you to revisit the categories above frequently. In fact, you may need to "stretch" the descriptions given to adequately incorporate the items below. Finally, try to resist the temptation to categorize items into "those I to which I would agree" and "those to which I would not agree."

Please indicate which type of employment goal (described above) you believe the item reflects by placing a 1, 2, or 3 after each item. If you believe the item reflects two categories, please indicate both of those categories after the item. If you don't believe the item adequately reflects any of the three categories, please place a "?" after the item.

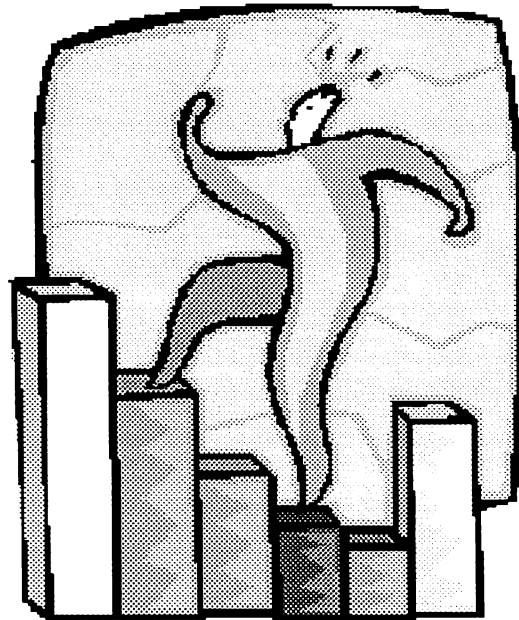
In doing this task, you may have comments about particular items regarding either their reflection of the intended category or their clarity. If any item is unclear in any way, if you have comments about wording or phrasing, or if you have suggestions to make the item more applicable to a broader range of respondents, don't hesitate to provide them. These types of comments are particularly important to me as I move on to the next stage of my study.

Please have all responses back to me (via email, preferably) by Friday, April 6th. If you have any questions, feel free to contact me in the office (865-974-3161), at home (865-637-8750) or by email (jdykes3@utk.edu). Thanks again for all of your help with this initial investigation!

C. SURVEY USED IN STUDY ONE

Employee Goals and Values Study

**[University]
MBA Program**



**Please complete this questionnaire and return it by May 9, 2001
using the envelope provided.**

© University of Tennessee, 2001

Dear MBA Student:

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. Your responses will provide valuable information about the goals and values of individuals in organizations. As you may know, much has been written about the changing nature of work and career goals. This study is one of the first to examine specifically how these goals are changing.

RAFFLE: Along with this survey, you will find an entry form for a raffle to win one of two cash prizes. Please complete this form if you'd like to be entered to win one of the cash prizes (\$100 each) to be given to participants from the MBA Program. Winners will be contacted two weeks after the survey deadline: May 9, 2001. In other words, you will be contacted by email or phone on or after May 23, 2001.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Your answers are completely confidential. They will only be released in summary form; no individual responses or names will be reported. When you return your completed questionnaire, your raffle form will be removed from the survey and never again connected to your answers in any way. This survey is voluntary; however, you can help us very much by taking some time to share your experiences.

DIRECTIONS: Please be sure to answer all items on the following pages. Specific instructions and rating scales appear before each set of questions. Begin on the next page.

RETURNING THE SURVEY: For your convenience, this survey arrived in a stamped envelope. To return the survey, you may send it via US Mail, Campus Mail, or hand-deliver it to the address listed below:

Jennifer R. D. Burgess
Department of Management
408 Stokeley Management Center
Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-0545

If you have any questions about this study, please contact the principal researcher, Jennifer Burgess, at (865) 974-3161 or jdjdykes3@utk.edu.

Thank you for your participation in this study! Your time and attention are most appreciated!

Start Here



Below are 45 items describing various aspects of relationships with organizations. Specifically, these items reflect what you, as an employee, prefer to contribute to the organization and what you expect from the organization in return. In responding to these items, think of your preferred contributions and expectations independent of your specific organizational experiences. That is, try not to think of the actual relationship you may have with your current or past organizations. Please respond to these items using the following scale.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I work for the money.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it rewards my loyalty.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I prefer not to consider how long my relationship with an organization will be until I consider growth opportunities.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Unless I am no longer learning new skills, I am likely to change jobs.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. To me, working in an organization is like being a member of a family.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Unless spelled out in a contract, I wouldn't make promises to my employer.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I fully expect to give my loyalty to the organization with which I work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I work to achieve the primary short-term goals of my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It is solely my responsibility to seek out career opportunities and generate career plans.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I am hesitant to do too many things not required by my job description.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. In return for the use of my skills, an organization owes me training in areas that are of use to other organizations.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Job security is more important than most people think.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I make the my career's success by my ties to the organization.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I am not satisfied with my work unless it is up to my full potential.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I am loyal to the idea of achieving my own personal success.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I am the most satisfied when I do something that accomplishes an organization's goals.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. The quality of pay and benefits I receive is more important than the work I do.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for being big.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I would prefer to spend my free time doing things wholly unrelated to work and my career.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I expect to receive training in an organization that I can transfer to new jobs or organizations.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I am willing to contribute 100% to an organization in return for promises of future employment.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. My primary expectation is a fair day's pay for a fair day's work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. An organization should be viewed as a stepping stone in one's career development.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I want a long-term future in one particular organization.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Financial security is more important than job security.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. As long as I reach the standards specified in my job, I am satisfied with my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I owe it to my employer to stay as long as possible.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it provides challenging job opportunities.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Training that is of the only value to me is that which helps me earn my paycheck.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I would like to stay with only one or two organizations until I retire.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please continue on the following page.

32. The only real job security is to ensure that one always has marketable skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it pays me for work that is up to a predefined standard.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. People should use the word "loyalty" to describe their relationships with organizations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. If doing so developed my own skills, I would do things for the organization that are not required by my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. If it helped the organization, I would do otherwise undesirable things that were not required by my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. I am willing to contribute 100% to the organization in return for challenging work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. It is important to me that my supervisor treats me like family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. It is important not to get too involved in non-computerized work activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. It is not worth it to attend training that doesn't directly help me on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. I hope to gain promotions within a company the longer my tenure with the company.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. As my personal career goals change, I will change jobs and/or organizations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for belonging.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. I like the idea of skill-based pay rather than dignity-based pay.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. A job is just an agreement one has with their employer to provide work for money and benefits.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following questions are presented to help us better understand the characteristics and values of the workforce. In responding, please be candid and honest. Remember that your answers are completely confidential.

Continue Here



Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether it is true or false as it pertains to you.

T-True

F-False

1. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.	T	F
2. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.	T	F
3. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.	T	F
4. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.	T	F
5. I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something.	T	F
6. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	T	F
7. I'm always willing to admit when I've made a mistake.	T	F
8. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.	T	F
9. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.	T	F
10. I have never been liked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.	T	F
11. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.	T	F
12. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me.	T	F
13. I have never deliberately said something that hurts someone's feelings.	T	F

Continue Here



Below there are several phrases describing people's behaviors. Please use the rating scale below to indicate how accurately each statement describes you. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future. Moreover, describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, in relation to other people you know of the same sex as you are, and roughly your same age. Note that there are two separate columns of questions below. Please read each statement carefully, and then circle the response that corresponds to the number on the scale provided. Note that the more you agree with a statement, the higher the number you circle. The more you disagree with a statement, the lower the number you circle.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Inaccurate	Modera-ly Inaccurate	Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate	Modera-ly Accurate	Very Accurate

1...

1. Am the life of the party.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. Feel little concern for others.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. Am always prepared.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. Get stressed out easily.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. Have a rich vocabulary.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. Don't talk a lot.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. Am interested in people.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. Leave my belongings around.....	1	2	3	4	5
9. Am relaxed most of the time.....	1	2	3	4	5
10. Have difficulty understanding abstract ideas.....	1	2	3	4	5
11. Feel comfortable around people.....	1	2	3	4	5
12. Listen to people.....	1	2	3	4	5
13. Pay attention to details.....	1	2	3	4	5
14. Worry about things.....	1	2	3	4	5
15. Have a vivid imagination.....	1	2	3	4	5
16. Keep in the background.....	1	2	3	4	5
17. Sympathize with others' feelings.....	1	2	3	4	5
18. Make a mess of things.....	1	2	3	4	5
19. Seldom feel blue.....	1	2	3	4	5
20. Am not interested in abstract ideas.....	1	2	3	4	5
21. Start conversations.....	1	2	3	4	5
22. Am not interested in other people's problems.....	1	2	3	4	5
23. Get chores done right away.....	1	2	3	4	5
24. Am easily distracted.....	1	2	3	4	5
25. Have excellent ideas.....	1	2	3	4	5

1...

26. Have little to say.....	1	2	3	4	5
27. Have a soft heart.....	1	2	3	4	5
28. Others forget to put things back in their proper place.....	1	2	3	4	5
29. Get upset easily.....	1	2	3	4	5
30. Do not have a good imagination.....	1	2	3	4	5
31. Talk a lot and draw attention to myself.....	1	2	3	4	5
32. Am not really interested in others.....	1	2	3	4	5
33. Like order.....	1	2	3	4	5
34. Change my mood a lot.....	1	2	3	4	5
35. Am quick to understand things.....	1	2	3	4	5
36. Don't like to draw attention to myself.....	1	2	3	4	5
37. Take time out for others.....	1	2	3	4	5
38. Stick my dishes.....	1	2	3	4	5
39. Have frequent mood swings.....	1	2	3	4	5
40. Use difficult words.....	1	2	3	4	5
41. Don't mind being the center of attention.....	1	2	3	4	5
42. Feel others' emotions.....	1	2	3	4	5
43. Follow a schedule.....	1	2	3	4	5
44. Get irritated easily.....	1	2	3	4	5
45. Spend time reflecting on things.....	1	2	3	4	5
46. Am quiet around strangers.....	1	2	3	4	5
47. Make people feel at ease.....	1	2	3	4	5
48. Am exacting in my work.....	1	2	3	4	5
49. Others feel blue.....	1	2	3	4	5
50. Am full of ideas.....	1	2	3	4	5

Continue Here



Below are listed 64 statements that describe people's behaviors. We would like to know which of these statements you feel best describe you. Note that there are two separate columns of questions below. Please read each item and determine if it is true or false as it pertains to you, and then circle the appropriate response.

T=True

F=False

[Note: Personality Research Form (Jackson, 1951) items are proprietary. A permissions agreement prohibits the reproduction of these items in dissertation. Please contact Sigma Assessment Systems at the address below for more information.]

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170 Box # 1224, Fort Worth, TX 76101-1224

Continue Here



Each item below is a belief statement about work, with which you may agree or disagree. For each item, circle the number that represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement using the scale below. Note that the more you agree with a statement, the higher the number you circle. The more you disagree with a statement, the lower the number you circle.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1. A job is what you make of it.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. In order to get a really good job, you need to have family members or friends in high places.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Promotions are given to employees that perform well on the job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. To make a lot of money you have to know the right people.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Most employees have more confidence in their superiors than they think they do.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.....	1	2	3	4	5	6

Continue Here



Please take a moment to tell us some personal characteristics. This information is requested so we can adequately describe the group of people who responded to the survey.

1. What is your age? ___ years

2. What is your gender? ___ M ___ F

3. How can your race best be classified?

___ African American	___ Asian
___ Caucasian	___ Hispanic
___ Native American	___ Other

4. How much full-time work experience do you have? ___ years ___ months

5. What is the last level of education that you've completed?

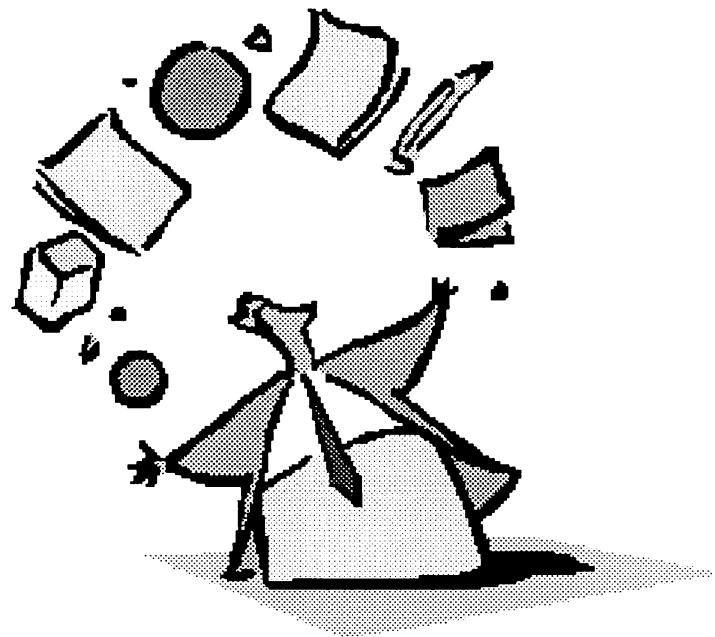
___ High school/GED
___ Associate's Degree
___ Bachelor's Degree
___ Master's Degree
___ Professional Degree
___ Doctoral Degree

Once again, thank you for your participation!
Please return this survey in the envelope provided.

D. SURVEY USED IN STUDY TWO

A survey examining
Relationships with Organizations
and
Career Activity

[University]
Executive and Professional MBA Programs



**Please complete this questionnaire and return it by August 17, 2001
using the envelope provided.**

Dear Participant:

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. Your responses will provide valuable information about how individuals relate to organizations and manage their careers. As you may know, much has been written about the changing nature of organizational relationships and careers. This study is one of the first to scientifically examine specifically *how* these relationships are changing.

Along with this survey, you will find two things in this envelope:

- An additional sealed envelope to be given to another individual, either a coworker or supervisor, who is familiar with your participation in career management and developmental activities.
- An entry form for a raffle to win a \$100 cash prizes.

DIRECTIONS FOR ENCLOSED ENVELOPE: The sealed envelope should be given to someone – a supervisor, coworker, or mentor – familiar with your career management and developmental activities. These may include training, development, and any other activities undertaken to advance your career. Please put your name on the outside of the envelope so that the individual knows who has given him or her the rating form. The individual who receives the form will be providing a second perspective on your developmental activity. This survey includes instructions and has its own return envelope enclosed. As with all of your responses to the survey questions, this information will be kept confidential. Furthermore, your responses will not be shared with this individual.

RAFFLE: An entry form for a raffle is also enclosed with these materials. Please complete this form if you'd like to be entered to win one of two cash prizes given to participants from [University's] executive MBA programs. Winners will be contacted two weeks after the survey deadline date, on or before August 31, 2001.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Your answers are completely confidential. They will only be released in summary form; no individual responses or names will be reported. When you return your completed questionnaire, your raffle form will be removed from the survey and never again connected to your answers in any way. Moreover, the survey you ask another individual to complete will be associated with your survey by the code number on the front cover of this survey. Again, your name will not be attached to their responses. This survey is voluntary; however, your responses are very important to us.

DIRECTIONS: Please be sure to answer all items on the following pages. Specific instructions and rating scales appear before each set of questions. Begin on the next page.

RETURNING THE SURVEY: For your convenience, we have devised the following method for returning the questionnaire. Use the envelope provided to mail your survey to:

Jennifer R. D. Burgess
Department of Management
408 Stokely Management Center
Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-0545

If you have any questions about this study, please contact the principal researcher, Jennifer Burgess, at (865) 974-3161, (309) 677-2306 or jdykes3@uk.edu. Alternatively, you can contact the director of your respective MBA program.

Thank you for your participation in this study! Your time and attention are most appreciated!

Start Here



Below are 27 items describing various aspects of relationships with organizations. Specifically, these items reflect what you, as an employee, prefer to contribute to the organization and what you expect from the organization in return. Try not to think of the actual relationship you may have with your current or past organizations. Please respond to these items using the following scale.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. It is important to get involved in non-compensated work activities.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I hope to gain promotions within a company the longer my tenure with the company.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I prefer not to consider how long my relationship with an organization will be until I consider growth opportunities available.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. When I am no longer learning new skills, I am likely to change jobs.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. To me, working in an organization is like being a member of a family.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Unless spelled out in a contract, I wouldn't make promises to my employer.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I measure my career's success by my own standards, not those of any organization.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I work to achieve the purely long-term goals of my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It is solely my responsibility to seek out career opportunities and generate career plans.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I am hesitant to do too many things not required by my job description.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. It is important to me that my superior recognizes my desires to learn and grow.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Job security is more important than most people think.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I measure my career's success by my tenure in the organization.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for growth and development.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I prefer to work a strictly defined set of working hours.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I am loyal to the idea of achieving my own personal success.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. It is important to me that my superior treats me like family.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. The quality of pay and benefits I receive is more important than the work I do.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it satisfies my needs for belonging.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. It is <u>not</u> the organization's responsibility to help employees move up the career ladder.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I expect to receive training in an organization that I can transfer to new jobs and/or organizations.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I am willing to contribute 100% to an organization in return for promises of future employment.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. As my personal career goals change, I will change jobs and/or organizations.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. An organization should be viewed as a stepping stone in one's career development.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I want a long-term future in one particular organization.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. It is not worth it to attend training that doesn't directly help me on my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. As long as I reach the standards specified in my job, I am satisfied with my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I owe it to my employer to stay as long as possible.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
29. The knowledge and skills gained from working are more important than the specific work that I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. The only training that is of value to me is that which helps me earn my paycheck.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I would like to stay with only one or two organizations until I retire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. The only real job security is to ensure that one always has marketable skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I am willing to stay with an organization as long as it pays me for work that is up to a predetermined standard.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. I work primarily to gain experience and knowledge.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. People should use the word "loyalty" to describe their relationships with organizations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. I do regard organizational definitions of success in favor of my own definition of success.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. A job is just an agreement one has with his or her employer to provide work for money and benefits.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Continue Here



Please use the spaces provided to write in the approximate number of times you have participated in each developmental activity in just the past 24 months. Try not to count the same development activity in more than one category. Furthermore, you've obviously attended many classes this year due to your MBA studies. Please only count this as "once" in item number one.

In the past 24 months, the approximate number of times I have participated in each activity is...

1. Took a class at a college or university.....	
2. Attended a training class, workshop, or seminar for technical, interpersonal, or managerial skills, or for leadership development.	
3. Attended a professional conference.	
4. Met with my boss to discuss my development.....	
5. Met with a professional development coach.	
6. Met with my mentor.....	
7. Actively created or sought out professional networking opportunities.	
8. Participated in a discussion group with colleagues in my career field.	
9. Requested a lateral transfer, job rotation, or overseas assignment.....	
10. Requested a challenging job assignment.....	
11. Been a member or officer of a professional society.....	
12. Served on the Board of another organization.	
13. Created a development plan.	
14. Read relevant books, business magazines, or professional journals.	
15. Reviewed videos, audiotapes, or books on tape relevant to my development goals.....	
16. Attended a career fair or expo.	
17. Voluntarily completed skills/interest assessments or inventories.....	

Continue Here



Below are several questions about the frequency with which you participate in various career-development behaviors and your career-related intentions. Circle the response that most accurately corresponds to the frequency in the scale below. Once again, remember that your responses are confidential.

	1	2	3	4	5
	Not at all	Seldom	Occasionally	Often	A great deal
Over the past 12 months, to what extent have you solicited feedback on your...					
▪ job performance from your immediate superior?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ job performance from individuals other than your superior?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ service to your customers (which are people you serve either internally or externally by performing your job)?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ career progress to date?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ training and development needs?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ opportunities for future career development?	1	2	3	4	5
Over the past 12 months, to what extent have you...					
▪ reviewed internal job postings?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ actually investigated internal job postings?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ discussed future job openings with your internal network?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ discussed future job postings with your external network?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ thought about what position you would like to have next?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ sought information about job opportunities outside the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ sought out any new personal connections at work for the purpose of furthering your career?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ sought out any new personal connections outside of work for the purpose of furthering your career?	1	2	3	4	5

For the next question, use the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Very Dated	Moderately Dated	Neither Dated nor Current	Moderately Current	Very Current

How current is your resume? 1 2 3 4 5

For the next three questions, use the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

It is likely that I will actually look for a new job within the next year. 1 2 3 4 5
 I often think about quitting. 1 2 3 4 5
 I will probably look for a new job in the next year. 1 2 3 4 5

The following questions are designed to gather information about your specific experience with your current company. Please be honest and candid in your responses. Remember that all individual responses are confidential, and will be reported only in group form.

Continue Here



Below are several belief statements about your current job with your current organization. You may agree or disagree with these statements. For each item, circle the number that represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement using the scale below.

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Neither Agree nor Disagree	5 Slightly Agree	6 Agree	7 Strongly Agree
1. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice - another organization may not make the overall benefits I have here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and there are real sense of moral obligations to remain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I do not think that wanting to be a "company man" or "company woman" is sensible anymore.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Continue Here



Below is a series of 65 work-related statements. Please circle the numbered alternative that best represents your opinion to the right of each item. For example, if you strongly agree with item number one, you would circle 5 to the right of the item. Please read each statement carefully. For each statement circle the response that best represents your belief or opinion using the scale below.

	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. It is important to stay busy at work and not waste time	1	2	3	4	5
2. I feel uneasy when there is little work for me to do.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. If I want to buy something, I always wait until I can afford it	1	2	3	4	5
4. I feel lonely when I have spent the day working	1	2	3	4	5
5. Life would be more meaningful if we had more leisure time	1	2	3	4	5
6. To be truly successful, a person should be self-reliant	1	2	3	4	5
7. One should always take responsibility for one's actions	1	2	3	4	5
8. I would prefer a job that allowed me to have more leisure time	1	2	3	4	5
9. Time should not be wasted, it should be used efficiently.....	1	2	3	4	5
10. Even if I were financially able, I would not stop working.....	1	2	3	4	5
11. I get more fulfillment from items I had to wait for.....	1	2	3	4	5
12. I schedule my day in advance to avoid wasting time	1	2	3	4	5
13. A hard day's work is very fulfilling	1	2	3	4	5
14. The more time I can spend in a leisure activity, the better I feel	1	2	3	4	5
15. One should always do what is right and just.....	1	2	3	4	5
16. I would take items from work if I felt was not getting paid enough.....	1	2	3	4	5
17. Nothing is impossible if you work hard enough.....	1	2	3	4	5
18. The less time one spends working and the more leisure time one has, the better.....	1	2	3	4	5
19. Things that you have to wait for are the most worthwhile.....	1	2	3	4	5
20. Working hard is the key to being successful.....	1	2	3	4	5
21. Self-reliance is the key to being successful.....	1	2	3	4	5
22. If one works hard enough, one is likely to make a good life for oneself.....	1	2	3	4	5
23. I constantly look for ways to productively use my time	1	2	3	4	5
24. Hard work makes one a better person.....	1	2	3	4	5
25. One should not pass judgment until one has heard all of the facts.....	1	2	3	4	5
26. People would be better off if they depended on themselves	1	2	3	4	5
27. Work takes too much of our time, leaving little time to relax.....	1	2	3	4	5
28. One should live one's own life independent of others as much as possible.....	1	2	3	4	5
29. A distant reward is usually more satisfying than an immediate one.....	1	2	3	4	5
30. It is very important for me to always be able to work	1	2	3	4	5
31. More leisure time is good for people.....	1	2	3	4	5
32. One must avoid dependence on other persons whenever possible.....	1	2	3	4	5
33. Even if I inherited a great deal of money, I would continue to work somewhere.....	1	2	3	4	5
34. I do not like having to depend on other people	1	2	3	4	5
35. By working hard, a person can overcome every obstacle that life presents.....	1	2	3	4	5
36. I try to plan out my workday so as not to waste time.....	1	2	3	4	5
37. You should never tell lies about other people.....	1	2	3	4	5

Please continue on the following page.

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
38. Any problem can be overcome with hard work.	1	2	3	4	5
39. How people spend their time is as important as how they spend their money.	1	2	3	4	5
40. Even if it were possible for me to retire, I would still continue to work.	1	2	3	4	5
41. The effort of work would be very boring.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I prefer to save until I can afford something and not buy it on credit.	1	2	3	4	5
43. The world would be a better place if people spent more time relaxing.	1	2	3	4	5
44. It is true to be self-reliant.	1	2	3	4	5
45. If you work hard, you will succeed.	1	2	3	4	5
46. The best things in life are those you have to wait for.	1	2	3	4	5
47. Anyone who is able and willing to work hard has a good chance of succeeding.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Stealing is all right as long as you don't get caught.	1	2	3	4	5
49. The job that provides the most leisure time is the job for me.	1	2	3	4	5
50. Having a great deal of independence from others is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
51. It is important to treat others as you would like to be treated.	1	2	3	4	5
52. I experience a sense of fulfillment from working.	1	2	3	4	5
53. A person should always do the best job possible.	1	2	3	4	5
54. It is never appropriate to take something that does not belong to you.	1	2	3	4	5
55. Only those who depend on themselves get ahead in life.	1	2	3	4	5
56. Wasting time is as bad as wasting money.	1	2	3	4	5
57. There are times when stealing is justified.	1	2	3	4	5
58. People should have more leisure time to spend in relaxation.	1	2	3	4	5
59. It is important to control one's destiny by not being dependent on others.	1	2	3	4	5
60. By simply working hard enough, one can achieve one's goals.	1	2	3	4	5
61. People should be fair in their dealings with others.	1	2	3	4	5
62. The only way to get anything worthwhile is to save for it.	1	2	3	4	5
63. Leisure time activities are more interesting than work.	1	2	3	4	5
64. A hard day's work provides a sense of accomplishment.	1	2	3	4	5
65. A dislike for hard work is really reflects a weakness of character.	1	2	3	4	5

Continue Here



Please take a moment to tell us some personal characteristics. This information is requested so we can adequately describe the group of people who responded to the survey.

1. What is your age? ___ years
2. What is your gender? ___ M ___ F
3. How can your race best be classified?
 - ___ African American
 - ___ Asian
 - ___ Caucasian
 - ___ Hispanic
 - ___ Other
4. What is your tenure with Company? ___ years ___ months
5. What is your tenure with your current job? ___ years ___ months
6. What is the last level of education that you've completed?
 - ___ High school/GED
 - ___ Associate's Degree
 - ___ Bachelor's Degree
 - ___ Master's/Professional Degree
 - ___ Doctoral Degree
7. How many people directly report to you? I have ___ subordinates.
8. Approximately how many hours per year do you spend on training and development activities? ___ hours

Once again, thank you for your participation!
Please return this survey in the envelope provided.

E. SURVEY TO BE COMPLETED BY A SUPERVISOR, CO-WORKER, OR MENTOR THAT WAS USED IN STUDY TWO.

A survey examining
Relationships with Organizations and Career Activity



You have been selected to provide valuable information by the individual whose name appears on the outside of this envelope. Specifically, in completing a survey conducted by a University of Tennessee researcher, the individual was also asked to distribute this envelope to a coworker, supervisor, or other person that is familiar with his or her career development. While the individual answered some of the same questions on the survey, you are being asked to provide a second perspective on the items listed below.

As you will notice, you are not required to provide your name, nor are you asked to provide the name of the individual you are rating. The surveys will be matched later with the help of the code number provided in the upper right hand corner of this page. Nowhere is this number associated with the individual asking you to complete the survey. Thus, your responses and the individual's identity will remain completely confidential.

If you have any questions about the task you are being asked to complete, or the study in general, contact Jennifer Burgess at (303) 677-2306 or jdykes3@utk.edu.

Please complete the questions below for the individual listed on the front of the envelope given to you. Then, return the survey in the self-addressed stamped envelope provided.

Thank you for your participation in this study! Your time and attention are most appreciated!

1. What is your relationship to the individual listed on the front of the envelope given to you?

Supervisor
 Coworker
 Mentor
 Other

For the questions below, use the following scale.

	1	2	3	4	5
	Not at all	Seldom	Occasionally	Often	A great deal
2. How often does the individual participate in training and development activities?	1	2	3	4	5
3. To what extent does this individual solicit feedback on the following:					
▪ job performance from his or her immediate supervisor?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ job performance from individuals other than his or her supervisor?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ service to customers (who are people served either internally or externally by performing his or her job)?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ career progress to date?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ training and development needs?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ opportunities for future career development?	1	2	3	4	5
4. To what extent does this individual:					
▪ review internal job postings?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ actively investigate internal job postings?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ discuss future job openings with his or her internal network?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ discuss future job postings with his or her external network?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ think about what position he or she would like to have next?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ seek out information about job opportunities outside the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ seek out any new personal connections <u>at work</u> for the purpose of furthering his or her career?	1	2	3	4	5
▪ seek out any new personal connections <u>outside of work</u> for the purpose of furthering his or her career?	1	2	3	4	5

F. CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR CONTINUANCE
COMMITMENT SCALES

Continuance commitment, as put forth by Allen and Meyer (1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997), refers to the perception of costs associated with leaving a particular organization; the individual remains tenured because other options external to the current organization are not as favorable. Past research (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; McGee & Ford, 1987) has shown that Meyer and Allen's (1990) continuance commitment scale probably represents two distinct factors. One of these factors, labeled personal sacrifice, refers to the personal losses associated with leaving the organization. The other factor, low alternatives, refers to the role that the availability of other comparable positions plays in binding one to the organization.

Accordingly, the improvement of a two-factor model over and above that of a one-factor model was ascertained in this dissertation. Accordingly, a hierarchical chi-square test was conducted, as suggested by Loehlin (1998). In this test, two models are fit: one in which the two factors are allowed to correlate, and one in which the factor correlation is constrained to 1.0. The Chi-square fit statistic associated with one-factor model is then subtracted from that of the two-factor model, and the resultant value is compared to a test statistic with one degree of freedom (representing the reduction in df when constraining one path in the one-factor model).

In this test, the two-factor model emerged as slightly superior, but conclusive evidence cannot be drawn as to the scientific merit of utilizing one model over the other. As shown below, the chi-square difference between the two models is large and significant ($\chi^2 = 11.78$, df = 1) when compared to a test value of 3.84. However, other fit

indices are not markedly improved when using the two-factor model, and the two factors are highly correlated ($\Phi = .76$). Results for this analysis appear in Tables F-1 and F-2.

Hypothesis 5, as laid out in Chapter 2 and tested in Chapter 4, deals with organizational commitment in general and continuance commitment in specific. Due to the available evidence presented in this appendix, it was deemed appropriate to conduct the analyses associated with these hypotheses using both the one-factor and the two-factor operationalization of continuance commitment. Thus three separate results are reported in Chapter 4 for Hypotheses 5a through 5c: that using continuance commitment as a correlate, that using personal sacrifice as a correlate, and that using low alternatives as a correlate. The reader should note that the latter two variables are indeed 4-item subfactors of continuance commitment.

Table F-1.

Item loadings for Meyer and Allen's (1990) continuance commitment scale

Item	Continuance Commitment (One-Factor)	Personal Sacrifice (Two-Factor)	Low Alternatives (Two-Factor)
It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted.	1.166	1.210	
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.	1.038	1.119	
It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. (R)	0.794	0.706	
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	0.909	0.906	
I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (R)	0.764		0.807
Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	0.845		0.935
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	0.711		0.815
One of the few serious consequences of this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	0.564		0.686

Table F-2.

Fit statistics for one- and two-factor models of continuance commitment items

Fit Indices	One-Factor Model	Two-Factor Model
χ^2	86.257	74.477
<u>df</u>	20	19
CFI	.817	.847
RMSEA	.104	.097
Model Comparison		
$\Delta\chi^2$	11.78	
<u>df</u>	1	
Δ CFI	.03	
Δ RMSEA	.007	

G. PREDICTION OF THE AVERAGE SQUARED DIFFERENCE
BETWEEN THE PILOT SAMPLE PATTERN AND ITS POPULATION PATTERN

The regression equation predicting the average squared difference between the pilot sample pattern and its population pattern delineated in Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988, p. 271) is:

$$Y=1.10(X_1) - .12(X_2) + .066$$

where Y is the average distance between a population loading and a sample loading, X_1 is the reciprocal of the square root of the sample size (i.e., the approximate standard error of a correlation coefficient), and X_2 is the average loading on a salient variable.

Y can then be squared and compared to a value of 0.1, which was forwarded as the maximum value producing acceptable fit between the sample and population component patterns (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). Calculated values of the variables and the predicted Y value appear in Table X.

Table G-1.

Calculation of the Regression Equation Predicting the Average Squared Difference
Between the Pilot Sample Pattern and its Population Pattern

Formula Component	Factor (Employment Goals)		
	Relational	Transactional	Personalized
X_1	0.0678	0.0680	0.0678
X_2	0.0645	0.0613	0.0566
Y	0.0695	0.0728	0.0774
Y^2	0.0048	0.0052	0.0060

Vita

Jennifer Robin Dykes was born in Davenport, Iowa on August 24, 1974. She was raised Davenport, along with her sister Katie, by her parents, Jerry and Peggy Dykes. She went to grade school at Wilson Elementary School and completed grades seven through nine at Williams Junior High School. Jennifer participated in several activities throughout these years, including dance classes, softball, and basketball. She then went to Davenport North High School, where she graduated in 1992. Again, she participated in several activities including varsity softball, cheerleading, school newspaper, student senate, and volunteer work.

In 1992, Jennifer went to the University of Northern Iowa, majoring in both Psychology and Human Resource Management. She has fond memories of her time in Cedar Falls. She immediately fell in love with the campus and the student centered culture. Jennifer was a resident assistant for three years and served as a Student Alumni Ambassador. She also met a very influential person, Dr. David Whitsett, who encouraged her enrollment in graduate school and supported her throughout her undergraduate years. She graduated summa cum laude in 1996.

In fall of that year, she matriculated into the Industrial/Organizational Psychology doctoral program at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. While in graduate school, in the summer of 1997, she married Douglas James Burgess. She received her doctorate in Spring, 2002. Currently, Jennifer is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Business Management and Administration at Bradley University in Peoria, Illinois.

